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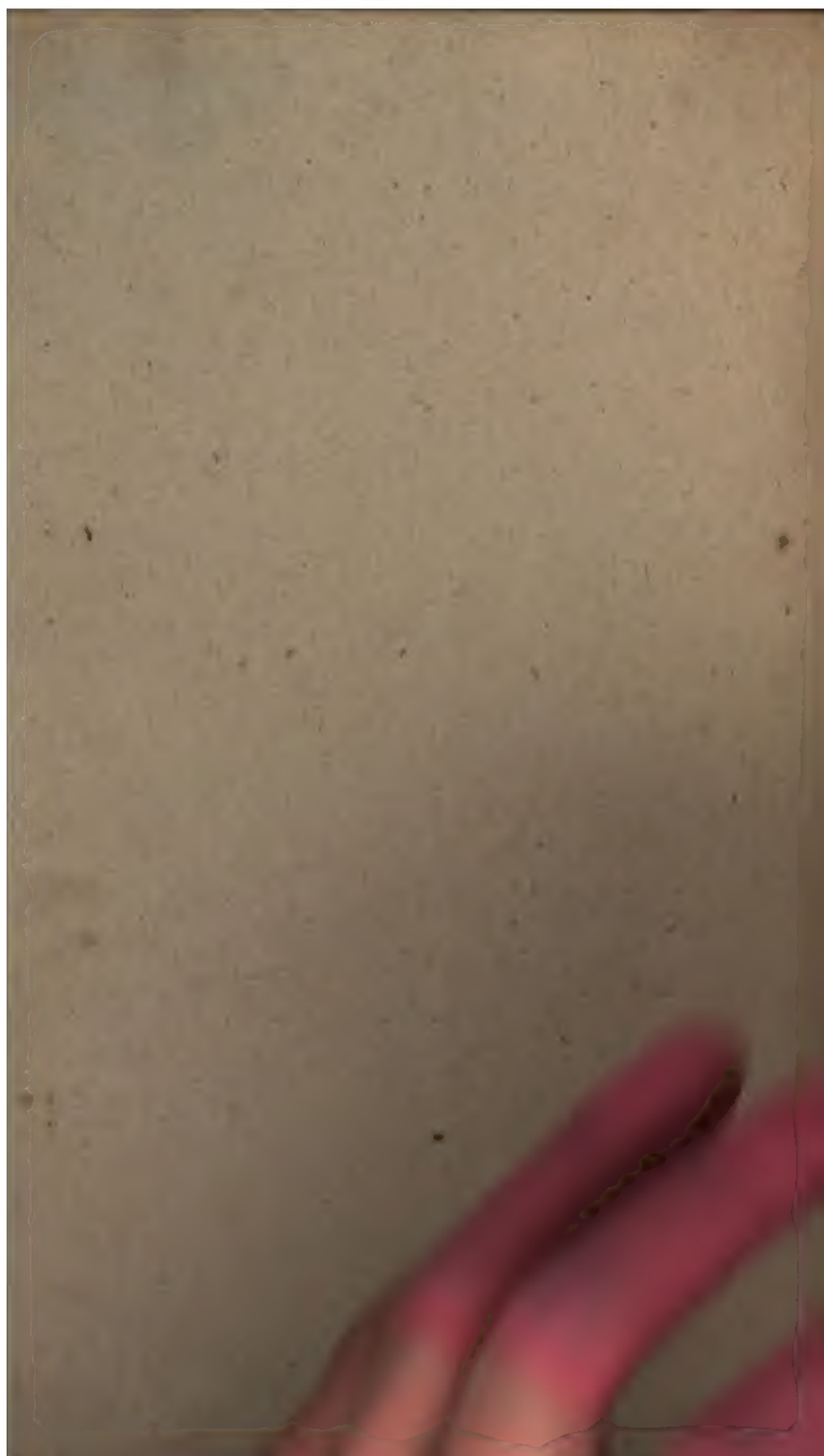
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IN TWENTY THREE VOLUMES.

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ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

F O U

FOUNDERY.

At the conclusion of our last Volume; (see page 718,) we inserted this word in its proper order, with its different definitions, but had not sufficient room remaining in that volume to insert the various branches of this art, in the complete manner, which an article of such importance required.

1. FOUNDRY OF BELLS. The metal, it is to be observed, is different for bells from what is for statues; there being no tin in the latter; but there is a 5th, and sometimes more, in the bell-metal. The dimensions of the core and the wax for bells, if a ring of bells especially, are not left to chance, but must be measured on a scale, or diapason, which gives the height, aperture, and thickness, necessary for the several tones required. It is on the wax that the several mouldings and other ornaments and inscriptions, to be represented in relief on the outside of the bell, are formed. The clapper or tongue is not properly a part of the bell, but is furnished from other hands. In Europe, it is usually of iron, with a large knob at the extremity; and is suspended in the middle of the bell. In China, it is only a huge wooden mallet, struck by force of arm against the bell; whence they can have but little of that consonance so much admired in some of our rings of bells. The Chinese have an extraordinary way of increasing the sound of their bells; viz. by leaving a hole like the cannon; which our bell founders would reckon a defect. The proportions of our bells differ very much from those of the Chinese, as well as their sizes. See BELL, N° I, § 5. In ours, the modern proportions are, to make the diameter 15 times the thickness of the brim, and the height 12 times. The parts of a bell are, 1. The sounding bow, terminated by an inferior circle, which grows thinner and thinner. 2. The brim or that part of a bell whereon the clapper strikes, and which is thicker than the rest. 3. The outward sinking of the middle of the bell, or the point under which it grows wider to the brim. 4. The waist or furniture, and the part that grows wider and thicker quite to the brim. 5. The upper vase, or that part which is above the waist. 6. The pallet which supports the staple of the clapper within. 7. The bent and hollow branches

VOL. X. PART I.

F O U

of metal uniting with the cannons, to receive the iron keys, whereby the bell is hung up to the beam which is its support and counterpoise, when rung out. The business of bell-foundry is reducible to three particulars. 1. The proportion of a bell. 2. The forming of the mould. And, 3. The melting of the metal. There are two kinds of proportions, viz. the simple and the relative; the former are those proportions only that are between the several parts of a bell to render it sonorous; the relative proportions establish a requisite harmony between several bells. The method of forming the profile of a bell, previous to its being cast, in which the proportion of the several parts may be seen, is as follows: the thickness of the brim, C_1 , Plate CLV. fig. 12. is the foundation of every other measure, and is divided into three equal parts. First, draw the line HD, which represents the diameter of the bell; bisect it in F, and erect the perpendicular Ff; let DF and HF be also bisected in E and G, and two other perpendiculars Ee, Gg, be erected at E and G. GE will be the diameter of the top or upper vase, i. e. the diameter of the top will be half that of the bell; and it will, therefore, be the diameter of a bell which will sound an octave to the other. Divide the diameter of the bell, or the line HD, into 15 equal parts, and one of these will give C the thickness of the brim; divide again each of these 15 equal parts into three other equal parts and then form a scale. From this scale take 12 of the larger divisions or two 15ths of the whole scale in the compass, and setting one leg in D describe an arc to cut the line Ee in N; draw ND, and divide this line into 12 equal parts; at the point 1 erect the perpendicular 1C = 10, and C_1 will be the thickness of the brim = one 15th of the diameter: draw the line CD: bisect DN; and at the point of the bisection 6 erect the perpendicular 6K = $1\frac{1}{2}$ of the larger divisions on the scale. With an opening of the compass equal to twice the length of the scale or 30 brims, setting one leg in N, describe an arc of a circle, and with the same leg in K and the same opening, describe another arc to intersect the former: on this point of intersection as a centre, and with a radius equal to 30 brims, describe the arc NK; in 6K produce take KB = $\frac{1}{3}$ of the larger measure of the scale $\frac{1}{4}$ of the brim, and on the same centre with

A

ra

radius 30 $\frac{1}{2}$ brims describe an arc AB parallel to NK. For the arc BC, take 12 divisions of the scale or 12 brims in the compass; find a centre, and from that centre, with this opening, describe the arc BC, in the same manner as NK or AB were described. There are various ways of describing the arc Kp; some describe it on a centre at the distance of nine brims from the points p and K; others, as it is done in the figure, on a centre at the distance only of seven brims from those points. But it is necessary first to find the point p, and to determine the rounding of the bell p r. For this purpose, on the point C as a centre, and with the radius C r, describe the arc r p n; bisect the part r, n, of the line D n, and erecting the perpendicular p m, this perpendicular will cut the arc r p n in m, which terminates the rounding r p. Some founders make the bendings K a third of a brim lower than the middle of the line DN; others make the part C r D more acute, and instead of making C r perpendicular to DN at r, draw it one 6th of a brim higher, making it still equal to one brim; so that the line r D is longer than the brim C r. In order to trace out the top part Nn, take in the compass eight divisions of the scale or 8 brims, and on the points N and D as centres, describe arcs to intersect each other in 8: on this point 8, with a radius of eight brims, describe the arc Nb; this arc will be the exterior curve of the top or crown: on the same point 8 as a centre, and with a radius equal to 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ brims, describe the arc A c; and this will be the interior curve of the crown; and its whole thickness will be one third of the brim. As the point 8 does not fall in the axis of the bell, a centre M may be found in the axis by describing, with the interval of 8 brims on the centres D and H, arcs which will intersect in M; and this point may be made the centre of the inner and outer curves of the crown as before. The thickness of the cap, which strengthens the crown at Q, is about one third of the thickness of the brim; and the hollow branches or ears about one sixth of the diameter of the bell. The height of the bell is in proportion to its diameter as 12 to 15; or in the proportion of the fundamental sound to its third major: whence it follows that the sound of a bell is principally composed of the sound of its extremity or brim, as a fundamental of the sound of the crown which is an octave to it, and of that of the height which is a third. The particulars necessary for making the mould of a bell are, 1. The earth: the most cohesive is the best; it must be well ground and sifted, to prevent any chinks. 2. Brick stone; which must be used for the mine, mould, or core, and for the furnace. 3. Horse-dung, hair, and hemp, mixed with the earth, to render the cement more binding. 4. The wax for inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. 5. The tallow equally mixed with the wax, in order to put a slight lay of it upon the outer mould, before any letters are applied to it. 6. The coals to dry the mould. For making the mould, they have a scaffold consisting of four boards, ranged upon trassels. Upon this they carry the earth, grossly diluted, to mix it with horse-dung, beating the whole with a large spatula. The compasses of construction are the chief instrument for making the mould: They

consist of two different legs joined by piece. And last of all, the founders the which are the engravings of the letters, coats of arms, &c. They first dig a sufficient depth to contain the mould of together with the case or cannon, under and about six inches lower than the top where the work is performed. The hole wide enough for a free passage between the and walls of the hole, or between one and another, when several bells are to be cast. At the centre of the hole is a stake erected strongly fastened in the ground. This is an iron peg, on which the pivot of the branch of the compasses turns. The stake is compassed with a solid brick work, perfectly about half a foot high, and of the proper diameter. This they call a *millstone*. The parts of the mould are, the core, the model of the bell, and the shell. When the outer surface of the bell is formed, they begin to raise the core, made of bricks that are laid in courses height upon a lay of plain earth. At the bottom of each brick, they bring near it the branch of the compasses, on which the curve of the bell is shaped, so as that there may remain between the curve the distance of a line, towards filled up with layers of cement. This is continued to the top, only leaving an opening for the coals to bake the core. This work is covered with a layer of cement, made of earth and horse-dung; on which they move the core of construction, to make it of an even surface every where. The first layer being finished, they put the fire to the core, by filling it half with coals through an opening that is kept shut during the baking, with a cake of earth that has been previously baked. The first fire consumes the cement, and the fire is left in the core half or some whole day: the first layer being thorough, they cover it with a second, third, and fourth, each being smoothed by the board of the furnace, and thoroughly dried before they put on another. The core being completed, they take the compasses to pieces, with intent to cut the thickness of the model, and the compasses are immediately put in their place to begin the piece of the mould. It consists of a mixture of earth and hair, applied with the hand upon the core, in several cakes that close together. The work is finished by several layers of a thin ment of the same matter, smoothed by the compasses, and thoroughly dried before another is laid on. The first layer of the model is a mixture of wax and grease spread over the whole, which are applied the inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. besmeared with a pencil dipped in a mixture of wax in a chafing dish: this is done for every part. Before the shell is begun, the compasses are taken to pieces, to cut off all the wood that is in the place of the thickness to be given to the bell. The first layer is the same earth with hair, sifted very fine; whilst it is tempering, it is mixed with cow's hair to make it more cohesive. The whole being a thin cullis, is gently pressed on the model, that fills exactly all the spaces of the figures, &c. and this is repeated till the whole is two lines thick over the model.

is thoroughly dried, they cover it with a second layer of the same matter, but somewhat thicker; they apply the compasses again, and light the core, so as to melt off the wax of the inside. After this, they go on with the rings of the shell, by means of the compasses they add to the cow's hair a quantity, spread upon the layers, and afterwards by the board of the compasses. The thickness of the shell comes to 4 or 5 inches in the mill-stone before observed, and is quite close, which prevents the extrusion of the metal. The wax should be taken off before the melting of the metal. The ear of the bell requires a separate work, which is done by the drying of the several incrustations of wax.

It has 7 rings: the 7th is called the crown, and unites the others, being a perpendicular to strengthen the curves. It has an opening at the top, to admit a large iron peg, and at the bottom; and this is introduced into the beam, fastened with two strong bolts.

There are models made of the rings, of beaten earth, that are dried in the sun to have the hollow of them. These are gently pressed upon a layer of earth and in, one half of its depth: and then taken out without breaking the mould. This operation is repeated 12 times for 12 half moulds, that two united may make the hollows of the rings; the same they do for the hollow of the crown, and bake them all, to unite them together. An open place left for the coals to be put in, and placed the rings that constitute the ear. Then put into this open place the iron ring, and the clapper of the bell; then they make a cake of clay, to fill up the diameter of the hollow of the core. This cake, after baked, is clapped upon the opening, and soldered with mortar spread over it, which binds it close to the core. The hollow of the crown is filled with an earth, sufficiently moist to be pressed in place, which is strewed at several times over the cover of the core; and they beat it gently with a pebble, to a proper height; and a workman smooths the earth at top with a wooden slip dipped in water. Upon this cover, to be removed afterwards, they assemble the hollows of the rings. When every thing is in its proper place, they strengthen the outside of the hollows with mortar, in order to bind them with the crown, and keep them steady at the bottom, by a cake of the same mortar, which fills the whole aperture of the shell. This they let dry, so that it may be removed without breaking. When the room for the metal, they pull off the crown, and the rings, through which the metal is to run, before it enters into the vacuity of the shell.

The shell being unloaded of its ear, they place under the mill-stone five or six pieces of wood, about two feet long, and thick enough to support the lower part of the shell; between the mill-stone and the mould, they drive in wooden wedges with a mallet, to shake the shell of the model so that it rests, so as to be pulled up and got out of the pit. When this and the wax are removed, they break the model and the layer of

earth, through which the metal must run, from the hollow of the rings, between the shell and the core. They smoke the inside of the shell, by burning straw under it, that helps to smooth the surface of the bell. Then they put the shell in the place, so as to leave the same interval between that and the core; and before the hollows of the rings or the cap are put on again, they add two vents, that are united to the rings, and to each other, by a mass of baked cement. After which they put on this mass of the cap, the rings, and the vent, over the shell, and solder it with thin cement, which is dried gradually by covering it with burning coals. Then they fill up the pit with earth, beating it strongly all the time round the mould. The surface has a place for the fire, and another for the metal. The fire place has a large chimney with a spacious ash-hole. The furnace which contains the metal is vaulted, whose bottom is made of earth, rammed down; the rest is built with brick. It has four apertures; the first, through which the flame revivifies; the second is closed with a stopple that is opened for the metal to run; the others are to separate the dross or scoriae of the metal by wooden rakes: through these last apertures passes the thick smoke. The ground of the furnace is built sloping, for the metal to run down.

2. **FOUNDRY OF GREAT GUNS AND MORTAR PIECES.** The method of casting these pieces is different from that of bells: they are run massy, without any core, being determined by the hollow of the shell; and they are afterwards bored with a steel trepan, that is worked either by horses or a water mill. For the metal, parts, proportions, &c. of these pieces, see **GUNNERY**.

3. **FOUNDRY OF LETTERS, OR CASTING OF TYPES FOR PRINTING.** In the business of cutting, casting, &c. letters for printing, the letter-cutter must be provided with a vice, hand vice, hammers, and files of all sorts such as watch makers use; also gravers and sculptors of all sorts, and an oil-stone, &c. suitable and sizeable to the several letters to be cut: a flat gauge made of box to hold a rod of steel, or the body of a mould, &c. exactly perpendicular to the flat of the using file: a sliding gauge whose use is to measure and set off distances between the shoulder and the tooth, and to mark off from the end, or from the edge of the work: a face gauge, which is a square notch cut with a file into the edge of a thin plate of steel, iron or brass, of the thickness of a piece of common tin, whose use is to proportion the face of each sort of letter, viz. long letters, ascending letters, and short letters. So there must be 3 gauges, and the gauge for the long letters is the length of the whole body supposed to be divided into 42 equal parts. The gauge for the ascending letters Roman and Italic are five 7ths, or 30 parts of 42, and 33 parts for the English face. The gauge for the short letters is three 7ths, or 18 parts of 42 of the whole body for the Roman and Italic, and 22 parts for the English face. The Italic and other standing gauges are to measure the scope of the Italic stems, by applying the top and bottom of the gauge to the top and bottom lines of the letters, and the other side of the gauge to the stem; for when the letter complies with these three sides

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orkmen. The founder must now be provided with a ladle, which differs nothing from other ladles but in its size; and he is provided always with ladles of several sizes, which he uses according to the size of the letters he is to cast. As the caster begins to cast, he must kindle his fire in the furnace to melt the metal in the pan: therefore he takes the pan out of the hole in the floor, and there lays in coals and kindles them; and, when they are well kindled, he sets the pan again, and puts in metal into it to melt: if it is a small-bodied letter he casts, or a thin letter, great bodies, his metal must be very hot; nay sometimes red-hot, to make the letter come. He having chosen a ladle that will hold about as much as the letter and break are, he lays it at a slanting hole, where the flame bursts out, to melt. Then he ties a thin leather, cut with its narrow end against the face to the leather groove of the matrice, by whipping a brown thread twice round the leather groove, and fastening the thread with a knot. Then he puts both halves of the mould together, and puts the matrice into the middle of the mould, and places the foot of the matrice into the hole of the mould, and the broad end of the leather upon the wood of the upper half of the mould; but not tight up, lest it might hinder the putting of the matrice from sinking close down upon the metal in a train of work. Then laying a little wood on the upper wood of the mould, and having the casting ladle hot, he with the boiling side of it casts the metal: and, when it is yet melted, he with the broad end of the leather hard down on the wood, and so fastens it to the wood; all this is the preparation. Now he proceeds to casting; placing the under half of the mould in his left hand, with the hook or bag forward, he catches the ends of its wood between the lower part of the thumb and his three hind fingers; then he lays the upper half of the mould upon the under half, so that the male gauges may fall into the female gauges, and at the same time the foot of the matrice places itself upon the stool; and placing his left hand thumb strong over the upper half of the mould, he nimbly catches hold of the lower spring with his right hand fingers at the bottom, and his thumb under it, and places the bottom against the middle of the notch in the top of the matrice, pressing it both forwards and back the mould, and downwards by the shoulder of the notch close upon the stool; while at the same time with his hinder fingers, he draws the upper half of the mould towards the ball of his thumb, and thrusts by the ball of his thumb the lower part towards his fingers, that both the recesses of the mould may press against both sides of the matrice, and his thumb and fingers press both halves of the mould close together. Then he takes the handle of his ladle in his right hand, and with the bowl of it gives a stroke, two or three, upwards upon the surface of the melted metal, to turn or clear it from the film or dust that may form upon it; then he takes up the ladle full of metal, and having his mould, as aforesaid, in his left hand, he a little twists the left side of his body towards the furnace, and brings the gait of his ladle full of metal to the mouth of the mould, and with the upper part of his right hand towards

him to turn the metal into it, while at the same moment of time he jilts the mould in his left hand forwards, to receive the metal with a strong shake (as it is called), not only into the body of the mould, but while the metal is yet hot, running swift and strongly, into the very face of the matrice, to receive its perfect form there, as well as in the flank. Then he takes the upper half of the mould off the under half, by placing his right hand thumb on the end of the wood next his left hand thumb, and his two middle fingers at the other end of the wood; and finding the letter and break lie in the under half of the mould (as most commonly by reason of its weight it does), he throws or tosses the letter, break and all, upon a sheet of waste paper laid for that purpose on the bench, just a little beyond his left hand, and is then ready to cast another letter as before; and also, the whole number that is to be cast with that matrice. A workman will ordinarily cast about 3000 of these letters in a day. When the casters at the furnace have got a sufficient number of types upon the tables, a set of boys come and nimbly break away the jets from them: the jets are thrown into the pots, and the types are carried away in parcels to other boys, who pass them swiftly under their fingers, defended by leather, upon smooth flat stones, in order to polish their broad sides. This a very dexterous operation, and is a remarkable instance of what may be effected by the power of habit and long practice; for these boys, in turning up the other side of the type, do it so quickly by a mere touch of the fingers of the left hand, as not to require the least perceptible intermission in the motion of the right hand upon the stone. The types, thus finely smoothed and flattened on the broad sides, are next carried to another set of boys, who sit at a square table, two on each side, and are there ranged up on long rulers or sticks, fitted with a small projection, to hinder them from sliding off backwards. When these sticks are so filled, they are placed, two and two, upon a set of warden pins fixed into the wall, near the dresser, sometimes to the amount of an hundred, in order to undergo the finishing operations. This workman, who is always the most expert and skilful in all the different branches carried on at the foundery, begins by taking one of these sticks, and, with a peculiar address, slides the whole column of types off upon the dressing stick: this is made of well seasoned mahogany, and furnished with two end pieces of steel, a little lower than the body of the types, one of which is moveable so as to approach the other by means of a long screw-pin, inserted in the end of the stick. The types are put into this stick with their faces next to the back or projection; and after they are adjusted to one another so as to stand even, they are then bound up, by screwing home the moveable end-piece. It is here where the great and requisite accuracy of the moulds comes to be perceived; for in this case the whole column, so bound up, lies flat and true upon the stick, the two extreme types being quite parallel, and the whole has the appearance of one solid continuous plate of metal. The least inaccuracy in the exact parallelism of the individual type, when multiplied so many times, would render it impos-

able to bind them up in this manner, by disposing them to rise or spring from the stick by the smallest pressure from the screw. Now, when lying so conveniently with the narrow edges uppermost, which cannot possibly be smoothed in the manner before mentioned by the stones, the workman does this more effectually by scraping the surface of the column with a thick edged but sharp razor, which at every stroke brings on a very fine smooth skin, like to polished silver; and thus he proceeds till in about half a minute he comes to the farther end of the stick. The other edges of the types are next turned upwards, and polished in the same manner. It is whilst the types thus lie in the dressing stick that the operation of bearding or barbing is performed, which is effected by running a plane, faced with steel, along the shoulder of the body next to the face, which takes more or less off the corner, as occasion may require. Whilst in the dressing stick they are also grooved, which is a very material operation. To understand this, it must be remembered, that when the types are first broken off from the jets, some superfluous metal always remains, which would make them bear very unequally against the paper whilst under the printing press, and effectually mar the impression. That all these inequalities may, therefore, be taken away, and that the bearings of every type may be regulated by the shoulders imparted to them all alike from the mould, the workman or dresser proceeds in the following manner. The types being screwed up in the stick, as before mentioned, with the jet end outermost, and projecting beyond the wood about one 8th of an inch, the stick is put into an open press, so as to present the jet end uppermost, and then every thing is made fast by driving a long wedge, which bears upon a slip of wood, which lies close to the types the whole length: then a plane is applied, which is so constructed as to embrace the projecting part of the types betwixt its long sides, which are made of polished iron. When the plane is thus applied, the steel cutter bearing upon that part between the shoulders of the types, where the inequalities lie, the dresser dexterously glides it along, and by this means strips off every irregular part that comes in the way, and so makes an uniform groove the whole length, and leaves the two shoulders standing; by which means every type becomes precisely like to another, as to the height against paper. The types being now finished, the stick is taken out of the press, and the whole column replaced upon the other stick; and after the whole are so dressed, he proceeds to pick out the bad letters, previous to putting them up into pages and papers. In doing this he takes the stick into his left hand, and turning the faces near to the light, he examines them carefully, and whenever an imperfect or damaged letter occurs, he nimbly plucks it out with a sharp bodkin, which he holds in the right hand for that purpose. Those letters which, from their form, project over the body of the type, and which cannot on this account be rubbed on the stones, are scraped on the broad sides with a knife or file, and some of the metal next the face pared away with a pen-knife, in order to allow the type to come close to *any other.* *This operation is called* **KERNING.**

The excellence of printing types consists not in the due performance of all the operations as described, but also in the hardness of the metal, form, and fine proportion of the character, in the exact bearing and ranging of the letters in relation to one another.

4. **FOUNDRY OF SMALL WORKS, or CASTING IN SAND.** The sand used for casting small work is at first of a pretty soft, yellowish, and clayey nature: but it being necessary to strew charcoal dust in the mould, it at length becomes of a black colour. The red-hot metal, by burning of the sand, contributes also to blacken it. The sand is worked over and over, with a roller, or board, placed across a chest to receive it, and is by these means sufficiently prepared, and freed from small stones or hard lumps of sand. When done, they take a smooth wooden board of length and breadth proportional to the thing to be cast, and laying the first half of an open mould or wooden frame upon it, they place within the frame what they intend to cast, and then fill it up with the prepared sand, a little moistened to make it cohere properly, pressing it upon the pattern with the roller, so as to leave their impression in it. Along the middle of the mould is also placed half a small brass cylinder, to make an impression for the chief canal for the metal to run through when melted, into the models or patterns; from this chief canal are drawn several other canals, which extend to each model or pattern placed in the frame. Then placing the other half of the mould over the one with the patterns in it, so that the pins enter into the holes that correspond to them in the other, they proceed to work it in the same manner, so as to make the two cavities of the pattern fall exactly on each other. After the frames of the mould are thus finished, and the backs scraped smooth, they take out the patterns, first loosening them gently all round, that they may not give way. The moulds are then carried to the melter; who, after strewing mill-dust upon them, dries them in a kind of oven for that purpose. Both parts of the mould being dry, they are again joined together by means of the pins; and to prevent their giving way, by reason of the red metal passing through the chief cylindrical canal, they are screwed or wedged up in a pair of wooden screws, like a kind of press. When the moulds are thus prepared, the metal is melted in a crucible, of a size proportionate to the quantity of metal intended to be cast, and when brought to a proper heat, is poured into them at the mouth of the chief canal. When the moulds are cooled, the frames are unscrewed, and the cast work taken out of the sand, which is wet and worked over again for other castings.

5. **FOUNDRY OF STATUES.** The casting of statues depends on the due preparation of the wax, the core, the outer mould, the investment, the furnace to melt off the wax, and the upper to pour the metal. The pit is a hole dug in a dry place something deeper than the intended figure, and made according to the prominence of certain parts thereof. The inside of the pit is commonly lined with stone, or brick; or, when the figure is large, they sometimes work on the ground,

is a proper fence to resist the impulsion of the melted metal. The inner mould, or core is a rude sketch to which is given the intended attitude and colours. It is raised on an iron grate, strong enough to sustain it, and is strengthened within by several bars of iron. It is generally made either of potter's clay, mixed with hair and horse dung; or of plaster of Paris mixed with brick-dust. The use of the core is to support the wax, the weight, and lessen the weight of the metal. The iron bars and the core are taken out of the brass figure through an aperture left in it for that purpose, which is soldered up afterwards. It is necessary to leave some of the iron bars of the core, to contribute to the steadiness of the projecting part within the brass figure. The wax is a representation of the intended statue. If it be a piece of sculpture, the wax should be all of the sculptor's own hand, who usually forms it on the spot: Though it may be wrought separately in cavities, moulded on a model, and afterwards arranged on the ribs of iron over the grate; filling the vacant space in the middle with liquid plaster and brick-dust, whereby the inner core is proportioned as the sculptor carries on the wax. When the wax, which is the intended thickness of the metal is finished, they fill small waxen tubes perpendicular to it from top to bottom, to serve both as canals for the conveyance of the metal to all parts of the work; and as vent-holes, to give passage to the air, which would otherwise occasion great disorder when the hot metal came to encompass it. The work being brought thus far, must be covered with its shell, which is a kind of crust laid over the wax, and which being of a soft matter, easily receives the impression of every part, which is afterwards communicated to the metal upon its taking the place of the wax, between the shell and the mould. The matter of this outer mould is varied according as different layers are applied. The first is generally a composition of clay, and old white crucibles well ground and fired, and mixed up with water to the consistence of a colour fit for painting: accordingly they apply it with a pencil, laying it 7 or 8 times over, and letting it dry between whiles. For the 2d impression, they add horse-dung and earth to the former composition. The 3d impression is only horse-dung and earth. Lastly, the shell is finished by laying on several more impressions of this manner, made very thick with the hand. The shell, thus finished, is secured by several iron girths, bound round it, at about half a foot distance from each other, and fastened at the bottom to the grate under the statue, and at top to a circle of iron where they all terminate. If the statue be so big that it would not be easy to move the mould with safety, they must be wrought on the spot where it is to be cast. This is performed two ways: in the first, a square hole is dug under ground, much bigger than the mould to be made therein, and its inside lined with walls of free stone or brick. At the bottom is made a hole of the same materials, with a kind of furnace, having its aperture outwards: in this is a fire made to dry the mould, and afterwards melt the wax. Over the furnace is placed the grate, and upon this the mould, &c. formed as above. Lastly, at one of the

edges of the square pit, is made a large furnace to melt the metal. In the other way, it is sufficient to work the mould above ground, but with the like precaution of a furnace and grate underneath. When finished, 4 walls are to be run around it, and by the side thereof a massive made for a melting furnace. For the rest the method is the same in both. The mould being finished, and inclosed as described, whether under ground or above it, a moderate fire is lighted in the furnace under it, and the whole covered with planks, that the wax may melt gently down, and run out at pipes contrived for that purpose, at the foot of the mould, which are afterwards exactly closed with earth, so soon as the wax is carried off. This done, the hole is filled up with bricks thrown in at random, and the fire in the furnace augmented, till such time as both the bricks and mould become red-hot. After this, the fire being extinguished, and every thing cold again, they take out the bricks, and fill up their place with earth moistened, and a little beaten to the top of the mould, in order to make it the more firm and steady. These preparatory measures being duly taken, there remains nothing but to melt the metal, and run it into the mould. This is the office of the furnace above described, which is commonly made in the form of an oven with three apertures, one to put in the wood, another for a vent, and a third to run the metal out at. From this last aperture, which is kept very close, while the metal is in fusion, a small tube is laid, whereby the melted metal is conveyed into a large earthen basin, over the mould, into the bottom of which all the big branches of the jets, or casts, which are to convey the metal into all the parts of the mould, are inserted. These casts or jets are all terminated with a kind of plugs, which are kept close, that, upon opening the furnace, the brass, which gushes out with violence, may not enter any of them, till the basin be full enough of matter to run into them all at once. Upon which occasion they pull out the plugs, which are long iron rods with a head at one end, capable of filling the whole diameter of each tube. The whole of the furnace is opened with a long piece of iron fitted at the end of each pole, and the mould filled in an instant. This completes the work in relation to the casting part; the rest being the sculptor's or carver's business, who, taking the figure out of the mould and earth wherewith it is encompassed, saws off the jets with which it appears covered over, and repairs it with chisels, gravers, punchcons, &c.

* FOUNTAINLESS. *adj.* [from *fountain*.] Having no fountain; wanting a spring.—

So large

The prospect was, that here and there was room For barren desert *fountainless* and dry. *Milt.*

* FOUNTFUL. *adj.* [from *font* and *full*.] Full of spring.—

But when the *fontful* Ida's top they scal'd with utmost haste,

All fell upon the high hair'd oak. *Chap. II.*

* To FOUPE. *v. a.* To drive with such intemperance. A word out of use.—We pronounced by the collection of strangers, a word not so moderately as any of the northern nations.

solape their words out of the throat with fat and full spirits. *Camden.*

FOUQUIERES, James, an eminent painter, born at Antwerp in 1580. He received his chief instructions from Velvet Brughel; and applied himself to the study of landscapes, and went to Rome and Venice to improve himself in colouring. He succeeded so happily, that his works are said to be nearly equal to those of Titian. He was much caressed at the elector Palatine's court, and afterwards spent several years in France; where his works met with universal approbation, and were proportionably well paid for. Yet by some misconduct he fell into poverty, and died in the house of an inconsiderable painter in 1659.

(1.) * **FOUR.** *adj.* [*fower*, Saxon.] Twice two.—

Just as I wish'd, the lots were cast on *four*;
Myself the fifth. *Pope's Odyssey.*

(2.) **Four**, in geography, a rock in the British Channel, near the S. coast of Jersey.

* **FOURBE.** *n. f.* [French.] A cheat; a tricking fellow. Not in use.—

Jove's envoy, through the air,
Brings dismal tidings: as if such low care
Could reach their thoughts, or their repose disturb!

Thou art a false impostor, and a *fourbe*. *Denb.*
FOURCES, a town of France in the dept. of Gers, 6 miles WNW. of Condom.

FOURCHE, a chain of mountains in the Helvetic republic, at the E. extremity of the Valais.

FOURCHEE, or } in heraldry, a cross forked at
FOURCHY, } the ends. See **HERALDSY**.

FOUR-FEET ISLAND, an island on the coast of Kent, near Margate Road.

* **FOURFOLD.** *adj.* [*four* and *fold*.] Four times told.—He shall restore the lamb *fourfold*, because he had no pity. 2 *Sam.* xii. 6.

* **FOURFOOTED.** *adj.* [*four* and *foot*.] Quadruped; having twice two feet.—

Augur Astylos, whose art in vain
From fight dissuaded the *fourfooted* train,
Now beat the hoof with Nessus on the plain. }
Dryden.

(1.) **FOUR-MILE WATER**, a river of Ireland in Cork, which runs into Dunniannus Bay, 5 miles SW. of Bantry.

(2.) **FOUR-MILE WATER**, a village of Ireland in Waterford, 4 miles from Clonmell.

(1.) **FOURMONT**, Stephen, professor of the Arabic and Chinese languages, and one of the most learned men of his time, was born at Herbelai, a village 12 miles from Paris, in 1683. He studied in Mazarine college, and afterwards in the Seminary of Thirty-three. He was at length professor of Arabic in the Royal College, and was made a member of the Academy of Inscriptions. In 1738 he was chosen F. R. S. in London, and of that of Berlin in 1741. He was often consulted by the duke of Orleans, who greatly esteemed him, and made him one of his secretaries. He wrote a great number of books. The chief of those which have been printed are, 1. *The Roots of the Latin Tongue*, in verse. 2. *Critical Reflections on the Histories of ancient Nations*, 2 vols 4to. 3. *Meditationes Senecae*, folio. 4. *A Chinese Grammar, in Latin*, folio. 5. *Several Dissertations printed*

in the Memoirs of the Academy of I &c. He died at Paris in 1745.

(2.) **FOURMONT**, Michael, youngest Stephen, (N^o 1.) took orders, was p the Syriac language in the Royal Col member of the Academy of Inscription in 1746.

FOURNEAUX' ISLAND, a small island in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. Lat. 17 11. S.

FOURNELS, a town of France, in Lozere, 7 miles W. of St Chely.

(1.) **FOURNESS**, a track in Loynsd shire, between the Kent, Leven, and Sands, which runs N. parallel with th of Cumberland and Westmoreland, and runs into the sea as a promontory. H Camden expresses it, "the sea, as if it, lashes it more furiously, and in high even devoured the shore, and made 3 viz. Kent-sand, into which the river K itself; Leven-sand and Dudden-sand which the land projects in such a man has its name thence; Foreness and Fornifying the same with us as *promontori* in Latin." Bishop Gibson, however, name of *Fourness*, or *Furness*, from the *furnaces* that were there anciently, the services of which (called *bloomsmiting*) still paid. Here are several cotton mills few years ago; and if fuel for fire plentiful, the trade of this country would increase: but there being no coals near Wigan, or Whitehaven, firing is rather the country people using only turf or the mosses of Fournels much fir is more oak: the trunks in general lie heads to the east, the high winds having the west. Fourness produces all sorts but principally oats, whereof the bread is made; and there are veins of a very ore, which is not only melted and wrought exported in great quantities. The three above-mentioned are very dangerous to by the tides and the many quicksands. a guide on horseback appointed to Kester sand at 10l. a year, to Leven at the public revenue; but to Dudden sand are most dangerous, none; and it is a common thing for persons to pass over it 100 at a time like caravans, under the of the carriers, who pass every day. are less dangerous than formerly, being and better known, and travellers without guides.

(2.) **FOURNESS ABBEY**, or "FURNIS in the mountains," was begun at Tuncunderness, in 1124, by Stephen earl of Savigni in France, and 3 years after to the valley, then called *Bekangejill* vale of night shade." It was of the Cistercians, endowed with above 800l. per ann the monks of this abbey, Camden says, of the Isle of Man, which lies over against to be chosen by ancient custom; it were the mother of many monasteries in Ireland. Some ruins, and part of the f

ed the monastery, are still to be seen at

The remains at Fournels breathe the simplicity of the Cistercian abbeys; the gate was the only piece of elegant Gothic it, and its roof has lately fallen in. The painted glass from the E. window, representing the crucifixion, &c. is preserved at the church in Bowthel, Westmoreland. (except the N. side of the nave), the aisle, refectory, &c. remain, only un-

FOUNESS FIELDS, high hills, with vast extent, in the above district, (N^o 1.) among the ancient Britons found a secure refuge from the victorious Saxons: for we find here 228 years after the arrival of the when Egfrid king of Northumberland subjugated the land called *Carthmell*, with its towns in it, as is related in his life. In the mountains are quarries of a fine durable blue covering buildings, which are used in parts of the kingdom. The inhabitants are numerous of sheep, which browse upon the hills. The woods afford charcoal for smiths, and oak bark for tanners, in great quantities. The forests abound with deer and stags, and the *leggs* or *jacks*, or large stags, are frequently found underground.

FOU, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caria, 14 miles WSW. of Satalia.

FOUR-LEAF FLOWER. See *MIRABILIS*.

FOUR-EVAUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne, 10 m. S. of Toulouse.

FOUR, *adj.* [from *four* and *score*.] 1. Four; eighty.—When they were out of the turn I had crossed the ocean to Spain, and forgot the names of their ships, and the greater part of them. *Bacon's War with Spain*.—The first a free people, being a commonwealth maintaining a navy of *four-score* ships. *Samuel Purchas* had, by the practice of near years, obtained great veneration from all the sailors. *Clarendon*. 2. It is used elliptically for *four-score* years in numbering the age of

seventeen years many their fortunes seek; *four-score* it is too late a week. *Shak.*

It might be of use in council upon great matters three-score and ten; and the numbers in Spain were so 'till *four-score*.

FOUR-STONES, a village of Oxfordshire, 12 m.

FOUR-SQUARE, *adj.* [from *four* and *square*.] Quadrangular, having four sides and angles equal.—The city of Bel was invironed with a wall carved of great height and beauty; and there were certain brazen gates curiously engraven. *Reliquie's Hist.*

FOURTEEN, *adj.* [from *four* and *teen*.] Fourteen; sixteen.—I am not *fourteen* pence for the ale. *Shak.*

FOURTEENTH, *adj.* [from *fourteen*.] The fourteenth; the fourth after the tenth.—The fourth day that see the ninth day, few see the fourth, and the eyes of some do not open the *fourteenth* day. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

A. Paar. L

(1.) * **FOURTH**, *adj.* [from *four*.] The ordinal of four; the first after the third.—

A third is like the former: filthy hags!

Why do you shew me this? A *fourth*? Start eyes!

What? will the line stretch out to th' crack of doom? *Shak.*

(2.) **FOURTH REDUNDANT**, in music. See *INTERVAL*.

* **FOURTHLY**, *adv.* [from *fourth*.] In the fourth place.—*Fourthly*, plants have their seed and seminal parts uppermost, and living creatures have them lowermost. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

* **FOURWHEELED**, *adj.* [from *four* and *wheel*.] Running upon twice two wheels.—

Scarce twenty *fourwheel'd* cars, compact and strong,

The massy load could bear, and roll along.

Pope's Odyssey.

FOUSSERET, a town of France in the dep. of the Upper Garonne; 2 miles W. of Rieux, and 27 SW. of Toulouse.

(1.) **FOU-TCHEOU**, a city of China of the 1st rank in the province of FO-KIEN. It carries on a great trade; and has a good harbour and a most magnificent bridge, which has more than 100 arches, constructed of white stone, and ornamented with a double balustrade throughout. It is the residence of a viceroy, and has under its jurisdiction 9 cities of the 3d class. It lies 870 miles S. of Peking. Lon. 136. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 4. N.

(2.) **FOU-TCHEOU**, a city of China of the 1st rank, in the prov. of Kiang si; formerly one of the finest cities in the empire, but almost ruined by the Tartar invasion. It lies 735 miles E. of Peking. Lon. 133. 42. E. of Ferro. Lat. 27. 55. N.

* **FOUTRA**, *n. f.* [from *foutre*, French.] A fig; a scold; a word of contempt. Not used.—

A *foutra* for the world, and a worldling's base.

South. Prov. IV.

FOUYENT LA VILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Saone; 7 m. NE. of Champlate.

(1.) **FOWEY**, **FAWEY**, or **LOY**, a populous and flourishing town of Cornwall, with a commodious haven on the British Channel. It extends above 1 mile on the E. side of the river. (N. 2.) and has a great share in the fishing trade, especially of pilchards. It rose so much formerly by naval wars and piracy, that in the reign of Edward III. its ships refusing to strike when required, as they failed by Rye and Winchelsea, were attacked by the ships of those ports, but defeated them: whereupon they bore their arms mixed with the arms of those two cinque ports, which gave rise to the name of the "Gallants of Fowey." And Camden informs us that this town quartered a part of the arms of all the other Cinque Ports with their own; intimating, that they had at times triumphed over them all: and indeed once they were so powerful, that they took several French men of war. In the reign of Edward III. they refused certain ships of Rye from distress, for which this town was made a member of the Cinque Ports. Edward IV. favoured Fowey so much, that when the French threatened to come up the river to burn it, he caused two towers, the ruins of which are yet visible, to be built at the public charge for its security: but he was afterwards reproved at the inhabitants for attacking the French.

after a truce proclaimed with Lewis XI. that he took away all their ships and naval stores, together with a chain drawn across the river between the two forts, which was carried to Dartmouth. It is said they were so insolent, that they cut off the ears of the king's pursuivants; for which some lives and estates were forfeited. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 8 aldermen, a town clerk, and 2 assistants; the market is on Saturday; the fairs on May day and Sept. 10. Here are a fine old church, a free school, and an hospital. The toll of the market and fairs, and keyage of the harbour, were vested in the corporation on the payment of a fee-farm rent of about 4cs. It has sent 4 members to parliament since the 13 of Q. Elizabeth. Fowey lies 32 miles S. of Launceston; 32 ENE. of Falmouth, 26 of Plymouth, and 240 WSW. of London. Lon. 4. 23. W. Lat. 50. 19. N.

(2.) FOWEY, PAWEY, FOUTH, or FOY, a river of Cornwall, which rises 4 miles SE. of Camel-ford, passes by Lestwithiel, and runs into the British Channel, a little below POWEY (N. 1.) where it is very broad and deep. It was formerly navigable up to Lestwithiel.

(1.) * FOWL. *n. f.* [*fugel*, *fuhl*, Saxon; *voegel*, Dutch.] A winged animal; a bird. It is colloquially used of edible birds, but in books of all the feathered tribes. *Fowl* is used collectively: as, we dined upon fish and *fowl*.—

The beasts, the fishes, and the winged *fowl*,
Are their males subjects, and at their controul.

Shak.

—Lucullus entertained Pompey in a magnificent house: Pompey said, this is a marvellous house for the Summer; but methinks very cold for the Winter. Lucullus answered, do you not think me as wise as divers *fowls*, to change my habitation in the Winter Season? *Bacon's Apoph.*—

This mighty breath

Instructs the *fowls* of heaven.

Thomson.

(2.) FOWL, among zoologists, denotes the larger sorts of birds, whether domestic or wild: such as geese, pheasants, partridges, turkey, ducks, &c. Tame fowl make a necessary part of the stock of a country farm. See POULTRY. Fowls are again distinguished into two kinds, *viz.* *land* and *water* fowls, these last being so called from their living much in and about water: also into those which are accounted *game*, and those which are not. See GAME.

* To FOWL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To kill birds for food or game.

* FOWLER. *n. f.* [from *fowl*.] A sportsman who pursues birds —

The *fowler*, warn'd

By those good omens, with swift early steps

Treads the crimp earth, ranging through fields
and glades,

Offensive to the birds.

Philips.

With slaught'ring guns th' unwearied *fowler*
roves,

When frosts have whiten'd all the naked groves.

Pope.

(1.) FOWLING, *n. f.* the art of catching birds by means of bird lime, decoys, and other devices; or the killing of them by the gun. See BIRD-CATCHING, BIRD LIME, DECOY, & SHOOTING, and the names of the different birds in their order.

(2.) FOWLING is also used for the pursuing taking birds with hawks, more properly called FALCONRY or HAWKING. See these articles.

(1.) * FOWLINGPIECE. *n. f.* [*fowl* and *piece*.] A gun for birds.—'Tis necessary that the countryman be provided with a good *fowlingpiece*. *As*

(2.) FOWLINGPIECES are reckoned best, when they have a long barrel, from 5½ to 6 feet, and a moderate bore. But every fowler should have them of different sizes, suitable to the game he designs to kill. The barrel should be well polished and smooth within, and the bore of an even bigness from one end to the other; which may be improved, by putting in a piece of pasteboard, of the exact roundness of the top: for if this is done down without stops or stopping, you may conclude the bore good. The bridge-pan must be somewhat above the touch hole, and ought to have a notch to let down a little powder: this will prevent the piece from recoiling, which it would otherwise be apt to do. As to the locks, choose such as are well filed with true work, and the springs must be neither too strong nor too weak. The hammer ought to be well hardened, and pliable to go down to the pan with a quick motion.

(1.) FOWLNESS, a village in Norfolkshire.

(2.) FOWLNESS ISLAND. See FOULNESS.

(3.) FOX, George, the founder of the Free Quakers, was a shoemaker in Nottingham. When he wrought at his trade, he used to meditate much on the scriptures; which, with his solitary course of life, improving his natural melancholy, he began at length to fancy himself inspired; in consequence thereof set up for a preacher. He proposed but few articles of faith; insisting chiefly on moral virtue, mutual charity, the love of God, and a deep attention to the inward motions and secret operations of the spirit: he recommended a plain simple worship, and a religion without ceremonies, making it a principal point to converse in profound silence the directions of the Spirit. Fox met with much rough treatment for his zeal, was often imprisoned, and several times in danger of being killed. But in spite of all discouragements his sect prevailed much, and many great men were drawn over to them; among whom were BARCLAY and PENN. He died 1681. See QUAKERS.

(2.) FOX, John, the martyrologist, was born at Bolton in Lincolnshire, in 1517. At 16 he was entered a student of Brazen-nose college, Oxford; in 1543, he proceeded M. A. and was chosen fellow of Magdalen college. He discovered an early genius for poetry, and wrote several Latin comedies on Scriptural subjects, which his son assures us were written in an elegant style. He now applied himself with uncommon assiduity to divinity, particularly church history; and, discovering a mature propensity to the doctrine of reformation, he was expelled the college as an heretic. His distress on this occasion was very great; but he soon found an asylum in the house of Sir Thomas Lucy of Warwickshire, who employed him as tutor to his children. Here he married the daughter of a citizen of Coventry. Sir Thomas's children being grown up, after residing a short time with his wife's father, he came to London; finding no immediate means of subsistence, he

d to the utmost degree of want; but as one day sitting in St Paul's church, emaciated with hunger, a stranger accosted him familiarly, bidding him be of good cheer, put a shilling into his hand; telling him at the same time, that in a few days new hopes were before him. He was soon after taken into the family of the Duke of Richmond, as tutor to the earl's children. In this family he lived, at first in Surrey, during the latter part of the reign of Henry VIII. the entire reign of Edward VI. and part of that of Q. Mary I: but at length, persecuted by his implacable enemy Bp. Gardiner, he was obliged to seek refuge abroad. Basil in France was the place of his retreat, where he was employed in correcting the press. On the death of the Duke of Richmond he returned to England; where he was warmly received by his former pupil the duke of Norfolk, who retained him in his family as long as he lived, and bequeathed him a pension at his death.

Mr Secretary Cecil also obtained for him a rectory at Shipton near Salisbury; and he having had considerable preferment, had he been willing to subscribe to the canons. He died at the age of 70; and was buried in the chancel of St. Giles's, Cripplegate. He was a man of industry, and considerable learning; a zealous but not a violent reformer; a nonconformist, and an enemy to the church of England. He had two sons; one of whom was bred a divine, the other a physician. He wrote many pieces: his principal work is, the *Acts and Monuments* of the Church, &c. commonly called *Fox's Book of Martyrs*.

* **FOX**. *n. f.* [*fox*, Saxon; *vos*, *voseb*, &c.] 1. A wild animal of the canine kind, with sharp ears, and a bushy tail, remarkable for its cunning, living in holes, and preying upon small animals.—

He *fox* backs not when he would steal the lamb. *Shak.*

He that trusts to you,
Where he should find you lions, finds you hares;
He *foxes*, geese. *Shak. Macbeth.*

His retreats are more like the dens of robbers,
Than of *foxes*, than the fortresses of fair war-
riors. *Locke.* 2. By way of reproach, applied to a cunning fellow.

FOX, in zoology. See **CANIS**, § I, N° xvi, 1. The fox is a great nuisance to the husbandman, by taking away and destroying his lambs, poultry, &c. The common way to catch him is, by which being baited, and a train made by hanging raw flesh across in his usual paths or leading to the gin, it proves an inducement to him to the place of destruction. The fox is a beast of chase, and is taken with greyhounds, harriers, &c. See **HUNTING**.

FAXALL, a town SE. of Ipswich, Suffolk.

FAXBROOK, a village in Staffordshire.

FOXCASE. *n. f.* [*fox* and *case*.] A fox's skin.—
It had better be laughed at for taking a *foxcase* than a fox, than be destroyed by taking a live fox.
L'Estrange.

FOXCHASE. *n. f.* [*fox* and *chase*.] The pursuit of a fox with hounds.—

See the same man, in vigour, in the gout;
And in company; in place or out;

Early at business, and at hazard late;

Mad at a *foxchase*, wise at a debate. *Boyd.*

FOXERNA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 25 miles N. of Gothenburg.

* **FOXEVIL**. *n. f.* [*fox* and *evil*.] A kind of disease in which the hair sheds.

* **FOXFISH**. *n. f.* [*vulpesula piscis*.] A fish.

FOXFORD, a town of Ireland, in Mayo county, seated on the May, 8 miles N. of Castlebar, and 17 1/2 NW. of Dublin.

(1.) * **FOX-GLOVE**. *n. f.* [*digitalis*.] A plant.

(2.) **FOX GLOVE**, in botany. See **DIGITALIS**.

FOXHAM, a village NW. of Calne, Wilts.

* **FOXHUNTER**. *n. f.* [*fox* and *hunter*.] A man whose chief ambition is to show his bravery in hunting foxes. A term of reproach used of country gentlemen.—The *foxhunters* went their way, and then out steals the fox. *L'Estrange*.—John Wildfire, *foxhunter*, broke his neck over a six-bar gate. *Speck.*

(1.) **FOX ISLAND**, an island in Atlantic, on the W. coast of Ireland; 7 miles E. of Slyme-Head.

(2.) **FOX ISLANDS**, or **LYSSIE OSTROVA**, a group of 16 islands situated between the E. coast of Kamtschatka, and the West. coast of America. Each Island has a particular name; but the general name, *Fox Islands*, is given to the whole group, on account of the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. They are called *Lyffe Ostrova*, by the Russians. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird's skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties, they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But when they choose to dress their victuals, they use a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices, with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and for defence they use wooden shields. The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a *race*, who, in case of an attack or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always claim to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children

when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or set fire to train-oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion of one rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become furious and inflexible, taking the most violent revenge without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair. Lat. between 52° and 55° N.

FOXLEY, 2 villages: 1 in Norfolk, SW. of Repeham: 2 in Wilts, near Malmesbury.

* FOXSHIP. *n. f.* [from *fox*.] The character or qualities of a fox; cunning; mischievous art.—

Had'st thou *foxship*

To banish him that struck more blows for Rome,
Than thou hast spoken words. *Shak. Coriol.*

* FOXTAIL. *n. f.* [*alepecomus*] A plant.

FOXTON, 3 English villages: 1. in Cambridge; 2. in Durham: 3. in Leicestershire.

* FOXTRAP. *n. f.* [*fox* and *trap*.] A gin or snare to catch foxes.—Answer a question, at what hour of the night to set a *foxtrap*? *Tutor.*

(1.) * FOY. *n. f.* [*foi*, Fr.] Faith; allegiance. An obsolete word.—

He Easterland subdued, and Denmark won,
And of them both did *foy* and tribute take.

Fairy Queen.

(2, 3.) FOY, in geography. See FOWAY.

(4.) FOY, ST, a town of France in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, 35 miles E. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 0. 5. E. Lat. 44. 49. N.

FOYE, a village in Herefordshire.

(1.) FOYLE, a river of Ireland in Derry; which runs by Londonderry, into LOUGH FOYLE. See N° 1.

(2.) FOYLE, LOUGH, a large bay of Ireland; at the mouth of the Foyle (N° 1.) 4 miles below Londonderry. It is 12 miles long and 7 broad, and is well sheltered by the land on all sides; the entrance not exceeding half a mile wide, having only one deep channel in the middle between sands and shallows.

FOYN'S ISLAND, an island of Ireland, in the Shannon, 21 miles below Limerick.

FOYN TON, a town of Sussex, W. of Pevensey.

FOYSTON, W. of Knaresborough, Yorkshire.

(1.) FOZ, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, 5 miles W. S. W. of Martigues.

(2.) Foz, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 8 miles NE. of Barjols.

(3.) Foz, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Aliento; at the conflux of the Zayas and the Tagus, 24 miles NE. of Lisbon.

FOZA, a district of Maritime Austria, of the 7 Communes in the Vicentino.

FOZZANO, a town of the French rep. in the island and dept. of Corsica; 4 miles Sarzano.

FRACAS, *n. f.* [French, pronounced *Franoise*; a hurly-burly.

FRACASTOR, Jerome, a most eminent poet and physician, born at Verona in 1483. Two singularities are related of him: one is his lips adhered so closely to each other he came into the world, that a surgeon was obliged to divide them with his knife; the other his mother was killed with lightning, while he was in her arms at the very moment, and unhurt. He was eminently skilled in the letters, and in all arts and sciences. He was a poet, a philosopher, a physician, an astronomer and a mathematician. Pope Paul III. made use of his authority to remove the council of Trent to Boulogne, under the pretext of a contagious distemper, which, as Fracastor deposed, was no longer safe to continue at Trent. He was intimately acquainted with cardinal Bembo, Scaliger, and all the great men of his time. He died of an apoplexy at Casti near Verona in 1553: and in 1559, the town of Verona erected a statue in honour of him. He was the author of many performances, both as a poet and as a physician; no man was ever more distinguished in either of these capacities: for he practised without fees, and as a poet whose usual reward was glory, no man was ever more dissident about money. Owing to this diffidence, little of his poetry is extant, in comparison of what he wrote; and his Odes and Epigrams, which were read with admiration, yet never passing the press. All that remain are his 3 books of "Symptoms of the French disease;" a book of Miscellaneous Poems; and two books of a poem, intitled, which he began towards the end of his life did not live to finish. And these would have been finished with the rest, if his friends had not preserved and communicated copies of them. He composed also a poem, called *Alcon, sive de canum venaticorum*. His works are all in Latin. His medical pieces are, *De Sympthia & Catarrhia*; *De contagione & contagiosis morbis*; *De febribus criticorum dierum*; *De vini temperaturis*. His works have been printed separately and collectively. The best edition is that of Padua in 2 vols 4to.

FRACHES, in the glass trade, are the pans into which the glass vessels already made are put when in the tower over the workman's place, and by means of which they are drawn through the leers, that they may be taken easily from the fire, and cool by degrees.

* To FRACT. *v. a.* [*fractus*, Lat.] To break; to violate; to infringe. Pound perhaps the following passage.—

His days and times are past,
And my reliance on his *fractured* dates
Has suit my credit. *Shak.*

(1.) * FRACTION. *n. f.* [*fraction*, Fr. Latin.] 1. The act of breaking; the state of being broken.—The surface of the earth has

the parts of it dislocated; several parts retain still the evident marks of *fracture*. *Burnet's Theory*. 2. A broken part al.—

actions of her faith, arts of her love, ments, scraps, the bits and greasy remains
er-eaten faith, are bound to Diomedes.

Shak.

the motion of the moon, whereby computed, nor the sun, whereby years are, consisteth of whole numbers, but *fractions* and broken parts. *Broqua's curs.*—Pliny put a round number rather than a *fraction*, *Arbutb. on Coins*. *CTION*, in arithmetic and algebra, a tion of an unit or integer; or a number to an unit in the relation of a part e. The word literally imports a broken. Fractions are usually divided into *xagefimal*, and vulgar. See ALGEBRA *METRIC*.

THONAL. adi. [from *fraction*.] Be a broken number; comprising a broken.—We make a cypher the medium between increasing and decreasing numbers, compounded absolute or whole numbers, and *fractional* numbers. *Coker's Arithmetick*. *RACTURE. n. f.* [*fractura*, Lat.] 1. Separation of continuous parts.—That without any great *fracture* of the more parts of nature, or the infringement thereof. *Hale's Origin of Mankind*. 2. Separation of a continuity of a bone in *fracture*.

you wilt sin and grief destroy,
the broken bones may joy,
be together in a well-set song,
of his praises,
dead men raises;
as well cur'd make us more strong.

Herbert.

of the skull are dangerous, not in consequence of the injury done to the cranium itself, but because the brain becomes affected. *Sharp's Surg.* *RACTURES*. See SURGERY.

RACTURE. v. a. [from the noun.] To break.—The leg was dressed and the *fractures* united together. *Wijeman's Surgery*. *FRUM, or FRENUM, BRIDLE*, in anatomy given to divers ligaments, from their restraining and curbing the motions of the parts they are fitted to: as,

FRUM LINGUÆ, or *Bridle of the Tongue*; *FRUM* ligament, which ties the tongue to the pharynx, larynx, fauces, and lower parts of the throat. In some subjects the *frænum* runs the length of the tongue to the very tip; in others, if it were not cut, it would take away the possibility of speech. See SURGERY, *Ind.* *FRUM PENIS*, a slender ligament, where the prepuce is tied to the lower part of the penis. Nature varies in the make of it; it being so short in some, that unless dissected it would not admit of perfect erection. It is a kind of little *frænum*, fastened to the lower part of the clitoris.

FRAGA, a strong town of Spain in the kingdom of Arragon. It is situated among the mountains, having the river Cinca before it, whose high banks are difficult of access; and at its back a hill, which cannot easily be approached with large cannon. Alphonso VII, king of Arragon, and I. of Castile, was killed by the Moors in 1134, in besieging this town. It is 53 miles ESE. of Saragossa, and 30 S. of Balbastro. Lon. o. 23. E. Lat. 41. 27. N.

FRAGARIA, the **STRAWBERRY**: A genus of the polygynia order, belonging to the icosandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 35th order, *Senticoſa*. The calyx is decemfid; the petals five; the receptacle of the seeds ovate, in the form of a berry, and deciduous. There is but one species, 12.

FRAGARIA VESCA, the cultivated Strawberry. The principal varieties are,

1. **FRAGARIA VESCA ALPINA**, the *Alpine*, or *mountain Strawberry*, having small oval leaves, small flowers, and moderate-sized, oblong, pointed fruit.

2. **FRAGARIA V. CHILCENSIS**, the Chili strawberry, with large, oval, thick, hairy leaves, large flowers, and very large firm fruit.

3. **FRAGARIA V. MOSCHATA**, the *hautboy*, or *musky Strawberry*, having oval, lanceolate, rough leaves, and large pale-red fruit.

4. **FRAGARIA V. SYLVESTRIS**, the wood strawberry, with oval sawed leaves, and small round fruit.

5. **FRAGARIA V. VIRGINIENSIS**, the Virginian scarlet strawberry, with oblong oval sawed leaves, and a roundish scarlet-coloured fruit. All these varieties are hardy, low, perennials, durable in root, but the leaves and fruit stalks are renewed annually in spring. They flower in May and June, and their fruit comes to perfection in June, July, and August; the Alpine kind continuing till the beginning of winter. They all prosper in any common garden soil, producing abundant crops annually without much trouble. They increase exceedingly every summer, both by off-sets or suckers from the sides of the plants, and by runners or strings, all of these rooting and forming plants at every joint, each of which separately planted bears a few fruit the following year, and bears in great perfection the succeeding summer. Those of the Alpine kind (N^o 1.) will even bear fruit the same year that they are formed. All the sorts are commonly cultivated in kitchen gardens, in beds or borders of common earth, in rows lengthwise 15 or 18 inches distance; the plants the same distance from one another in each row. Patches of the different sorts, disposed here and there in the fronts of the different compartments of the pleasure ground, will appear ornamental both in their flowers and fruit, and make an agreeable variety. Strawberries, eaten either alone, or with sugar and cream, are universally esteemed a most delicious fruit. They are grateful, cooling, subacid, and juicy. Though taken in large quantities, they seldom disagree. They promote perspiration, impart a violet smell to the urine, and dissolve the tartareous incrustations on the teeth. People afflicted with the stone have found relief by using them very largely; and Hoffman says, he has known

known consumptive people cured by them. The bark of the root is astringent. Sheep and goats eat the plant: cows are not fond of it; horses and swine refuse it.

* **FRAGILE.** *adj.* [*fragile*, Fr. *fragilis*, Lat.] 1. Brittle; easily snapped or broken.—

To ease them of their griefs,
Their pangs of love, and other incident throes,
That nature's *fragile* vessel doth sustain
In life's uncertain voyage. *Shak. Timon.*

—The stalk of ivy is tough and not *fragile*. *Bacon's Natural History.*—

When subtle wits have spun their threads too fine,

'Tis weak and *fragile*, like Arachne's line.

Denham.

—A dry stick will be easily broken, when a green one will maintain a strong resistance; and yet in the moist substance there is less rest than in what is drier and more *fragile*. *Glanville.* 2. Weak; uncertain; easily destroyed.—

Much ostentation, vain of fleshly arms,
And *fragile* arms, much instrument of war,
Long in preparing, soon to nothing brought,
Before mine eyes thou'lt set. *Milt. Par. Reg.*

* **FRAGILITY.** *n. s.* [from *fragile*.] 1. Brittleness; easiness to be broken.—To make an induration with toughness, and less *fragility*, decoct bodies in water for two or three days. *Bacon's N. Hist.* 2. Weakness; uncertainty; easiness to be destroyed.—Fear the uncertainty of man's *fragility*, the common chance of war, the violence of fortune. *Knolles's History.* 3. Frailty; lability to fault.—All could not be right in such a state, in this lower age of *fragility*. *Wotton.*

* **FRAGMENT.** *n. s.* [*fragmentum*, Lat.] A part broken from the whole; an imperfect piece.

He who late a sceptre did command,
Now grasps a floating *fragment* in his hand.

Dryden.

—Cowley, in his unfinished *fragment* of the *Davideis*, has shewn us this way to improvement. *Katts on the Mind.*—If a thin or plated body, which, being of an even thickness, appears all over of one uniform colour, should be slit into threads, or broken into *fragments* of the same thickness with the plate, I see no reason why every thread or *fragment* should not keep its colour. *Newton's Opticks.*—

Some on painted wood

Transfix'd the *fragments*, some prepar'd the food.

Pope's Odyssey.

* **FRAGMENTARY.** *adj.* [from *fragment*.] Composed of fragments. A word not elegant, not in use.—

She, she is gone; she's gone: when thou know'st this,

What *fragmentary* rubbish this world is,
Thou know'it, and that it is not worth a thought;
He knows it too too much that thinks it nought.

Donne.

FRAGNINO, and } Two towns of Naples, in
FRAGNITELLO, } the province of Principato Ultra; the former 8 miles, and the latter 6, from Benevento.

FRAGOA DE S. PEDRO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 13 m. SSW. of Lamego.

FRAGOAS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura; 6 miles NW. of

* **FRAGOR.** *n. s.* [Latin.] A noise or crash. Not used.—

Pursu'd by hideous *fragors*, as bel
The flames descend, they in their bre

* **FRAGRANCE.** } *n. s.* [*fragrant*]

* **FRAGRANCY.** } Sweetness of smelling scent; grateful odour.—

Eve separate he spies,
Veil'd in a cloud of *fragrance*, when
Half spy'd. *Milton's*

—I am more pleas'd to survey my row
worts and cabbages springing up in the
grancy and verdure, than to see the ten
of foreign countries kept alive by artifi
Spectator.—

Not lovelier seem'd Narcissus to th
Nor, when a flower, could boast more

Such was the wine; to quench wh
steam

Scarce twenty measures from the livi
To cool one cup suffic'd: the goblet
Breath'd aromattick *fragrancies* aroun

* **FRAGRANT.** *adj.* [*fragrans*, Latin] Sweet of smell.—

Fragrant the fertile earth
After soft show'rs; and sweet the co
Of grateful evening mild.

The nymph vouchsaf'd to place
Upon her head the various wreath:
The flow'rs, less blooming than her
Their scent, less *fragrant* than her bre

* **FRAGRANTLY.** *adv.* [from *fragrant*] Sweetly. —As the hops begin to chan
and smell *fragrantly*, you may conclude
Mortimer's Husbandry.

FRAGUIER, Claude Francis, a polite
ed French writer, born at Paris, of a no
in 1666. He was educated under the J
was admitted into their order, but after
ted it; and, soon after assisted the Ab
in conducting the *Journal des Sçavans*.
tings consist of Latin poems, and many
dissertations. He died in 1728.

(1.) * **FRAIL.** *adj.* [*fragilis*, Latin.] Easily decaying; subject to casualties; destroyed.—

I know my body's of so *frail* a kin
As force without, severs within can kil
—When with care we have raised an
treasure of happiness, we find, at last, th
terials of the structure are *frail* and peri
the foundation itself is laid in the san
2. Weak of resolution; liable to errou
tion.—The truly virtuous do not easily
that is told them of their neighbours; fo
may do amiss, then may these also sp
man is *frail*, and prone to evil, and the
soon fail in words. *Taylor.*

(2.) * **FRAIL.** *n. s.* 1. A basket made
2. A rush for weaving baskets.

(3.) **FRAIL** signifies also 75 lb. of raisi
* **FRAILNESS.** *n. s.* [from *frail*] In

—There is nothing among all the *frail*-uncertainties of this sublunary world so and unstable as the virtue of a coward.

S. in geography, rocks of Ireland, on the Wexford, 12 m. SW. of Carnfore Point. *ILTY*. *n. f.* [from *frail*.] 1. Weakness of ; instability of mind ; infirmity.—'Tho' secure foot, and stands so firmly on his *ility*, yet I cannot put off my opinion so *ake* *spears*.—

thould'st thou have trusted that to we-
an's *frailty* :

o thee, thou to thyself wast cruel.

Milton's Samson Agonistes.

nows our *frailty*, pities our weakness,
ires of us no more than we are able to
e. 2. Faults proceeding from weakness ;
firmity : in this sense it has a plural.—

Love did his reason blind,
ve's the noblest *frailty* of the mind.

Dryden's Indian Emperor.

ind wits will those light faults excuse ;
are the common *frailties* of the muse.

Dryden.

th. only death, can break the lasting chain ;
ere, ev'n then, shall my cold dust remain ;
all its *frailties*, all its flames resign,
art, 'till 'tis no sin to mix with thine. *Pope*.
Christians are now not only like other men
frailties and infirmities, might be in some
excusable ; but the complaint is, they are
thers in all the main and chief articles of
re. *Law*.

LAISCHEUR. *n. f.* [Fr.] Freshness ; cool-
A word foolishly innovated by *Dryden*.—
ther in Summer-ev'nings you repair,
aste the *fraischeur* of the purer air. *Dryd*.

FRAISE. *n. f.* [Fr. the caul of an animal.]
ake with bacon in it.

FRAISE, in fortification, a kind of defence,
ng of pointed stakes, six or seven feet long,
parallel to the horizon into the retrench-
of a camp, a half-moon, or the like, to pre-
approach or escalade. Fraises differ from
chiefly in this, that the latter stand per-
ular to the horizon, and the former jet out
to it, or nearly so, being usually made a
loping, or with the points hanging down.
are chiefly used in entrenchments and other
rown up of earth ; sometimes they are
nder the parapet of a rampart, serving in-
sthe cordon of stone used in stone works.

FRAISE, in geography, a town of France,
dept. of Volges ; 6 miles S. of South Diey,
of E. of Bruyeres.

FRAISE A BATTALION, is to line the mus-
round with pikes, that in case they should
aged with a body of horse, the pikes being
sted may cover the soldiers from the shock,
tre as a barricade.

FRAMBANT SUR PISSE, a town of France,
dept. of Maine, 9 miles NNW. of Laffay.

* FRAME. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A fa-
; any thing constructed of various parts or
ers.—If the *fram* : the heavenly arch should
re itself, if celestial spheres should forget their
ed motions, and by irregular volubility turn

themselves any way, as it might happen. *Hooker*.—
Castles made of trees upon *frames* of timber, with
turrets and arches, were anciently matters of mag-
nificence. *Bacon*.—

These are thy glorious works, parent of good !
Almighty ! thine this universal *frame*. *Milton*.

Divine Cecilia came,
Inventress of the vocal *frame*. *Dryden*.

The gate was adamant ; eternal *frame*,
Which, hew'd by Mars himself, from Indian
quarries came,

The labour of a god ; and all along
Tough iron plates were clench'd to make it
strong. *Dryden*.

—We see this vast *frame* of the world, and an in-
numerable multitude of creatures in it ; all which
we, who believe a God, attribute to him as the
author. *Tillotson*. 2. Any thing made so as to in-
close or admit something else.—Put both the tube
and the vessel it leaned on into a convenient wood-
en *frame*, to keep them from mischances. *Boyle*.
His picture scarcely would deserve a *frame*.

Dryden's Juv.

—A globe of glass, about eight or ten inches in
diameter, being put into a *frame* where it may be
swiftly turned round its axis, will, in turning,
shine, where it rubs against the palm of one's
hand. *Newton's Opticks*. 3. Order ; regularity ;
adjusted series or disposition.—

A woman, that is like a German clock,
Still a-repairing, ever out of *frame*,
And never going aright. *Shakespeare*.

Your steady soul preserves her *frame* ;
In good and evil times the same. *Swift*.

4. Scheme ; order.—Another party did resolve to
change the whole *frame* of the government in state
as well as church. *Clarendon*. 5. Contrivance ;
projection.—

John the Bastard,

Whose spirits toil in *frame* of villanies. *Shak*.
6. Mechanical construction. 7. Shape ; form ;
proportion.—

A bear's a savage beast,

Whelp'd without form, until the dam
Has lick'd it into shape and *frame*. *Hudibras*.

(2.) FRAME is also used for a sort of loom,
whereon artificers stretch their linens, silks, stuffs,
&c. to be embroidered, quilted, or the like.

(3.) FRAME, among founders, a kind of ledge,
which, being filled with wetted sand, serves as a
mould to cast their works in. See FOUNDERY, § 4.

(4.) FRAME, in joinery, a kind of case, wherein
a thing is set or inclosed, or even supported ; as a
window frame, a picture frame, &c.

(5.) FRAME, among painters, a kind of square,
consisting of 4 long slips of wood joined together,
whose intermediate space is divided by threads in-
to several little squares like a net ; and hence some-
times called *reticula*. It serves to reduce figures
from great to small ; or, on the contrary, to aug-
ment their size from small to great.

(6.) FRAME, among printers, is the stand which
supports the cases. See CASE, § 4.

* To FRAME. *v. a.* 1. To form or fabricate by
orderly construction and union of various parts.—

The double gates he findeth locked fast ;
The one fair *fram'd* of burnish'd ivory,
The other all with liver overcast. *Spenser*.

2. To

2. To fit one to another.—They rather cut down their timber to *frame* it, and to do necessities to their convenient use, than to fight. *Abbot*.—Hew timber, saw it, *frame* it, and set it together. *Mart*.

3. To make; to compose.—

Then chusing out few words most horrible,
Thereof did verses *frame*. *Spenser*.

Fight valiantly to-day;
And yet I do thee wrong to mind thee of it;
For thou art *fram'd* of the firm truth of valour.

Shakespeare.

4. To regulate; to adjust.—Let us not deceive ourselves by pretending to this excellent knowledge of Christ Jesus our Lord, if we do not *frame* our lives according to it. *Tillotson*. 5. To form to any rule or method by study or precept.—

Thou art their soldier, and, being bred in
broils,

Hast not the soft way; but thou wilt *frame*
Thyself forsooth hereafter theirs. *Shak. Coriol.*

I have been a truant to the law;
I never yet could *frame* my will to it,
And therefore *frame* the law unto my will.

Shakespeare.

6. To form and digest by thought.—The most abstruse ideas are only such as the understanding *frames* to itself, by joining together ideas that it had either from objects of sense or from its own operations about them. *Locke*.—

Full of that flame his tender scenes he warms,
And *frames* his goddess by your matchless
charms. *Granville*.

Urge him with truth to *frame* his sure replies.

And sure he will; for wisdom never lies. *Odyssey*.

—How many excellent reasonings are *framed* in the mind of a man of wisdom and study in a length

of years. *Watts*. 7. To contrive; to plan.—Unpardonable the presumption and insolence in contriving and *framing* this letter was. *Clarendon*.—

8. To settle; to scheme out.—

Though I cannot make true wars,
I'll *frame* convenient peace. *Shak. Coriolanus*.

9. To invent; to fabricate, in a bad sense; as, to *frame* a story or lie.—Astronomers, to solve the phenomena, *framed* to their conceit eccentricks and epicycles. *Bacon*.

FRAMECOURT, a town of France in the dep. of the Straits of Calais; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. of St Pol.

* FRAMER. *n. s.* [from *frame*; *fremman*, Sax.] Maker; former; contriver; schemer.—The forger of his own fate, the *framer* of his fortune, should be improper, if actions were predetermined. *Hammond*.—There was want of accurateness in experiments in the first original *framer* of those medals. *Arbuthnot on Coins*.

FRAMESDEN, a town in Suffolk.

FRAMFIELD, a village in Suffolk.

FRAMINGHAM, a town SE. of Norwich.

FRAMLINGHAM, a large and ancient town of Suffolk. It has the remains of a castle, built by one of the first kings of the East Angles. Its walls, which are still to be seen, are 24 feet high, and 8 thick; and have 13 towers, 14 feet each above the walls. Two of them are watch-towers. To this castle, Mary Tudor, afterwards Q. Mary I, retired, when the unfortunate Lady Jane Gray was proclaimed queen. See ENGLAND, § 40.

Framlingham has a stately church, built of black

flint, with a steeple 100 feet high, and market place; with a weekly market on and 2 fairs, in May and Sept. It is pleated, upon a clay hill near the source of 18 miles NE. of Ipswich, 30 E. of Bury NNE. of London. Lon. 1. 26. E. Lat.

* FRAMPOLD. *n. s.* [This word is Dr Hacket, *frampul*. I know not its Peevish; boisterous; rugged; crossgrained husband! Alas, the sweet woman leads with him: she leads a very *frampold* life. *Shak*.—The *frampul* man could not be. *Hacket's Life of Williams*.

(1.) FRAMPTON, or FROMETON, England, in Dorsetshire, on the Frome WNW. of Dorchester, 12 NW. of W and 126 NE. of London. Lon. 2. 50. W 45. N.

—(2-4.) FRAMPTON is also the name of small towns, in Berks, Lincoln, and Cheshire.

(5, 6.) FRAMPTON UPON SEVERN, Gloucestershire, between Berkley and F and a parish which extends 8 miles in length; bounded by the Stroud on the Berkley on the S. and the Severn on the N. The tide comes up in a straight line for length with great rapidity, till it comes to a main Nob, a natural Bulwark, which torrent to the E. and by N. of Frampton.

FRANC. See FRANK, § IV.

FRANCAISE PORT, a port and bay on the coast of Brasil. Lon. 17. 0. W. of Pernambuco. S.

FRANCASTEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Oise, 5 miles SW. of Breteuil.

FRANCAVILLA, the name of five towns in Naples: viz. 1. in the province of Abruzzo, 9 miles NE. of Chieti: 2. in that of Basilicata, 9 miles SW. of Turis: 3. in Calabria Citra, NE. of Cassano: 4. in Calabria Ultra, WSW. of Squillace: and, 5. in Otranto NW. of Oria.

(I. 1.) FRANCE, an extensive country, for many ages a kingdom, but at present a republic: situated between 5° W. and 7° E. and between 43° and 51° N. Lat. Before the present war, it was bounded by the English Channel and the Austrian Netherlands on the N. Germany, the Alps, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont, on the E.; by the Mediterranean Sea on the S.; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the W.

(2.) FRANCE, AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, &c. DUCE OF. The air of France is pure, temperate, and healthy. It is so happily situated in the middle of the temperate zone, that some reckon it equal to Italy, both with regard to its scenery and the fertility of the soil. The climate is undoubtedly much more salubrious. It produces corn, wine, oil, flax, fruits, &c. in great abundance.

(3.) FRANCE, ANCIENT GOVERNMENT. Before the revolution it was absolute monarchy: the subjects were extremely oppressed, even under the greatest appearance of moderation. The parliaments, for a long time past, had little or no share in the

and their business was confined to the passing and registering the arrets or laws which the king issued to them. However; they did not always render obedience to the king, and there have been many instances of their making a very spirited opposition. In civil causes they were the last to be decided, the court did not interpose. The king of Paris was the most considerable, and the king used often to come in person to the great assembly recorded. It consisted of the great peers of France, besides the ordinary judges, who purchased their places; and they had cognizance of causes belonging to the king. The revenues of the crown arose from the royal land tax, and the aids which proceeded from customs and duties on all merchandize, and salt, the tax upon which commodity was the *gabelle*. See GABEL. Besides these, there were other taxes, as, the capitation or poll-tax, tenths of all estates, offices, and employments, besides the 15th penny, from which neither nobility nor clergy were exempted; the tithes of the clergy, who were also taxed themselves; and, lastly, crown rents, and forfeitures, which brought in a considerable sum. All these are said to have amounted to 200,000 *l.* sterling a-year. But the king had various other ways of raising money, when necessity obliged him.

FRANCE, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, FROM THE CONQUEST OF GAUL, TO THE ACCESSION OF CLOVIS. France was originally possessed by the *Celts* or *Gauls*; a very warlike people, who checked the progress of the Roman empire, and did not yield till Julius Cæsar totally subdued their country, and reduced it to the form of a Roman province. See GAUL. The Romans held in quiet possession of Gaul, as long as the empire retained sufficient strength to repel the incursions of the German nations, whom they were able to subdue. But in the reign of Valerian, the ancient Roman valour and discipline had declined, and the same care was not taken to defend the provinces. The barbarous nations, therefore, began to make much more frequent incursions; and among the rest the FRANKS, a warlike nation, inhabiting the banks of the Rhine, proved particularly troublesome. Their origin is variously accounted for; but the most probable account is, that about the time of the reign of Gordian, the people inhabiting the banks of the lower Rhine entered into a confederacy with the *Saxons* who dwelt on the *Weiser*, and assumed the name of *Franks*, or *Freemen*. Their first invasion, according to Valesius, happened A. D. 247, in the third year of Valerian's reign; when they were repulsed by Aurelian, afterwards emperor. They returned two years after in far greater numbers; and were again defeated by Gallienus, Valerian's son and successor. Others, however, contend that Gallienus engaged one of their kings to defend the frontiers against his countrymen, and other invaders. But in A. D. 260, when the emperor was in Persia, again ravaged Gaul, and entered Italy. In 275, they were driven out of Gaul by Probus, by whose victorious and generous treatment, 9 of their kings submitted to him, and promised an annual tribute.—They continued quiet till A. D. 287; when, along with the Saxon pirates, they plundered the coasts of Gaul. To revenge this insult, the emperor Maximian entered the country of the Franks the following year, and obliged two of their kings to submit to him. The Franks, however, did not remain long in peace. About the year 293, they seized Batavia and part of Flanders; but were entirely defeated by Constantius Chlorus, who transplanted them into Gaul. All these victories, however, were not sufficient to prevent the incursions of this restless and turbulent nation; insomuch that, in 355, they had made themselves masters of 40 cities in Gaul. Soon after, they were totally defeated by Julian, and again by count Theodosius, father to the emperor; but, in 388, they ravaged the province with more fury than ever. As the western empire was at this time in a very low state, they for some time found more interruption from other barbarians than from the Romans, till their progress was checked by Aetius. At this time, the Franks were governed by one *Pharamond*, the first of their kings of whom we have any distinct account. He is supposed to have reigned from A. D. 417 or 418, to 428; and is thought by Abp. Usher to have been killed in the war with Aetius. By some he is said to have compiled the *Salic Laws*, with the assistance of four counsellors, named *Hildigast*, *Lothgast*, *Witegast*, and *Schepast*. Pharamond was succeeded by his son Clodio, who likewise carried on a war against the Romans.

(5.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOVIS THE GREAT. Clodio is said to have received a terrible overthrow from Aetius, near the city of Lens; however, he advanced to Cambray, where he for some time took up his residence. After this he destroyed the cities of Treves and Cologne, Tournay, and Amiens. He died in 428, and was succeeded by Meroveus. Whether the new king was related to Clodio, is not certain. From him the first race of French kings were called *Merovingians*. He was respected by his people, and died in 438. Meroveus was succeeded by his son Childeric; who made war on the Romans, and proceeded as far as the river Loire. He took the city of Paris after a siege of 5, some say 10 years. The Roman power was now totally destroyed in Italy; and therefore Clodomer, Clodio's son, or Louis, who succeeded Childeric, attempted the entire conquest of Gaul. Part of the province was still retained by a Roman named *Syagrius*, who was defeated and killed, and his dominions reduced, by Clovis. Thus was the French monarchy established by Clovis in the year 487.

(6.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOVIS'S ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY, TO HIS DEATH. Clovis now possessed all the country lying between the Rhine and the Loire. He had been educated in paganism; notwithstanding which he allowed his subjects full liberty of conscience. He married Clotilda, daughter of the duke of Burgundy, who was a Christian; and, happening to gain a battle, where, being in great danger, he had invoked the god of Clotilda and the Christians, he soon declared himself a convert, and was baptised in 496. But his profession of Christianity was not followed by any amendment

of life: he spent the remainder of his life in aggrandizing himself and extending his dominions, by the most abominable treachery and violence. In his attacks on Armorica he proved unsuccessful. The inhabitants of that country, though abandoned by the Romans, united together, and made a powerful defence against the barbarians who assaulted them on all sides. Clovis, finding them too powerful, proposed an union, which they accepted, the more readily as he professed Christianity. Burgundy at this time extended from the forest of Vosges to the sea of Marseilles, under Gondebald, the uncle of Clotilda; who had killed two of his brothers, one of them the father of the French queen. The 3d brother, Godagesil, whom he had spared and allowed to possess Geneva, conspired with Clovis to drive him from his dominions. A war having commenced between the French and Burgundian monarchs, the latter was deserted by Godagesil, and fled to Avignon, leaving his antagonist master of Lyons and Vienna. The victor next besieged Avignon; but it was defended with such vigour, that Clovis accepted of a ransom, and an annual tribute from Gondebald; who was likewise obliged to cede to Godagesil, Vienne and several other places. Gondebald was no sooner at liberty than he assembled a powerful army, and advanced towards Vienne, where Godagesil resided. It was strongly garrisoned by 5000 Franks; but Gondebald being admitted through an aqueduct, massacred most of the Franks, sent the rest prisoners to the king of the Visigoths, and put Godagesil to death. All the other places speedily submitted: and Gondebald, now thinking himself able to resist Clovis, informed him, that he must no longer expect tribute; Clovis, though much mortified with this defection, put up with the injury, and accepted of the alliance of the king of Burgundy. He next attacked the Visigoths, who had possessions on both sides of the Pyrenees, and whom he attacked under pretence of zeal for the true religion. To his nobles, assembled at Paris, he said, "It is with concern that I suffer the ARIANS to possess the most fertile part of Gaul; let us, with the aid of God, march against them; and having conquered them, annex their kingdom to our dominions." The nobility approved, and Clovis attacked a prince for whom he had but lately professed the greatest regard, vowing to erect a church in honour of the holy apostles, if he succeeded. Alaric, king of the Visigoths, was a young man of no military experience, though personally brave. He did not therefore hesitate to engage his antagonist; but his army was utterly defeated on the banks of the Clain, 10 miles S. of Poitiers; A. D. 507. Alaric rushed desperately against Clovis in person, by whom he was killed, and his army pursued with great slaughter. Aquitaine now submitted, and Clovis took up his winter quarters at Bourdeaux. Tholouse surrendered next spring; and the royal treasures of the Visigoths were transported to Paris. Angouleme was next reduced, and Arles invited. But here the victorious career of Clovis was stopped by Theodoric king of the Ostrogoths, who had overthrown Odoacer in Italy. He had married Abolfleda Clovis's sister, and given his own daughter to the king of the Visi-

goths, and endeavoured to preserve standing between the two sovereigns; but finding this impossible, he sent one of his powerful army against Clovis; who, with the loss of 30,000 men. Clovis obliged to raise the siege of Arles: Franks still retained the greatest part of the conquests, and Aquitaine was indissolubly united to their empire. In 509, Clovis was vested with the title of Roman emperor, and the church of St Martin in Tours; after entering the cathedral clothed in a purple mantle, the badges of his consular rank, then proceeded to augment his power by giving to his kinsmen the princes of the race. Among those who perished was Sigismund king of Cologne, his son Cloderic; and Meneval, who governed the country of the *Cambresis*; and Renomer king of the *Maine*. All these murders, however, were atoned by his zeal and liberality to the people. He died in 511, after having reformed the Salique laws: a few lines of which prohibited women from inheriting any part of the lands, were extended so far as to disinherit the males of the royal family of France of succession to that kingdom. Clovis lies in the church of St Genevieve, in Paris; his tomb is still to be seen.

(7.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH, TO THAT OF CLOTAIRE I. Clovis's dominions were divided among his 4 sons; Theodoric, the eldest, had the eastern part of the empire; and, from his making Metz his capital, is commonly called *Metz*. Clodomir, the eldest son by Clotilda; Childebert and Clotaire, both infants, had the kingdoms of Paris and Orleans, under the tutelage of their mother. The prudence of Clotilda kept matters quiet in the empire for 8 years; but about 529 a numerous fleet of Danes arrived at the mouth of the Meuse; and their king Cochise landed his forces, began to destroy the country with fire and sword. Against him his son Theodobert, who defeated them by land and navy, and killed their king, sent them to retire with precipitation. In 531, Ermanfrid, king of Thuringia, having destroyed his brethren named *Berthaire*, and his dominions, applied to Thierry for assistance. His other brother Balderic, whom he had treated in the same manner. In this interprise Thierry embarked, on condition that he should have one half of Balderic's dominions after Balderic was overcome and killed. Ermanfrid seized all his dominions, and had no opportunity of revenging himself till 536, perceiving the power of the Ostrogoths, whom he much dreaded, to be considerably increased by the death of king Theodoric, he engaged Clotaire to assist him. They entered Thuringia with two powerful armies, and ed their forces after passing the Rhine. They quickly after reinforced by a considerable number of troops under the command of Theodobert, allies attacked the army of Ermanfrid, who was advantageously posted; and having

was forced to fly from place to place in distress. Soon after this the capital was taken, and Hermanfroi himself, being invited to a conference by Thierry, was treacherously murdered; and his extensive dominions became feudatory to Thierry. In the mean time, Clotilda excited her sons to make war on the Burgundians, to revenge the death of her father Chilperic, whom Gondebald had murdered. Gondebald was now dead, and had left his dominions to his sons Sigismund and Godemar. Sigismund's forces were quickly defeated; and himself delivered up to Clodomir, who threw him into a pit, where he perished. Godemar thus became master of Burgundy. Clodomir defeated him, but pursuing too eagerly, was surrounded by his enemies and slain. After the reduction of Thuringia, however, Childebert and Clotaire entered Burgundy with a powerful army, and in 534 completed the conquest of it; Godemar was killed; others say, he retired into Spain, and thence into Africa. In 560 Clotaire became monarch of France. He had murdered the sons of Clodomir. Thierry and his children were dead, as was also Childebert; so that Clotaire was sole heir to all the dominions of Clovis. He had 5 sons; and Chramnes had some time before rebelled in Auvergne. While Childebert lived, he supported the young prince; but on his death, Chramnes implored his father's clemency. He was at this time pardoned; but soon after engaged the count of Bretagne to assist him in another rebellion. The Bretons, however, were defeated, but Chramnes, perceiving his wife and children surrounded by his father's troops, attempted to rescue them. He was taken prisoner, and with his family thrust into a thatched cottage near the field of battle; which when the king heard of, he commanded the cottage to be set on fire, and they all perished in the flames. Clotaire did not long survive this cruel execution of his son and grand-children, but died in 562.

(8. FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOTAIRE I'S DEATH, TO THAT OF CLOTAIRE II. After Clotaire's death, the empire was divided among his 4 remaining sons, Caribert, Gontran, Sigebert, and Chilperic.—The old king had made no division of his dominions before he died. They therefore divided them by lot; Caribert had Paris; Gontran, Orleans; Sigebert, Metz, or Austrasia; and Chilperic, Soissons. Provence and Aquitaine were possessed in common. Peace was first disturbed in 565, by the *Abares*; a barbarous nation, said to be the remains of the Huns. They entered Thuringia, belonging to Sigebert; who selected and obliged them to repass the Elbe. Sigebert pursued them close, but quickly concluded a peace with them; his brother Chilperic having invaded his dominions, and taken Rheims and some other places. Against him, therefore, Sigebert marched, made himself master of Soissons his capital, and of his eldest son Theodobert. He then defeated him in battle; and not only recovered the place which he had seized, but overran the greater part of his dominions: by the mediation of the other two brothers, Sigebert abandoned his conquests, set Theodobert at liberty, and thus restored peace. Soon after, Sigebert married Brunehaut daughter to Athanagild king of the Visigoths

in Spain; and his brother Caribert, king of Paris, died, whose dominions were divided. In 567 Chilperic married Galswintha, Brunehaut's eldest sister, whom he obtained with some difficulty. Before her arrival, he dismissed his mistress, *Fredegonde*, a woman of great abilities, very ambitious, and capable of the blackest crimes. The new queen, who brought immense treasures from Spain, and made it her whole study to please the king, was for some time entirely acceptable. However, Chilperic gradually suffered Fredegonde to appear at court, and was suspected of having renewed his intercourse with her; which so hurt the queen, that she desired leave to return to Spain, offering to leave all her wealth. The king, knowing that this would render him extremely odious, quieted her suspicions, and soon after caused her to be privately strangled; upon which he publicly married Fredegonde. This atrocious action excited the greatest indignation. His dominions were quickly invaded and conquered by Sigebert and Gontran; after which they made peace, Chilperic consenting that Brunehaut should enjoy those places which he had bestowed upon Galswintha, viz. Bourdeaux, Limoges, Cahors, Bigorre, and Bearn, now called *Lescar*. The French princes were not long at peace. A war quickly commenced; Gontran and Chilperic coalesced against Sigebert. The latter prevailed; and compelling Gontran to a separate peace, seemed determined to make Chilperic pay dear for his repeated perfidy; but he was assassinated by order of Fredegonde, who thus preserved herself and Chilperic. On his death, Brunehaut fell into the hands of Chilperic; but Gondebald, one of Sigebert's best generals, escaped into Austrasia with Childebert, the only son of Sigebert, about 5 years of age, who was proclaimed king. In a short time, however, Meroveus, eldest son to Chilperic, fell in love with Brunehaut, and married her privately. Chilperic immediately went to Rouen, where Meroveus and his consort were; and having seized them, sent Brunehaut and her two daughters to Metz, and carried Meroveus to Soissons. Soon after, one of his generals being defeated by Gontran, who espoused Brunehaut's cause, Chilperic, in a fit of rage, caused Meroveus to be shaved and sent to a monastery. From hence, however, he escaped, and arrived in Austrasia; but the jealousy of the nobles forced him to leave that country; and being betrayed into the hands of his father's forces, he was murdered at the instigation of Fredegonde. France was at this time divided between Gontran king of Orleans and Burgundy, Chilperic king of Soissons, and Childebert king of Austrasia. Chilperic, in 579, had a dispute with Varc count of Bretagne, Chilperic dispatched a body of troops against him; who were defeated, and he was forced to submit to a dishonourable peace. His brother and nephew lived in strict union, and had no reason to be pleased with him. His subjects were oppressed, poor, and discontented. His son Clovis, by his former marriage, avowedly hated Fredegonde. To crown all, the country was threatened with famine and pestilence. The king and queen were both attacked by an epidemic disease. They recovered, but their 3 sons, Clodobert, Samson,

quitain. Pepin now at peace, began to think of assuming the title of *king*. His wishes were agreeable to the nation. The nobility, however, were bound by an oath of allegiance to Childeric, and this oath could not be dispensed with, but by the pope's authority. Ambassadors were therefore dispatched to pope Zachary. His holiness replied, that it was lawful to transfer the regal dignity from hands incapable of maintaining it to those who had so successfully preserved it. On this the unfortunate Childeric was shaved, and confined in a monastery for life; Pepin assumed the title of *king of France*, and the Merovingian line was finally set aside.

(12.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHILDERIC'S DEPOSITION TO THE DEATH OF PEPIN AND ACCESSION OF HIS SONS. This revolution took place in 751. Pepin's attention was first claimed by a revolt of the Saxons; whom he soon reduced. During his expedition against them he got rid of his restless and treacherous brother Grippon; who, weary of Aquitain, fled to Astolphus king of the Lombards, but was killed in attempting to force a pass on the confines of Italy. The submission of the Saxons was followed by the reduction of Brittany, and the recovery of Narbonne from the Infidels. Pepin's next exploit was the protection of pope Stephen III. against Astolphus, king of the Lombards. The pope, unable to contend with such a powerful rival, crossed the Alps and implored the protection of Pepin, who received him with all due respect. He was lodged in the abbey of St Dennis, and attended by the king in person during a dangerous sickness with which he was seized. On his recovery Stephen solemnly placed the diadem on the head of his benefactor, bestowed the regal sanction on his sons Charles and Carloman, and conferred on the three princes the title of *patrician of Rome*. In return for these honours, Pepin accompanied the pontiff into Italy at the head of a powerful army. Astolphus shut himself up in Pavia, where he was closely besieged by the Franks, and obliged to renounce all pretensions to the sovereignty of Rome. No sooner was Pepin gone, however, than Astolphus broke the treaty. The pope was again reduced to distress, and again applied to Pepin; who instantly set out for Italy, and compelled Astolphus a 2d time to submit to his terms, which were now more severe. Not long after Astolphus died, and his throne was usurped by his general Didier; who received the papal sanction, and was recognised as lawful sovereign of the Lombards in 756. Pepin returned to France in triumph; but his peace was soon disturbed by another revolt of the Saxons. But their attempts proved as unsuccessful as formerly, being obliged to submit and purchase their pardon by a renewal of their tribute, and an additional supply of 300 horse. During Pepin's absence, Vaisar duke of Aquitain ravaged Burgundy, and proceeded as far as Chalons. Pepin soon returned, and entering his dominions, committed similar devastations, and would probably have reduced all Aquitain, but for the hostile preparations of his nephew Tassilon, duke of Bavaria. The king, however, contented himself with securing his frontiers by a chain of posts, against any invasion;

after which he resumed his enterprize on the minions of Vaisar. Victory declared in favor of Pepin, who advanced to the banks of the Rhine; while Vaisar was abandoned by the duke of Bavaria, and even by his own subjects. In distress he retired with a few faithful followers into Saintonge, where he defended himself as long as possible, but was at last deprived of his crown and life by the victor. Thus Aquitain was more annexed to the crown of France. Pepin was soon after seized with a slow fever, which put an end to his life in 768, the 54th of his age and 17th of his reign. He was of a short stature whence he was surnamed *Le Bref*, or *the Short*; he was justly intitled a HERO: though in the succeeding reign this seemed to be forgotten, and his tomb was only inscribed, "Here lies the father of Charlemagne." Pepin was succeeded by his two sons, Charles and Carloman.

(13.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES'S ACCESSION, TO HIS CONQUEST OF LOMBARDY. Pepin's sons continued to reign jointly some time; but the active and enterprising Charles gave umbrage to the weak and jealous Carloman. The first enterprize of Charles was against Hunald, the old duke of Aquitain; leaving the monastery where he had resided upwards of 20 years, assumed the royal title, and was joyfully received by his subjects, already weary of the French yoke. Charles quickly entered the field, and with difficulty prevailed upon his brother Carloman, to join him with his forces. But the junction was scarce effected, when Carloman suddenly withdrew his troops. Charles though thus deserted, engaged and overcame his enemy in a great battle, and obliged Hunald to flee to Lupus duke of Gascony. Charles demanded the fugitive prince; and Lupus, not daring to disobey such a powerful monarch, yielded up Hunald to the French. The death of Carloman, in 771, made Charles sole master of France; but the revolt of the Saxons involved him in a series of wars for many years. They had long been tributaries to the French, and now, when freed from the terror of Pepin's arms, thought to shake off the yoke altogether. Charles entered their country with a powerful army; and having repeatedly defeated them, advanced towards their chief station, the town of Paderborn. The Saxons made an obstinate defence, but were at last obliged to submit; and Charles spent three days in demolishing the monuments of idolatry in this place; which so much disheartened the whole nation, that they submitted to such terms as he pleased to impose. Charles had concluded a marriage with the daughter of Didier, king of the Lombards, who had seized and frightened to death pope Stephen III. and endeavoured to reduce his successor Adrian I. to a state of entire dependance on himself. Adrian applied to the French monarch. The French nobles were averse to an Italian war: so that several embassies were sent to Didier, entreating him to restore to the pope those places which he had taken from him, and at last even offering him a large sum of money if he would do so; but this proposal being rejected, Charles obtained the consent of his nobility to make war on the Lombards.

sed of his troops so advantageously, that officers were of opinion, that it would be able to force a passage. This, however, accomplished, either through his superior a panic which seized the Lombard soldier which, Didier, with the old duke of , who had escaped from his prison, and sage at his court, shut themselves up in Adalgise, the only son of Didier, with the and children of Carloman, fled to Verona. ty was immediately invested by the con- and soon submitted. Adalgise escaped antinople. Charles, after a short visit to returned to the siege of Pavia. The place grossly defended, until famine and pesti- blished the inhabitants to implore the cle- of Charles. Hnnald fell a sacrifice to his y in opposing the intention of the people, her was taken prisoner and carried into his kingdom was totally dissolved; and was crowned king of Lombardy at Milan,

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES QUEST OF LOMBARDY TO HIS REPEATED RS OF THE SAXONS. Charles, after re- the oaths of allegiance from his new sub- it out for Saxony, which had again revolt- seized Eresbourg its capital. The king covered this important post; but a detach- f his army being cut off, and new troubles in Italy, he was obliged to accept of the of the Saxons. Having therefore strength- he fortifications of Eresbourg, he set out ly, which was all in commotion. The pro- of Charles restored tranquillity; but in the ime, the Saxons, retaking Eresbourg threat- annihilate the French power in that quar- Charles, on his return, found them employ- ie siege of Siegbourg. His sudden arrival the barbarians with such terror, that they y sued for peace; which he once more , but took care to secure their obedience ain of forts along the Lippe, and by re- the fortifications of Eresbourg. An assem- he Saxon chiefs was held at Paderborn; romise was made, that the nation should : Christianity, after which the king set out pedition to Spain in 778. This enterprise ertaken at the request of Ibunala, the sovereign of Saragossa, who had been um his territory. He was restored, how- y the prowess of Charles, who reduced ia, Saragossa, Barcelona, Navarre and ; but on his return, the Gascons, at- and defeated the rear of his army with- ighter as they passed the Pyrenean moun- Next year, 779, he visited Italy with his . Having passed the winter at Pavia, he Rome amidst the acclamations of the in- . Here, in the 39th year of his age, he in dominions, in presence of the pope, be- s two sons Carloman and Lewis. The who now took the name of *Pepin*, had Lom- he latter Aquitain. He then set out for where he took a most severe revenge on le of that country for their repeated . This revolt was owing to a chief itikind, who had twice before fled from

Charles, to the court of Denmark. Returning in the king's absence, he roused his countrymen to action, while Charles's generals, disagreeing among themselves, took no proper method for repelling the enemy. In consequence of this, they were entirely defeated on the banks of the Weser in 782. Charles arrived in time to prevent the total destruction of his people, and directly penetrated into the heart of the country. Witikind once more fled into Denmark; but 4,500 of his followers perished at once by the hands of the executioner. An universal insurrection was the consequence of this unheard of cruelty; and though during 3 years Charles was constantly successful in the field, he could not subdue the spirit of the people. At last he was obliged to negotiate. Witikind and several other chiefs were invited to an interview; where Charles represented to them in such strong colours the ruin which must ensue to their country, that they persuaded their countrymen finally to submit, and embrace the Christian religion.

(15.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF FROM CHARLES- MAGNE'S CONQUEST OF THE SAXONS, TO HIS CORONATION AS EMPEROR. Charles having thus brought his affairs in Saxony to a conclusion, turned his arms against Tassilon duke of Bavaria, who had privately supported the Saxons. Entering his country with a powerful army in 787, the total destruction of Tassilon seemed inevitable. Charles had advanced as far as the Lech, where Tassilon, privately entering his camp, threw himself at his feet. The king had compassion on his faithless kinsman, but no sooner was the traitor at liberty, than he stirred up the Hunns, the Greek emperor, and the fugitive Adalgise, against the king. He fomented also the discontents of Aquitain and Lombardy; but his own subjects, made a discovery of the whole to Charles. Tassilon, ignorant of this, entered the diet at Ingelheim, but was instantly arrested by order of the French monarch. Being brought to a trial, the proofs of his guilt were so clear, that he was condemned to lose his head: this was afterwards mitigated to perpetual confinement in a monastery, and the duchy of Bavaria was annexed to the dominions of Charles. The Hunns, however, and other enemies of the French monarch continued to prosecute their enterprises, though all their attempts only served to enhance the fame of Charles. He defeated the Hunns in Bavaria, and the Greek emperor in Italy. The Hunns still continuing to infest the French dominions, Charles entered their country at the head of a formidable army and penetrated as far as Raal on the Danube, but was compelled by an epidemic distemper to retire before he had finished his conquest. He had now the mortification to learn that his eldest son Pepin had conspired against him. The plot was discovered by a priest, who had accidentally fallen asleep in a church where the conspirators were met: awakened by their voices, he overheard their consultations; on which he instantly awoke the monarch from his bed, to inform him. Pepin was seized, but had his life spared, though condemned to spend the rest of his days in a monastery. Charles was no sooner freed from this danger than he was again called to arms by a revolt of the Saxons on

the one hand, and a formidable invasion of the Moors on the other; the Hunns at the same time renewing their depredations on his dominions. The king did not at this time make war against the Moors; the victories of Alphonso VI. obliged them to leave France; after which Charles marched in person to attack the Saxons and Hunns. The former consented again to embrace Christianity, and to deliver up a third part of their army; but the Hunns defended themselves with incredible valour. Though often defeated, their love of liberty was altogether invincible; so that it was only the death of the king, and an almost total destruction of the people which terminated the war: only one tribe could be induced to acknowledge the authority of the French monarch. This happened between the years 793 and 798; after which Charles subdued the islands of Majorca and Minorca. His satisfaction from this new conquest, however, was soon damped by the troubles which broke out in Italy. After Adrian I's death his nephew aspired to the dignity; but one Leo being preferred, he determined on revenge. He concealed his designs for 4 years, till on the day of a procession, Leo was assaulted, and left for dead on the ground; but having with difficulty recovered, and escaped to the Vatican, he was protected by the duke of Spoleto, at that time general of the French forces. Leo's cause was espoused by Charles, who invited him to his camp, whence he dispatched him with a numerous guard to Rome, promising soon to follow him and redress all grievances. But the Normans having made inroads into the maritime provinces, he was obliged to defer the promised assistance, till he had constructed forts at the mouths of the navigable rivers, and provided for the defence of his territories, by instituting a militia, and appointing squadrons to cruise against the invaders: after which he set out for the 4th and last time on a journey to Rome, where he was received with the highest possible honours. Leo cleared himself of the crimes laid to his charge by his enemies, while his accusers were exiled. At last, on Christmas, A. D. 800, when Charles appeared in the cathedral of St Peter, and assisted devoutly at mass, the pope suddenly crowned him, and the place instantly resounded with "Long life to Charles the August, crowned by the hand of God! Long life and victory to the great and pacific emperor of the Romans!" He was then consecrated and anointed with royal unction; and conducted to a throne where he was treated with all the respect usually paid to the ancient Cæsars; from this time also being honoured with the title of CHARLEMAGNE, or *Charles the Great*. He afterwards often said, that he was ignorant of the pope's intention at this time; and that, had he known it, he would not have been present; but this was not generally believed; and the desire to have been known to be acknowledged by the other emperors, evidently showed how far he was from it.

34. *FRANKS, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLEMAGNE'S DEATH TO THE PRESENT.* Charles, now Charles the Great, retained the same dignity in the west, and by the conquest of a whole part of the East, by his marrying

disappointed by the marriage of that prince Nicephorus; however, the latter acknowledged his new dignity of Augustus, and the two empires were amicably settled. Charles was further gratified by the great HARUN RASCHID, caliph of the Saracens, who gave him the sacred city of Jerusalem, and the pulchre. Mean time his empire was troubled with invasion by the Normans, under Godfrey, a celebrated warrior, who by their adventure and maritime skill, threatened all the west of Europe with desolation. A temporary truce was settled, and Charles made use of this to settle the final distribution of his empire. Aquitaine and Gascony, with the Spanish provinces were assigned to his son Lewis. Pepin the youngest part of Bavaria, with the whole of the Grisons. Charles the eldest had Austrasia and Thuringia. This division was confirmed by the pope; but it had scarce taken effect when the princes were obliged to defend their dominions by force of arms. Lewis and Pepin were attacked by the Saracens, and the Grisons by the Slavonians. All these enemies were defeated; but Charles was once more called to martial exertions, by Godfrey, the Norman. Charles sent a message of defiance, which was turned; but the king, by artfully dividing among the northern powers, for a while the threatened danger; these being settled, the Normans renewed their depredations, and Charles was obliged to face them in person. But Godfrey being assassinated by a private enemy, the Normans retreated, and the dominions of the emperor were freed from these invaders. The latter days of Charles were embittered by domestic misfortunes. His favourite daughter died, as did also Pepin king of Italy; and after them, his eldest son Charles. He finally associated his only surviving son Louis with the government; at Aix la-Chapelle. Charles himself survived this transaction only a few days. He died on the 27th of Jan 814; in the 46th of his age, and 47th of his reign. By his death the French monarchy was raised to its utmost splendour. He had added Aquitaine to the territories of his ancestors; he had confined the independent Britons to the shores of the ocean, and made them tributaries. He had reduced all the kingdoms of Spain from the Pyrenees to the Ebro, Roussillon, Navarre, Arragon, and Catalonia; he had seized Italy from the Alps to the borders of Sicily; but the duchy of Beneventum, or the present kingdom of Naples, excepted. He also added the whole of Germany from Pannonia; so that the French now had possession of all the country from E. to W. from the Ebro in Spain to the Vistula; and from the duchy of Beneventum to the Elbe. These achievements Charles had been obliged to purchase by horrid misdeeds; for which his only remedy was the barbarity of the people with whom he had to deal, upon whom no mild measures were likely to have had any effect. His schools showed his inclination to govern with mildness, and to advance their civilization; yet in the secret of his private conduct bordered on cruelty.

of the fate of the sons of Carloman. His
to his son Lewis, was excellent : exhorting
consider his people as his children ; to be
id in his administration, but firm in ex-
; to reward merit ; to promote his nobles
ly, and choose his ministers deliberately,
to remove them capriciously.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES'S DEATH, TO THAT OF LEWIS I, AND UNION OF THE EMPIRE. All Charles's maxims were not sufficient to enable Lewis's dominions so extensive, and people so many as he had to deal with. At the time of his death, he was about 36 years of age, and married Ermengarde, daughter of the Count of Hesbai of the diocese of Liege, by whom he had three sons, Lothaire, Pepin, and Lewis. Lothaire, the eldest, was associated with himself in the empire, and the two youngest were entrusted with the governments of Aquitaine and Bavaria. The princes proved unfaithful to their father, and became enemies to one another. The death of Ermengarde, and the marriage of the emperor with Judith, a princess of Bavaria, artful but ambitious, proved the first source of calamity to the empire. In 823, Charles, the emperor's eldest son, was born; and his pretensions became more fatal to the public tranquillity, than the rest. Various parts of the Imperial dominions were likewise assailed by foreign enemies. Brittany and Navarre revolted; the Moors of Catalonia; while the ambition of Judith was a war amongst the brothers themselves. Lewis had been appointed sovereign of the part of Germany bounded by the Danube, the Rhine, the Neckar, and the Elbe; the part the Grisons and Burgundy, comprehending Geneva and the Swiss cantons; but this part was given to the younger sons. Lewis, and Lewis's wife, with the united forces of Aquitaine and Bavaria, the Imperial forces defeated their rebellious and proud the malecontents. The emperor was taken prisoner, and the empress retained in captivity. Lothaire, the eldest of the princes, and the rest were obliged to submit, restore the emperor in his possession, but his power was diminished with remorse. Dreading revenge, and threatened by the church, he threw up his father's seat, begged pardon, and in return relinquish what he had unjustly usurped. Lewis was re-established by the diet of Worms which had met to depose him. His object was to recall his emperor; but this aim he could not, now persecuted Lothaire to such extent that he was obliged to join his brothers and Lewis against their father. The emperor sought to check this rebellion by restoring the great of Aquitaine to Pepin, and giving the youngest son Charles, then only six years old, but pope Gregory IV. concerned himself only in Lothaire, deposing him, and sending the empress to a nunnery at Metz. The unnatural behaviour of the emperor, once more excited the enmity of his subjects. Dreux, Bp. of Metz, invited Lewis king of Bavaria to depose his father and sovereign. In this the Bavarian monarch was joined by the Duke of

the French and Saxons; so that the aged emperor was once more restored, the empress released from her nunnery, and Charles from his prison, in 833. But the ambition of Judith soon set matters once more in a flame. She persuaded the emperor to invest her son Charles with Neustria, besides the dominions formerly assigned him. This produced great discontents in Lothaire and Pepin; but their power was now too much broken to accomplish any thing by force. Pepin's death produced a new division of the empire. The claims of young Pepin and Charles his sons were disregarded, and his French dominions divided between the two brothers, Charles and Lothaire, the latter becoming guardian to his infant nephew. This enraged Lewis of Bavaria to such a degree, that he again revolted; but the unexpected appearance of the Saxons obliged him to submit. Still, however, the ambition of the empress kept matters in a ferment. The emperor died, in 841, after a most unfortunate reign of 27 years. Lewis I. was eminent for the mildness of his manners and peaceful virtues, which procured him the title of *Le Douloureux*, or the gentle: but such was the turbulence and excessive barbarity of the age in which he lived, that all his virtues, instead of procuring him respect and esteem, produced only contempt and rebellion from those, whom duty and nature should have taught submission and obedience. The emperor's death produced a civil war among his sons. The united forces of Lothaire and Pepin were defeated by those of Charles and Lewis on the plains of Fontenoy, where 100,000 Franks perished, in 842. The conquerors having retired, each into their own dominions, Lothaire found means not only to recruit his troops, but to persuade the other two princes to vigorously, that they were glad to consent to a new partition of the empire. By this partition Lothaire kept Italy, with the tract of country between the Rhine and Seine, and between the Meuse and Scheldt. Charles had Aquitaine, with the country between the Loire and the Meuse, while Lewis had Bavaria, with the rest of Germany, from whence he was named *le roi des Germains*. By this partition, Germany and France were divided so as never to be reunited. That part of France called to Lothaire, was now called *Lotharingue*, now corrupted to *Lothain*. The sovereignty, however, which he had acquired at the expense of every kind of duty, and to much blood, afforded him none but imaginary power. He died, within the year, and his empire was partitioned, as before, into three kingdoms, in 843. Louis the Younger, being still king, gave the whole of Lothain to his second son, Lothaire with the title of king; and to his eldest son Charles, named the *Bald*. Pepin, however, died young, and part of his empire, now called Charles's empire, was properly the king of France.

1857 he was elected to the office of Charles
his successor to his brother. In 1857 to
1857 his province had been afflicted by the annual
depredations of the Normans, from whom Charles
was said to procure peace at a lesser expense
than might have resulted on a longer war.
Brittany had also revolted; and then it returned
by the appearance of Charles himself, and a
D powerful

powerful army, he was no sooner embarrassed by the Normans, than they threw off the yoke, and under the conduct of their duke Lewis subdued the neighbouring country of Rennes: after which Lewis assumed the title of king, which he transmitted to his son Herispee. He subdued Charles; and his subjects, despising the imbecility of their king, put themselves under the protection of Lewis the German; who, taking the opportunity of Charles's absence repelling the Danes, marched with a formidable army into France, and was solemnly crowned by the Abp. of Sens in 857. Too confident, as it is established on the throne, he was persuaded to dismiss his German forces; when Charles marched against him with an army, and Lewis abandoned his new kingdom as easily as he had obtained it. The kingdom of Charles, however, continued in a very tottering situation. The Normans harassed him in one quarter, and the Bretons in another. He marched against the latter in 856; but was totally defeated after an engagement which had lasted two days. This was chiefly owing to a noted warrior named *Robert le Fort*, or *the Strong*, who commanded the Bretons; but Charles gained him over, by giving him the title of Duke of France, including the country between the Seine and the Loire. The abilities of Robert supported Charles for a little; but his difficulties returned on his death; he was killed in repelling the Danes. The death of the king of Lorraine in 869 made some reparation; the cities of Lyons, Vienne, Toul, Reims, Verdun, Cambrai, Viviers, and Uzès, with the territories of Hainault, Zealand, and Holland, came to his share. Cologne, Utrecht, Treves, Mentz, Strasbourg, and the rest of Lothaire's territories, were assigned to Lewis the German. Meanwhile the Normans continued their incursions, so that Solomon, king of Brittany joined with Charles, to repel the common enemy: an event which ruined their enterprise, and they were glad to relinquish all the spoil they had taken. Charles delivered from a formidable enemy, aspired to the imperial crown, vacant by the death of Lewis. It belonged of right to Lewis the German; but Charles, having quickly assembled a powerful army, marched into Italy before Lewis could be apprised; and being favourably received at Rome, the Imperial crown was put upon his head by Pope Adrian II, in 873. Lewis, discharged his fury on the defenceless country of Champagne; and though Charles obliged him to retire, yet he continued his preparations with such vigour, that Charles would probably have found him a very formidable adversary; but he died in 877. Charles no sooner heard of his brother's decease, than he invaded Franconia, Thuringia, and Lower Lorraine, which belonged to his son Lewis. He was unsuccessful; and though superior in numbers, was defeated with great slaughter; and was at some time informed that the Normans had invaded his own territories, and taken possession of Rouen. These disasters affected him so that he fell dangerously ill, from which he was scarce recovered, when he was called into Italy to assist the Pope against the *Saracens*, aided by the duke of Pavia and the *Greek* emperor. Charles passed into Italy with *but a few followers*; but when he came to Pavia,

where the Pope had appointed to meet was informed that Carloman king of Bavaria son of Lewis the German, had entered Italy with a powerful army, and claimed the empire in his father's right. Charles prepared to meet him; but his generals conspired against him; the soldiers refused to pass the Alps. Charles was obliged to retire to France, while Carloman, dreading him, prepared to return to Italy. This was the last of Charles's enterprising journey brought on a return of his disease which was rendered fatal through the treachery of a Jewish physician named Zedechias, who administered poison to him. He expired in a cottage upon mount Cenis, in the 54th year of his age, and 38th of his reign.

(19.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES II'S DEATH, TO THE DEPOSITION OF CHARLES III. The ambition of Charles had occasioned much distress both to himself and his subjects. His son Lewis II, surnamed, *the Stammerer*, of a quite different disposition; but his administration was ill calculated to retrieve the state. He died on the 10th of April 879, and left a queen Adelaide pregnant; who soon after delivered of a son, named Charles. A civil war followed an interregnum; during which a faction was formed in favour of the princes, sons to Lewis the brother of Charles II. It proved abortive; and the two sons of Charles, Lewis III. and Carloman, were proclaimed kings of France. Another kingdom was at the same time erected by an assembly of the states, in the south of France, called *Provence*, which consisted of the counties of *Lyonnais, Savoy, Dauphiny, Franche-Comte*, and part of Burgundy; and this kingdom was given to Duke Boson, brother-in-law to Charles II. In 881, they both died; Lewis, by a wound, and Carloman of a wound. This produced a second interregnum; which ended with the deposition of Charles III, surnamed *the Good*, emperor of Germany. His reign was very unfortunate, from the Normans whom he had allowed to settle in the north of France, and laid siege to Paris. Charles, who was forced to oppose them, prevailed on them to depart by a large sum of money. But as he could not advance the money at once, they remained in the country all the winter; and in return, plundered the country, amassing vast wealth besides what Charles had promised. Charles fled to Germany, in a very declining state of health. Here he quarrelled with his empress; and abandoned by all his friends, he was reduced to such distress, that he would have had bread to eat, had not he been supplied by the Abp. of Mentz, out of charity.

(20.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEPOSITION OF CHARLES III, TO THE EXCLUSION OF THE CARLOVINGIAN RACE. Eudes count of Burgundy, chosen king by the nobility during the minority of Charles IV. surnamed *the Simple*, the son of Charles II, by Adelaide. He defeated the Normans, repressed the power of the nobility; and formed a faction in favour of Charles IV. He was sent for, with his mother, from Burgundy, and received with uncommon moderation, though he conducted with great bravery, peaceably re-

great part of the kingdom to him, and consented to do homage for the rest. He died soon after this agreement, in 898. During the reign of Charles IV, the French Government declined. By introducing fiefs, those noblemen who had got possession of governments, confirmed to them and their heirs for ever, became in a manner independent sovereigns: and as they had others under them, and they again others under them, and even these had their vassals a vast number of insupportable little tyrannies were thus erected. The Normans, too, ravaged the country in the most unchristian manner. At last Charles ceded to Rollo, the captain of these barbarians, the duchy of Normandy; who thereupon became Christian, changed his name to Robert, and that of the duchy to Normandy. During the remainder of the reign of Charles the Simple, the usurpations of Robert, grandfather of Hugh Capet, and of Rodolph D. of Burgundy, and the whole reigns of Lewis IV. surnamed the Stranger, Lothaire, and Lewis V. the pious of the Carolingian race continually deduced; till at last they were supplanted by Hugh Capet, who had been created duke of France by Lothaire. This revolution happened in 987, and was brought about much in the same manner as the former one had been by Pepin.

(21.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM HUGH CAPET'S ASSUMPTION OF THE CROWN, TO HENRY I'S DEATH. Hugh Capet did not assume the crown till the death of Lewis V, when he was preferred by the voice of the nation, to his rival Charles D. of Lorraine. He proved an active and prudent monarch, and very fit to keep his subjects in awe. He died on the 24th Oct. 996, leaving his dominions in perfect quiet to his son Robert. The new king inherited the good qualities of his father. In his reign the kingdom was enlarged by the death of Henry duke of Burgundy, the king's uncle, whom he succeeded. This new territory, however, occasioned a war of several years continuance, against some pretenders to that duchy; and had it not been for the assistance of the D. of Normandy, it is doubtful whether the king would have succeeded.—As Robert preferred peace and tranquillity to extended dominions with a precarious tenure, he refused Italy and the imperial crown, both which were offered him. He died on the 20th July, 1031, having reigned 34 years, and lived 60. He was succeeded by his son Henry I. who met with great opposition from his mother. She had always hated him; and preferred his younger brother Robert, in whose favour she now raised an insurrection. By the assistance of Robert duke of Normandy, however, Henry overcame all his enemies, and established himself on the throne. In return he supported William, Robert's natural son, afterwards king of England, in the duchy of Normandy: but afterwards, he not only supported the pretenders to the duchy of Normandy secretly, but invaded that country himself. Proving unsuccessful, he was obliged to make peace: but no sincere reconciliation ever followed; the treaty, therefore, was quickly broken; and Henry once more invaded Normandy with two armies. The first was harassed by continual skirmishes, and the last

to agree to the duke's terms; but the rancour between them never ceased, and was the cause of that enmity, which for many years produced perpetual quarrels between France and the Norman kings in England. Henry died in 1066, as was suspected, by poison.

(22.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM HENRY I'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP I. Henry was succeeded by his eldest son Philip, only 7 years of age. Baldwin earl of Flanders, his guardian, died in 1066, about the time that William of Normandy conquered England. After his death, Philip began to show a very sincere, haughty, and oppressive disposition. He engaged in a war with William the Conqueror, and supported his son Robert in his rebellion against him: (see ENGLAND, § 19.) and after William's death he assisted Robert's brothers against him; by which he was forced to consent to a partition of his dominions. In 1092, Philip procured a divorce from Bertha, and proposed marriage to Emma, daughter to Roger count of Calabria. The treaty was concluded; and the princess sent over, with much treasure in jewels, and ready money: but the king retained her fortune, dismissed the princess, and carried off the princess of Anjou, one of the handsomest women in France, from her husband. He procured a divorce between her and her husband, and a Norman bishop solemnized his own marriage with her. These transactions were so scandalous, that pope Urban II, in a council held at Autun, in 1094, excommunicated Philip, in case he would not part with the countess. He professed repentance and was absolved, a 2d and a 3d time, always returning to the countess when the censure was taken off; by which conduct he became despicable; although too many of the nobility followed his example, but at the same time despised his authority; not only making war upon each other, but robbing his subjects with impunity. In 1113, Philip prevailed on the court of Rome to have his affair revised in an assembly at Paderborn; where, in spite of his utmost efforts, sentence of excommunication was a 4th time pronounced against him. Notwithstanding all these sentences, as Q. Bertha was dead, and the count of Anjou, bribed by a large sum of money, assisted in procuring a dispensation, the countess was proclaimed queen of France. But though these domestic affairs were now quieted, his negligence had thrown the affairs of the nation into great disorder. He therefore associated in the government his eldest son Lewis. This prince was the very reverse of his father; and by his activity and resolution, he reduced the rebellious nobility to submission, and saved the state from being utterly subverted. For these services the queen became so jealous of his popularity, that he found it necessary to retire to England; where he was graciously received by Henry I. He had not been long at court, before Henry received a letter from Philip, requesting him, closely to confine his son, or even *dispute him!* Henry, however, instead of complying with this infamous request, showed the letter to Lewis, and sent him home with all imaginable marks of respect. On his return, he demanded justice; but the queen caused poison to be given him. A stranger, however, saved his life; but a palace

remained in his face ever afterwards, though he grew so fat that he was surnamed *the Gross*. He determined to revenge his quarrel by force; but his father having caused the queen to make the most humble submissions to him, he was appeased. Philip died in 1108, and was succeeded by his son Lewis VI.

(23.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VI'S ACCESSION, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS VII. The first years of Lewis's reign were disturbed by insurrections of his lords, which were secretly fomented by Henry I. of England, that, by weakening France, Normandy might be the more secure. This quickly brought on a war; in which Henry was defeated, and his son William obliged to do homage to Lewis for Normandy. But Lewis not long after espoused the cause of William the son of Robert duke of Normandy, whom Henry had unjustly deprived of that duchy. This brought on a new war, in which Lewis, being defeated, was obliged to make a short-lived peace upon any terms. Lewis soon renewed his intrigues in favour of William, and formed a confederacy against Henry; which the latter not only dissipated, but prevailed upon the emperor Henry V. to invade France with all his forces on one side, while he was to attack it on the other. But Lewis having collected an army of 200,000 men, both thought proper to desist. He would have marched into Normandy, but his great vassals refused; saying that they had assembled to defend France from a foreign prince, not to enlarge his power. This was followed by a peace with Henry; which, as both monarchs had now seen the extent of each other's power, was made on pretty equal terms, and kept during the life of Lewis, who died in 1137, and was succeeded by his son Lewis VII. The young king was not endowed with any of those qualities which constitute a great monarch. In compliance with the superstition of the age, he undertook an expedition to the Holy Land, from whence he returned without glory. His queen Eleanor accompanied him; but he was so much offended with her gallantries there, as well as afterwards, that he divorced her, and returned the duchy of Guienne, her portion. Six weeks after this she married Henry duke of Normandy, count of Anjou and Maine, and heir apparent to the crown of England. This marriage was a very great mortification to Lewis; and procured him the surname of *the Young*, on account of his folly. When Henry II. ascended the throne of England, some wars were carried on between him and Lewis, with little advantage on either side. At last, however, a reconciliation took place; and Lewis took a voyage to England, to visit the shrine of St Thomas of Canterbury. On his return he was struck with an apoplexy; which, though he partially recovered, rendered his right side paralytic: and having languished for about a year, he died on the 10th Sept. 1180, leaving the kingdom to his son Philip II.

(24.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VII'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP II. Philip II. surnamed *The Gift of God*, *The Magnanimous*, and *The Strong*, during his life, and *Augustus* after his death, is reckoned one of the greatest princes that ever sat on the throne of France. It is not

clear that these titles were well founded. Early in his reign he was opposed by a strong faction excited by his mother. Then he repressed with a vigour which did him honour; but his taking part with the children of Henry II. of England, their unnatural contests, and his treacherous combination with John to seize his brother's kingdom when he was detained in prison by the emperor of Germany, are indelible stains on his character, and for ever exclude him from the title of *Magnanimous*. As to military skill and personal valour, he was evidently inferior to Richard I. of England; and can his recovering of the provinces held by the English in France, from such a dastardly prince as John, intitle him to the epithet of *Conqueror*. In politics he was evidently the dupe of the pope. An account of these transactions, which are the principal ones of this reign, is given under ENGLAND, § 23—26. Philip II. died in 1223.

(25.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VII'S ACCESSION TO THE DEATH OF ST LEWIS. Lewis VIII. succeeded his father Philip II. in 1223; and had been crowned king of England, while Dauphin, in 1216. See ENGLAND, § 25, 26. His reign in France was short, being only 3 years. He besieged Avignon with 50,000 men; lost his brave troops; and dying in 1226, was succeeded by Lewis IX., afterwards styled *St Lewis*. This prince possessed many good qualities, but was deeply tainted with superstition. This induced him to engage in two crusades. The first was against the Saracens in Egypt, in which he was taken prisoner and cruelly treated; but ransomed by paying a million of pieces of gold, and surrendering Damietta. He no sooner regained his liberty, than entered on a new expedition into Syria; but from this he was soon obliged to return, by the death of his mother, whom he had appointed regent and who had managed the national affairs with great prudence. He found many disorders on his return, which he set himself to reform. Having succeeded in this, he yielded to Henry III. of England, the Limousin, Querci, Perigord, and some other places; in consideration of Henry and his son prince Edward renouncing all pretensions to Normandy, and the other provinces of France which the English had formerly possessed. The reputation of Lewis for justice was so great, that the barons of England and king Henry III. made him umpire in their differences. But though very just, his decision had no good effect. At last, having settled every thing in his kingdom, he set out on another crusade for Africa; where he died of the plague, on the 25th Aug. 1270.

(26.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS IX'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP III. Philip III. surnamed *The Fair*, notwithstanding his father's misfortunes, continued the war against the Infidels with great vigour; and by the assistance of his uncle Charles king of Sicily, he brought it to a fortunate conclusion. The Saracens were defeated in two engagements, and the king of Tunis was obliged to sue for peace: offering to double the tribute he formerly paid the crown of Sicily; reimburse the expenses of the war; and to permit Christianity to be freely propagated throughout his dominions. The two princes then set sail for Europe; but the seeds of the distemper which had

infected

infected the army in Africa, not being eradicated, broke forth on their arrival in Sicily, and raged with great violence. The king's brother John, his queen Isabella, with the king and queen of Navarre, the count and countess of Poitiers, and many others, perished by this dreadful malady. On his return, Philip took possession of Provence and Thoulousé; married his 2d son, then very young, to the only daughter of the king of Navarre; while he himself espoused Mary, daughter of the duke of Brabant. He cultivated the friendship of Edward I. of England, and entered into a war with Spain. But his attention was quickly called off by the death of his eldest son Lewis, in 1275, at the age of 12. The young queen, Mary, was accused by one La Brosse, of having poisoned him. Philip gave some credit to this accusation; but, applying to an inspired nun, her answer proved fatal to La Brosse. Mary, cleared by this pretended prophetic, La Brosse was accused of treason, and condemned. The manner of his trial and execution, however, were such, that the tide of popular favour was turned; La Brosse was thought innocent, and the king and queen strongly suspected. At this time the Sicilians, over whom Charles of Anjou ruled, instigated by John of Procida, a noble exile, resolved to break the French yoke by a general massacre. This was accordingly put in execution; and the French, to the number of 8000, murdered in one night. Charles, sensibly affected by this, laid siege to Messina, and sailed directly to Marseilles, where he obtained a powerful reinforcement. In his absence his son, to whom he had entrusted the siege, having nobly engaged with the Spanish fleet, was defeated and taken prisoner. His father died of grief, and Sicily was attached to the house of Arragon. The misfortunes of Charles were followed by others equally great to Philip himself. Pope Martin IV. in his zeal for the duke of Anjou, had excommunicated Peter king of Arragon, and bestowed his kingdom on Charles of Valois, a younger son of the king of France. In defending himself against this unjust sentence, Peter was mortally wounded; but the defeat of the French fleet soon affected Philip, that he fell sick. His disease, aided by the heat of the climate, fatigue, grief and infirmities, proved fatal. He died at Perpignan in the 41st year of his age, and 16th of August.

30. FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP IV's ACCESSION TO HIS DEATH. By the death of Philip the Hardy the French crown devolved on his 2d son, called also Philip, from the beauty of his person surnamed *the Fair*; who had espoused the princess of Navarre, and was then in his 17th year. By marrying this princess he had obtained the counties of Champagne and Brie; yet with all this additional power he was unable to support the war in which his predecessor had engaged. For this reason he abandoned the interest of the Infants de la Cerda, and settled the differences with Castile. This was effected by Edward I. of England; by whose mediation also Charles the Little, son to the duke of Anjou, was released from his captivity; Edward himself paying part of his ransom. On this Charles renounced his claim to Sicily; and Philip promised that his

kinsman, Philip of Valois, should renounce all pretensions to the crown of Arragon. In return the latter obtained the eldest daughter of Charles with Arjou and Maine as a dowry. This tranquillity, however, was soon interrupted by differences with Edward the promoter of it, pope Boniface VIII. and Guy de Dampier, count of Flanders. That with England was accidental. A Norman and an English vessel having met off the coast of Bayonne, and both needing water, the crews quarrelled. A Norman was killed by his own weapon, with which he assailed an Englishman; the Normans complained to Philip; who, instantly allowed them to redress their supposed injuries. On this a piratical war commenced, in which the sovereigns for some time took no active part, though other nations interfered; the Irish and Dutch seamen siding with the English, and those of Flanders and Genoa with the French. At last the affair became so serious, that in one engagement 15,000 French perished. Philip, alarmed, summoned the king of England as his vassal to attend; and, on his refusal, declared his estates France forfeited. After many negotiations, Philip declared he would be satisfied with the possession of Guienne, which he conveyed instantly to the king of England, as soon as it should be put into his hands. Edward complied, but no sooner had Philip obtained possession, than he persisted in the forfeiture; this treachery instantly produced a war. Edward concluded a treaty with the emperor Adolphus, together with the counts of Brittany, Holland, Bar, Juliers, Gueldres, and Flanders; while Philip leagued with John Balliol of Scotland. During this war the French made descent on the coast of England, and destroyed Dover; while Edward, in revenge, landed in Gascony with an army of 50,000 men. But being pretty equally matched, a suspension of arms for two years was agreed to; during which a peace was finally concluded, by pope Boniface VIII. Guienne was restored; Edward espoused Margaret the sister of Philip; while his daughter Isabel was given to the prince of Wales. Philip and Edward behaved to their allies with equal perfidy. Balliol was abandoned to the resentment of Edward; while Guy, earl of Flanders, was left exposed to the resentment of Philip. This reconciliation was soon followed by a difference with pope Boniface, the mediator between them. The pope had inserted in their reference, that he was chosen as a private man, and not as Pope. The haughty pontiff soon showed that he was not to be treated so, and a contest with Philip quickly ensued. Boniface forbid the clergy to grant the king any favours without the consent of the Holy See. Philip in revenge prohibited them from sending monies out of the kingdom without his leave; and in protecting the Colonnas, the implacable enemies of Boniface. This so irritated his holiness that he summoned the clergy of France to Rome; while Philip retaliated, by seizing the temporalities of those who obeyed the summons, and recalling his brother Charles of Valois, the *pope's general*. He also dispatched two cardinals, to levy such a body of troops as might execute his hostile purposes. With these he suddenly invested the pope in Avignon; and while the bull was preparing for execution

excommunication of Philip, the Pope himself was taken prisoner by Philip's troops. Though Boniface had been delivered up by the treachery of the people of Anagnina, yet he was no sooner a prisoner and in distress, than they rescued him and conveyed him to Rome, where he soon after died. His successor Benedict X. revoked the excommunication, and attempted to regain Philip by gentle means: but, before this could be effected, he died, not without suspicion of poison. After his decease Philip offered to procure the papal chair for Bertrand archbishop of Bourdeaux, if he would condemn the memory of Boniface, restore the Colonna which had been forfeited, allow him, for five years, the tenths of the clergy of France, and comply with a request which at that time it was not proper to divulge. Bertrand, on these terms, ascended the papal throne by the name of *Clement V*, but was nearly killed returning from the cathedral of Lyons, by the falling of a wall; by which accident the duke of Brittany was killed, and the king and count of Valois considerably bruised. The new pope resided at Avignon, where he complied with all the conditions, except as to the conduct of Boniface, which he refused. That which Philip had at first concealed, was discovered by the death of the emperor Albert of Austria; after which event he desired Clement to assist him in placing his brother Charles of Valois on the Imperial throne. But his holiness, apprehensive of danger, urged the diet instantly to elect Henry of Luxemburg. The election was over before Philip arrived at Avignon; and the only consolation he could obtain was the possession of Lyons, which had hitherto maintained an independency under its own archbishop. Mean time Guy, E. of Flanders, abandoned by Edward of England, was obliged to throw himself on the mercy of the French monarch, who had sent his brother, Charles of Valois, with a powerful army to invade his dominions. From the latter indeed he had obtained a promise, that if he could not, within a year, compose the differences between him and Philip, he should be at liberty to retire, and pursue what measures he pleased. But Philip detained him, with two of his sons, in close confinement, while he himself entering Flanders was every where received as sovereign; and at his departure appointed John de Chatillon, a relation of the queen to govern those territories. The new governor repaired the fortifications, but being of a very tyrannical disposition, and the times not allowing his master to keep regular garrisons, an insurrection took place. This would have been effectually quelled by the magistrates, had not Chatillon unluckily entered Bruges, and publickly displayed two hogheads of ropes, which he threatened to employ in the execution of the inhabitants. On this they flew to arms, and massacred 1500 French; Chatillon escaped by swimming over the town ditch. The insurgents, soon amounting to an army of 60,000 men, besieged Courtray. Here they were rashly attacked by count Artois, who was cut off with 20,000 of his troops. Philip determined on revenge; tho' at the expence of debasing the coin of the kingdom. But this enabled him to enter Flanders with such force as would probably have subdued the whole country, had not Edward artfully

communicated to the queen of France, as a secret, a feigned correspondence between the French nobility and the court of Rome; by which false intelligence Philip was induced to abandon the enterprise. The war continued, but Philip was constantly defeated by the Flemings; and the only compensation Philip obtained was Courtray. The next remarkable transaction was the expulsion of the Templars, who enjoyed immense possessions in France. Their estates were confiscated and upwards of 50 of them were put to death. The grand master with three of his principal officers, were killed by a slow fire. All these unfortunate knights had been accused of the most gross sensualities. Particulars were said to be revealed, by two criminals who were pardoned for the discovery they made; which were confirmed by their confession. But this confession was afterwards retracted, as being extorted; and those who survived maintained their purity to the last: On the whole, it was believed that Philip consulted avarice in this cruel execution. His latter years were embittered by domestic misfortunes. His daughters-in-law, Margaret daughter of the king of Hungary and Jean and Blanch of the count of Burgundy, the wives of Lewis, Philip, and Charles, were charged with infidelity. After a severe trial Margaret and Blanch were condemned to perpetual imprisonment; and Margaret was afterwards strangled by order of her husband Lewis. Two other paramours, Philip and Walter de Launay, two others, were slayed alive, and hung on a gibbet with an usher, their confidant. The uneasiness which Philip suffered on this account is supposed to have hastened his death, in 1314, in the 46th year of his age, and 30th of his reign.

(28.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP IV'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP V, AND THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES IV. Lewis X, surnamed *Hutin*, or the *Boisterous*, on account of his violent temper, found his treasury so exhausted that he was obliged to delay the ceremony of coronation with his queen Clemente, daughter of the king of Hungary. Finding the kingdom very distracted, he applied himself to appease his subjects, and conciliate their affection. In this he was assisted by his uncle Charles of Valois, whom he at length devolved the government of the kingdom. This regent, however, acted with such cruelty as is said to have proved fatal to himself; for having put to death a nobleman named *Enguerrand de Poitiers de Marigni*, who enjoyed the late king's confidence, this was so resented, that his friends were thought to have administered poison to the king; who expired suddenly after drinking a glass of cold water, in the 26th year of his age, and 2d of his reign. On his death, Charles prepared to dispute the regnity with his brothers. Philip count of Flanders, the eldest brother, was then at Rome assisting in the election of a new pope; but on his return the throne was assigned to him by the unanimous voice of the people. His prospects were closed by the queen-dowager Clemente being delivered of a son, who was introduced among the king's children in France, under the name of *John I*. His death, which lasted 3 weeks, or as Marcel says, in 8 days, sealed the throne to Philip V, who, on account

was surnamed the *Long*. His conduct superior to that of his predecessor, as he the Flemings, and compelled their consent to a peace. He summoned Edward of England to do homage for his lands in France; but that monarch was in difficulties, which rendered the visitant, and sent excuses to Philip, which he sent an army into Italy to quiet the factions of the Guelphs and Gibelins, so long filled that country with blood and war; but the event proved unfortunate, a contagious distemper swept off many thousands of the French. Superstition imputed this to the king conspiring with the Saracens to poison the French. A persecution instantly commenced against them, and great numbers of them were killed; while the populace insulted their persons and plundered their houses without remorse. The remainder of Philip's reign was spent in regaining internal concerns of the kingdom. He died of a fever and dysentery in 1322, the 28th of April and 6th of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Charles IV. surnamed the *Fair*.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP THE FIFTH, TO THAT OF PHILIP VI. Charles entering some disputes with the duke of Burgundy, dissolved his marriage with Blanch, and married in prison, and espoused Mary daughter of Henry VIII. emperor of Germany. His marriage had in view the imperial crown, which had been so long separated from France; and in 1325 the imperial crown was disputed between Lewis of Bavaria and the king of Austria; the latter of whom had been prisoner in a battle with Lewis. But Lewis, who entertained an implacable hatred to the emperor, excommunicated him. The king of France embarked in the same cause, with an army of Bavaria; while Frederick continued to maintain his claim to the empire which he successfully maintained. Lewis, however, releasing his prisoner, and dismissing him, alarmed his most formidable antagonist. The pope and Leopold preserved their neutrality, while it was determined that a new election should be held, to transfer the crown to Charles. In pursuit of this view, the king of France set out for Germany with a splendid army; but soon found that his only possibility of accomplishing his wish was to remain alone remained his friend: and even his son-in-law the king of Bohemia absented himself from the diet; while the death of the emperor put an end to all connections with that prince. On the decease of Mary, Charles espoused his daughter to the count of Evreux; and to prevent the danger of an infant succession, he contracted an alliance with Robert king of Scotland; but it was provided, that should either die without heir apparent, the states of the kingdom should fill the vacant throne, and the surviving monarch should with his whole power support the nomination. Charles died in the 34th year of his age, leaving his reign pregnant; and as the succession depended on event, a regent was necessary. Two candidates instantly appeared, urging at the same

time their right to the crown as well as the regency. These were, Philip of Valois, cousin-german to the deceased king; and Edward III. king of England the nephew of Charles, who aspired to the throne in right of his mother. His pretensions were easily set aside, and Philip was confirmed regent: from which he soon after stepped into the throne, the queen being delivered of a daughter; from which he acquired the surname of the *Fortunate*. He summoned the English monarch to do homage for his possessions in France; and upon his not answering his summons, forfeited them, and seized his revenues. This induced Edward to cross the sea and pay homage; which Philip consented to receive, upon condition of a proper explanation being given; but as this was studiously delayed, after the return of the king of England, Guienne was again seized by the French monarch. Edward unwilling to lose his continental dominions, or involve himself in a war for the sake of a mere ceremony sent over a formal deed, acknowledging that he owed liege homage to France. Thus the flame was smothered for the time, and would perhaps have been entirely extinguished, but for the intrigues of Robert of Artois, brother-in-law to Philip VI. who had been expelled his country, and had taken refuge in England. By him he was persuaded to renew his pretensions to the crown of France, which of necessity produced a war. For some time, neither party made any open declaration of hostility; but each knew the other's designs. Philip, under pretence of taking the cross, made prodigious armaments, and formed alliances on every side; while Edward, resolving to renew his claim to the crown of France, projected the conquest of Scotland. In this, he failed; and, Philip, to favour the Scots, with whom he was in alliance, suffered his subjects to make irruptions into Guienne. In 1337, the war broke out. Philip, having detached part of his fleet against the Infidels, employed the rest, chiefly Genoese vessels, against the English. The Flemings were courted by both. Lewis count of Flanders declared for Philip, but his subjects were more inclined to Edward. James Arteville a brewer, a subtle and artful man, governed them as if he had been their prince; and the English commenced determining him in favour of Edward, that prince, at his request, embarked for Sluys with a numerous army. He arrived in 1338; and on his first landing, it was resolved that the German princes in alliance with him should attack France. But the Flemings, who were vassals of France, pretended scruples at invading their sovereign's territory. To quiet these, Edward assumed the title of *King of France*; and by virtue of this right claimed their assistance to dethrone Philip of Valois as an usurper. This step, which he feared would breed pet jealousies, he did not take without consulting, and, from that time we may date that national animosity which the English have so long born to the French. Edward's first attempt was upon the city of Cambrai; but he was soon repulsed upon by Robert of Artois to make the English march into Flanders. This country he entered with an army of near 50,000 men, mostly English. Philip appeared with an army of 40,000 men, chiefly natives, and a brave and experienced

pected. But Edward was averse to engage against so great a superiority; and Philip thought it sufficient if he eluded the attacks of his enemy. The two armies faced each other for several days; mutual challenges were sent; and Edward at last retired into Flanders, and dispersed his army. Such was the fruitless conclusion of Edward's first expedition, which plunged him into difficulties. He had contracted near 300,000*l.* of debt; anticipated all his revenue; pawned every thing of value either of his own or his queen's; nay, he was obliged in some measure even to pawn himself to his creditors, by desiring their permission to go over to England to procure supply, and by promising to return in person if he did not remit their money. On his arrival in England, however, he procured a large supply, sufficient to make all the necessary preparations for a new invasion; and so certain were the English that France would now be conquered, that the parliament, before Edward's departure, protested that they owed him no obedience as king of France, but that the two kingdoms must remain for ever distinct and independent. Edward set out on his 2d expedition with a fleet of 240 vessels. Philip had prepared a fleet of 400 vessels, manned with 40,000 men; which he stationed off Sluys, to intercept him. The two fleets met on the 13th of June 1340; the English, with the wind of the enemy, and the sun on their backs, began the action. It was fierce and bloody: The English archers, whose address was now much celebrated, galled the French; and when the ships grappled, the example of the king and nobility with him so animated the seamen and soldiers, that they everywhere maintained the superiority. The Flemings, observing the battle from the shore, sent a reinforcement to the English; which, coming unexpectedly, had a greater effect than in proportion to its power and numbers; 230 ships were taken, and 30,000 Frenchmen killed, with two admirals: the loss of the English was inconsiderable, compared to the importance of the victory. None of Philip's courtiers dared to inform him of the event; till his jester gave him a hint, by which he discovered the loss he had sustained. After this great victory, Edward landed, and laid siege to Tournay. Philip marched to its relief; and acted with so much caution, that Edward found himself in a manner blocked up in his camp: and the countess dowager of Hainault, sister to Philip, mother-in-law to Edward, and sister-in-law to Robert of Artois, coming out of a convent, interposed with so much spirit and address, that she effected a truce for one year, and might perhaps have brought about a peace had she survived. In 1341, however, Edward's ambition was once more excited by the count de Montfort, who had possessed himself of Brittany, and applied to Edward to recover his crown. This request entirely coincided with Edward's desires. Montfort was an active and valiant prince, and drawn to him by interest, and he had had a entrance into the heart of France. The following prospects, however, were dashed by the government of Montfort; which soon being discovered, *he was besieged in Nantz and taken. But June of Flanders, his wife, soon made up for the*

loss of her husband; assembled the inhabitants of Rennes, where she then resided; and carrying her infant son in her arms, deplored her misfortune and inspired the citizens with zeal for her country. The inhabitants of Nantz instantly espoused her interests, and all the other fortresses of Brittany followed their example. Edward was intreated to send succours with all possible expedition. The countess of Hainault, where she resolved to sustain the attacks of the enemy. Charles de Blois, Philip's general, anxious to make himself master of this important fortress, and still more to take the countess a prisoner, sat down before the place with a large army, and conducted the siege with indefatigable industry. The defence was less vigorous: several sallies were made by the garrison, in which the countess herself led on the assault. Observing one day that all the garrison had quitted the camp to join in a general assault, she sallied out at the head of 306 horse, set fire to the enemies tents, put their sutlers to the sword, and occasioned such an alarm, that the French desisted from the assault, to cut off her communication with the town. Thus intercepted, she retired to Auray, where she continued 5 or 6 days, then returning at the head of 500 horse, she forced her way through the French camp, and joined her faithful citizens in triumph. But the besiegers had at length made several breaches in the walls; and it was thought that a general assault would be fatal. A capitulation was proposed, and a conference begun, when the countess, looking towards the sea, descried some ships at anchor. She immediately exclaimed that succours were arrived, and forbade any further capitulation. She was not disappointed; the fleet carried a body of English gentlemen, with 6000 archers, whom Edward had sent, and who had been detained by contrary winds. They were led to the harbour by Sir Walter Mauny, one of the most valiant commanders of his time. This reinforced the declining spirits of the Bretons until the late truce was expired; when they were followed by a more considerable reinforcement under Robert of Artois, who made himself master of Vannes: but the Bretons soon recovered the city, and Robert was mortally wounded. Edward, eager to revenge his death, soon landed at Morbihan with an army of 12,000 men. While these he undertook at once the siege of Vannes, Nantz, and Rennes; but by dividing his forces he failed in all, and gave an opportunity to John, duke of Normandy, the king of France's eldest son, to invest him in his camp. His provisions soon failed, and Edward with all his valour might have surrendered, had he not, by artful negotiations, induced Philip to consent to a truce of years. This was effected by the court of Rome, and the French monarch soon saw the partition of that court, and the imprudence of the step he had taken. Edward found a pretence to retire from the execution of some noble projects in Brittany, who, he said, were partisans of Montfort, and chose to look upon this as an infraction of the treaty. Philip secured himself against the power of his rival by alliances, and by purchasing Montpellier from the king of Majorca: but in the mean time, the English, commanded by the

by, had invaded Guienne, twice defeated French army under Count de Lisle, and made slaves masters of many towns. Philip, by exhausted state of his treasury, could not any opposition. To recruit his finances, a duty on salt; which nearly excited a rebellion. When these discontents were assuaged, led an army of 100,000 men, whose courage raised by the presence of the dukes of Normandy and Burgundy. The English general was not compelled to stand upon the defensive. Forts yielded after another, till at length appeared but a total extinction of the power of England upon the continent. In this year, Edward embarked, in 1346, at Southampton, on board a fleet of near 1000 sail. He led with him the chief nobility of England, his eldest son the prince of Wales (the *Black Prince*), a youth of about 15 years old, and alreadymarkable both for understanding and valour. His army consisted of 4500 men at arms, 10,000 archers, 10,000 Welsh infantry, and 6000 Irish; which he landed safely at La Hogue, a port in Normandy, which country he determined to make the seat of the war. The intelligence of Edward's landing, and the devastations made by his troops, excited universal consternation. The rich city of Caen was taken and plundered; the villages and towns, up to Paris, shared the same fate; the French could only break down their great guns to stop the invader's career. In the mean time Philip had stationed his general, Godemar Fréchal, with an army on the opposite side of the river, over which Edward must pass; while he kept at the head of 120,000 fighting men, advanced to give battle. Edward, thus exposed to danger of being inclosed in an enemy's compass, promised a reward to any that should inform him of a passage over the Somme. This was discovered by a peasant, named *Cobinzigace*; and Edward had just got his whole army over the river when Philip appeared, in his rear. A battle, in which the French were overthrown with great slaughter. See *CRESSY*. Edward advanced to Caen, which was then defended by de Vienne, an experienced commander, and was with every thing necessary for defence. It was at length taken, after a year's siege. See *CH. N° 11*. From the beginning of this unhappy war, Philip had invariably showed himself desirous of peace, and the victory of Cressy did not make him more so. Edward also, notwithstanding his successes, was unable to support any longer. The mediation of Rome was readily accepted, and a truce for 3 years concluded. At the same time, Philip met with recompense for the losses he had suffered by the acquisition of Dauphiny. See *CH. N° 12*. Soon after this, Philip was married to the daughter of Philip count of Evreux, and queen of Navarre; and his son became count of Boulogne. But this domestic tranquillity was soon interrupted by the death of Edward, who expired in 1350, the 37th year of his age, and 2d of his reign.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP VI'S REIGN, TO THE DEFEAT AND CAPTURE OF THE BLACK PRINCE. On his death, his

eldest son John succeeded; but he very soon disgusted his nobility by an unseasonable act of severity. Robert de Brienne, count of Eu and Guisnes, had been taken prisoner at Caen; and under pretence of negotiating his ransom, had passed several times between France and England; but being accused of a treasonable correspondence with Edward, he was suddenly arrested, and beheaded, without any trial. At his death it is said, that he confessed his treason; but this has not been authenticated. Having been constable of France, the badge of his office was delivered to Charles de la Carda: but he was equally unfortunate, being soon after assassinated by Charles king of Navarre, surnamed *The Wicked*. This prince, celebrated for his personal qualifications, but detested for his crimes, was John's son-in-law. He had demanded the duchy of Angouleme of the king; but as the latter bestowed it upon Carda, he had taken this method of revenging himself. John did not fail to show a proper repentment; but such was the weakness of his government, that the king of Navarre let him at defiance, and would not even ask pardon, until John had sent him his 2d son as an hostage for his personal security. But the king of Navarre even aspired to the crown of France itself; pretending a right from his mother, being grandson by the female side of Louis X. But his more immediate demands were Champagne and Brie. John however bestowed Normandy on his eldest son Charles; and commanded him to seize the estates of the king of Navarre. On this the latter soon appeared at Paris; and John was obliged to appease his murmurs at the expence of 100,000 crowns. All this time the truce with England had been ill observed on both sides; the French had seized the port of St Jean d'Angeli; and the English the town of Guisnes. The rival houses of Montfort and Blois still continued their animosities; while Edward still threatened war. The king of Navarre continued his intrigues; and even the dauphin was drawn into a confederacy against his father. John, however, being informed, found means to defeat them effectually. The dauphin was reclaimed, by shewing him the disadvantages which must accrue to himself from the connections he had formed. The king of Navarre was invited, with his principal adherents, to an entertainment, where they were arrested; the former sent prisoner to Chateau Gaillard, and several of the most obnoxious of the latter put to death. The rest of the conspirators, not dismayed by this check, immediately appeared in open rebellion; and unable, without assistance to gain their point, they invited over Edward from England. That enterprising monarch had never lost sight of his original object; and on the expiration of the truce had sent his son, Edward the *Black Prince*, with a fleet towards the coast of France. With this fleet the prince had entered the Gironde, burnt the towns and villages of Languedoc, and retired with the plunder into the country of Guienne. Edward himself, who had likewise passed over to the continent, waited the country as far as St Omer; but the French king, determined to avoid a battle, prohibited his general, the constable of Bourbon, from engaging, though his army was much superior to that of the prince.

of Wales. With the flower of his troops, however, he pursued Edward from St Omer to Hesdin, where he defied him to a pitched battle; but the latter disregarding his bravadoes, marched to Calais, and embarked for England. After his departure, John assembled the states of Paris, where he showed to fully the necessity of assisting him in the defence of the kingdom, that they voted him an army of 30,000 men during the war. To supply other exigencies they revived the duty on salt, and added other imposts; but at the same time appointed a committee to take care that the money was solely appropriated to the public service. John's satisfaction from these grants, and the suppression of some disturbances which happened about this time, was soon overcast by the news, that the Black Prince had marched with an army of 12,000 men from Bourdeaux; and, after ravaging the Agenois, Quercy, and the Limousin, had entered Berry. Young Edward had penetrated into the heart of France with this handful of forces, in hopes of joining the duke of Lancaster in Guienne. But he soon found that this was impracticable: the country before him was too well guarded to permit his advancing further; and all the bridges behind were broken down, which prevented a retreat. In this embarrassment his perplexity was increased, on learning that John was actually at the head of 60,000 men to intercept him. He at first thought of retreating: but finding that impossible, he determined calmly to await the approach of the enemy; and notwithstanding the disparity of forces, to hazard a battle. It was at *Maupertuis*, near Poitiers, that the armies came in sight. John might easily have starved the English into his own terms; but such was the impatient valour of the French nobility, and their certainty of success, that it might have been equally fatal to attempt repressing their ardour. In the meantime, while both armies were drawn out, and expecting the signal to begin, they were stopped by the cardinal of Perigord, who attempted to be a mediator between them. However, John, who thought himself sure of victory, would listen to no other terms than the restitution of Calais; with which the Black Prince refusing to comply, the onset was deferred till the morning, for which both sides waited in anxious suspense. During this interval, the prince strengthened his post; and placed 300 men in ambush, with as many archers, who were commanded to attack in flank during the heat of the engagement. Having taken these precautions, he ranged his army in three divisions; the van was commanded by the earl of Warwick, the rear by the earls of Salisbury and Suffolk, and the main body by himself. In like manner, the king of France arranged his forces in three divisions: the first commanded by the duke of Orleans; the 2^d by the dauphin, attended by his younger brothers; while he himself led up the main body, seconded by his youngest and favourite son, then about 14 years of age. As the English were to be attacked only by marching up a long narrow lane, the French suffered greatly from their archers, who were posted behind the hedges. Upon emerging from this danger, they were met by the Black Prince himself at the head of his chosen troops, who made a furious

onset upon their forces, already in great disorder. A dreadful overthrow ensued: those yet on the recoiled on their forces; while the English, who had been placed in ambush, took that opportunity to increase the confusion, and confirm the rout. The dauphin and the duke of Orleans were among the first that fell. The king made the utmost efforts to retrieve by his valour what his rashness had forfeited; but his courage was unable to stem that consternation which had prevailed through his army; and his cavalry flying, he found himself exposed to the enemy's fury. At length, spent with fatigue, and despairing of success, he cried out, that he would surrender to his cousin the prince of Wales. The honour of taking him, however, was reserved for a much more ignoble hand; he was seized by Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Arras who had been obliged to fly his country for murder. April following, the prince conducted his prisoner through London, attended by an infinite concourse of people of all ranks and states. Edward's modesty on this occasion was remarkable: The king of France was clad in royal apparel, and mounted on a beautiful white steed, while the prince himself rode by his side on a little horse, and in very plain attire.

(31.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF K. JOHN, TO HIS DEATH. This disastrous defeat, which happened in 1356, almost entirely ruined the French affairs; and the miseries which ensued from this cause were greatly augmented by intestine commotions. The dauphin, who had now assumed the government, was altogether unable to govern a turbulent people in such a crisis. An assembly of the states, which he called, limited the power of the prince, recalled former ministers, and demanded the liberty of the king of Navarre; the treasurer of the crown was murdered by Marcel's order. The countess, whom Marcel employed, was dragged to an altar where he had taken refuge, and instantly put to death. The bishop of Paris resented the indignity done to the church; and Marcel avenged his fate, by murdering both the countess and the bishop, that his clothes were stained with their blood. The prince indignantly asked him, if he was involved in the same detraction? when Marcel affected to provide for his safety by putting him a blue hood, the badge of the adherents of Navarre. The public disorders were augmented by the king of Navarre; and, tho' the dauphin even assured, that he had administered a dose of poison to him, he was obliged to pay him some appearance of regard. A scheme was even formed to change the government, to vest all the power in the commons, and leave the king an empty name; but though this was favourably received by the city of Paris, it was rejected by the rest of the kingdom. The dauphin was likewise recognized as regent by the states general, and the inhabitants of Picardy and Champagne took up arms in his cause. In this critical situation, the minds of the people were heightened by an unexpected evil. The peasants, who had been long oppressed by the nobles, rose in great numbers to revenge themselves; the castles of the nobility were

and daughters ravished, and themselves cruel deaths. At last they were obli-

The duke of Orleans sent off 12,000 men, near the city of Paris; 12,000 sent by the king of Navarre: 9000, besieged the town of Meaux, where the duke and three other ladies of high rank had been shut up by an officer in the service of the king.

Amidst these confusions, Marcel perished of his own railing; and the independent people of the nation were disappointed. His most dangerous enemy, the duke of Navarre, who had seduced the Norman and English adventurers, turned Edward into France, and began to seek their fortunes; where they assumed the name of *Companions*. By such a competitor the dauphin was reduced to extremity, when his hopes were revived by a proposed proposal from his rival, of peace on the terms. On the expiration of the year, Edward III. again set sail for England, before Calais with 1200 sail, and the title of *king of France*, and augmented to 120,000 men. The dauphin was left on the defensive; closing Paris, and allowing the English to ravage the country, and to penetrate through into Champagne; but Rheims, where he was to have been crowned, baffled their attempts. From Champagne, therefore, he retired into Burgundy; pillaging Tonnerre, and Avalon. Burgundy was ransomed for 20,000 marks, and a like sum was paid for the city of Amiens. At last, after a long and destructive war, Edward arrived at Paris; but the prudent dauphin and citizens had rendered it impregnable to famine, as well as to the assaults of arms.

Thus the war went on till 1360, when Edward was inclined to peace, as is said, by a conspiracy, to which his army was exposed, and camped in the fields around Chartres. Considering all his victories, the French showed the least favour to his claim of succession; for Navarre, was a dangerous rival, and a son of the dauphin deprived him of all advantage from his valour and military skill. Conditions of peace were opened at Breteigny; and on the following conditions, viz. That Edward should pay for his ransom, at different times, three millions of crowns of gold (about 1,200,000 of our money); Edward should ever renounce all claim to the kingdom of France, and should remain possessed of Poitou, the Agenois, Perigord, the Limousin, Rouergue, Angoumois, and other distant quarters, together with Calais, Guisnes, and Ponthieu. Other stipulations were made in favour of the allies of England, as a security for the peace. On John's return, he found his army unable to ratify these terms. He was harassed, at the head of an exhausted state; his army without discipline, and his peasants in insubordination. These had risen in great numbers, and one of their chiefs assumed the title of *lord of God and the terror of Man*. A monk, named *John Gouge*, also got himself proclaimed king; and he soon caused as

many calamities by his devastations, as the real king had brought on by his misfortunes. Such was the state of that wretched kingdom on the return of its captive monarch: and yet such was his absurdity, that he prepared for a crusade into the Holy Land, before he was well replaced on the throne. Had his exhausted subjects been able to equip him, it is probable he would have gone through with it; but their miseries were such, that they could not pay his ransom. This was a breach of treaty that John could not submit to; and he was heard to express himself in a very noble manner upon the occasion. He therefore actually returned to England, and yielded himself a prisoner, since he could not be honourably free. He was lodged in the Savoy, the palace where he had resided during his captivity; and soon after closed a long and unfortunate reign, by his death, in 1364, the 36th year of his age.

(32.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF JOHN, TO THOSE OF CHARLES V, AND THE KING OF NAVARRE. Charles V. surnamed *the Wise*, succeeded his father, and, merely by a fine conducted policy, even though he met with some defeats, restored his country once more to tranquillity and power. He quelled the *Companions*, who had long been a terror to the peaceable inhabitants. He invaded them in a body, and led them into Castile against Peter, surnamed *the Cruel*, whom his subjects had dethroned, and who, by an alliance with the English, endeavoured to be re-instated on the throne. In consequence of these alliances, the English and French again came to an engagement; the one side commanded by the Black Prince; the other, by Henry of Transtamare, and Bertrand du Guesclin, one of the most consummate generals and accomplished characters of the age. However, the usual good fortune of the English prince prevailed; the French lost above 20,000 men, while only 4 knights and 40 private men on the side of the English were slain. But these victories, however glorious, were attended with very few good effects. The English, by their frequent levies, had been quite exhausted. Charles, on the other hand, cautiously forbore coming to any engagement; but allowed his enemies to waste their strength in attempts to plunder a fortified country. When they retired, he followed forth, and possessed himself of such places as they could not defend. He first seized Ponthieu; Abbeville opened its gates to him; St. Valois, Rec, and Crotoy, imitated the example; and the whole country was in a little time reduced. The southern provinces were invaded by his generals with equal success; while the Black Prince, without supplies, and waited by a consumption, returned to England, leaving his affairs in the south of France in a deplorable condition. In this exigence, the resentment of Edward III. was excited to the utmost pitch; and he resolved to take signal vengeance of his enemies on the continent. But the fortunate occasion was elapsed; and all his designs were marked with ill success. The earl of Pembroke and his whole army were intercepted at sea, and taken prisoners by Henry king of Castile. Sir Robert Knollys, one of his generals, at the head of 30,000 men, was defeated by Bertrand du Guesclin; while the

duke of Lancaster, at the head of 25,000 men, saw his troops diminished one half by flying parties, without ever coming to a battle. At last, the English affairs were totally ruined by the death of the Black Prince and king Edward. On this news, the armies of Charles attacked the English on all sides. One, under the duke of Burgundy, entered Artois; another entered Auvergne, under the duke of Berry; a third acted in Guienne under the duke of Anjou; and the forces in Bretagne were under Guesclin: the king himself led a powerful body of troops, to repair any accident that should happen. The constable Guesclin joined the duke of Burgundy, who found it difficult to oppose Sir Thomas Felton and the Senechal of Bourdeaux. Soon after his arrival, the constable attacked and defeated them, making them both prisoners of war. This victory was so well pursued, that, at the close of 1377, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, and Calais, with their dependencies, were all the places left to England on the continent. Thus Charles established once more the house of Valois on the throne of France, but did not long enjoy his good fortune. He died in 1379, aged 44, from the effect of the poison formerly given him by the king of Navarre. The immediate operation of this poison had been suspended by the skill of a physician sent by the emperor Charles IV. Not long before his death, Charles had commenced a process against the king of Navarre for this crime, who was deprived of his possessions in Normandy, as well as his lordship of Montpellier. He did not long survive the monarch he had murdered. His death was singular and terrible; for having been afflicted with the leprosy, he had been obliged to use bandages dipped in sulphur and brandy, which by the carelessness of a page, took fire, and he was burnt to death.

(33.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF K. CHARLES V, TO THOSE OF HENRY V, AND CHARLES VI. Charles V. was succeeded by his son Charles VI. surnamed the *Well beloved*, who at his accession was only 12 years of age. The duke of Anjou, brother to the late king, had been appointed guardian during his minority; but he being totally unfit for the office, readily resigned it to the dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon, the former, uncle to the king by his father's side, the latter by his mother's. None of these tutors, however proved faithful to their trust. The duke of Anjou seized the plate and treasures of the late king. At that time Q. Joan, infamous for her profligacy, reigned in Naples. She had appointed one Charles Durazzo, her relation, to succeed her in the throne; but the wretch murdered his benefactress, who with her last breath revoked her grant of the kingdom, and bestowed it on the duke of Anjou. His influence at the French court enabled him to waste the treasures of the kingdom in support of his pretensions; though he proved ultimately unsuccessful, his forces being constantly defeated, and his designs frustrated by the superior skill of his adversary. The duke of Burgundy, instead of instructing his pupil in the ways of virtue, indulged him in every kind of vicious pleasure, hoping thereby to gain his favour afterwards. The citizens of Paris, oppressed by taxes, broke out into tumults, and were quelled with difficul-

ty; while the mal-administration of Philip involved the nation in hostilities with the Flemings. Philip invaded their country with an army of 80,000 men, with whom was the young king, and the principal nobility of France. The first operations were favourable to the Flemings; but they were at length totally defeated on the banks of the river Lis, where their leader, with 25,000 of his followers, perished. This victory was followed by the submission of the whole country; but the satisfaction of the king was disturbed by new seditions and revolts in Paris, and other great towns. His return, however, at the head of a victorious army, soon reduced them to their duty, and several of the revolted cities were severely punished; while the duke of Anjou's death had freed him from dependence on his tutors, and assumed the reins of government into his own hands in 1384. The genius, which Charles displayed in his early years, raised the hopes of the nation. The young king, whose marriage began to be a subject of attention to the council, insisted upon seeing the person designed for his consort. An interview was accordingly procured between him and Isabella, daughter to the duke of Bavaria, whom he fell in love with and afterwards married. His administration was for some time prudent and vigorous. He conciliated the affections of his people by restoring their privileges, and relieving them from the taxes which had been imposed in his minority. He reduced the Flemings to the authority of the duke of Burgundy; detached 15,000 archers and 1500 men at arms, to assist the Scots in their incursions into England; and in 1385 sent out a prodigious armament against England. A vast fleet was assembled in the harbour of Sluys, and a very numerous army in the neighbourhood. According to some, the armament consisted of 1200 ships, 20,000 foot differently armed, 20,000 cavalry, and 20,000 cross-bow men. There was besides a vast wooden edifice or floating tower contrived for the protection of the soldiers who landed; but all these preparations were at length brought to nothing by the duke of Berry, who being inimical to this measure, carried on his progress so slowly, that he did not arrive at Sluys till September, when no invasion was practicable. A storm drove the greatest part of the fleet on shore, and beat the wooden edifice to pieces; the remains of it was given to the duke of Burgundy with the port of Sluys, which was very commodious, and of the utmost importance. This was only a prelude to more extraordinary calamities. The Sieur de Craon, a profligate nobleman, having been entrusted by the court with a considerable sum of money for the duke of Anjou, which he had dissipated at Venice; but, by the credit of the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, he was pardoned, and returned to court. Here he attempted to assassinate Oliver Clifton the constable, who he suspected of having promoted his disgrace. This veteran hero was attacked by a band of ruffians, against whom he defended himself with wonderful intrepidity, when at last he fell, receiving more than 50 wounds. Happily, however, he recovered; while the assassin fled for protection to the duke of Brittany. The king commanded he should be given up to him in exchange

duke answered, that he knew nothing of such the king not crediting, marched with forces into his territories. When the arrested at Mans, the king was seized with a fever; but could not be prevailed upon to take physic. On the 5th of August 1391, he marched all day in the heat of the sun, a pale, ragged, wild-looking fellow, darted behind a tree, and laying hold of the bridle rein, cried out, "Stop! where are you going? You are betrayed; and immediately threw again into the wood. The king passed not a little disturbed; and soon after one of his pages, who rode behind and carried his sword, overcome with heat, fell asleep, and let it fall from the helmet which was carried by the page. The king, hearing the noise, looked about; receiving the page lifting the lance, killed him immediately: then riding furiously with his sword drawn, he struck on every side of him, and every person, till he broke his sword; upon which one of his gentlemen leaped up behind him and seized his arm. He fell soon after, and lay as if dead; he was carried back in a waggon to Mans. He lay two days in a lethargy, after which he recovered a little, and expressed great concern for the blood he had shed in his delirium. The king rejoiced at the news of his recovery; but soon discovered, that he no longer possessed that strength of judgment for which he had formerly been remarkable. Hence a regency became necessary; and the competition for it brought out the characters of the queen and duke of Burgundy. The former was a beautiful and accomplished princess; but vindictive, intriguing, without affection, and easily accessible to flattery and every impulse of lawless passion. The duke of Burgundy was equally remarkable for his various accomplishments, but notwithstanding his alliance with Valentina daughter of the king of Milan, he was engaged in many illicit amours, and among the rest, with his own daughter Isabella. During the king's illness he aspired at the regency: but the administration was committed to the duke of Burgundy. For some months the health and understanding of the king seemed to be restored; but in 1393 it was again disturbed by another accident. At an entertainment given at the marriage of one of the king's attendants, six masques entered the apartment disguised like satyrs, in linen clothes covering their bodies, and stuck over with down. These they seized the king and five lords. The duchess of Burgundy paid no attention to the king though she did know him. Mean time the duke of Orleans, in diversion ran a lighted torch against one of the masques. His whole dress was instantly in a flame, and the fire communicated to the rest. The king, notwithstanding the dreadful situation he was in, called out, *Save the king; save the king*. On which the duchess of Berri, recollecting that it must be him with whom she had conversed in a conversation, wrapped him in her cloak, and served him. Only one of the rest escaped jumping into a cistern of water; the other four perished in the flames. The terror which the accident instantly occasioned a relapse; and the king lived delirious at intervals as long as he

lived. While in this state he was intractable by every person, except Valentina duchess of Orleans. So great was her ascendancy, that in those superstitious times it was supposed by many to be the effect of magic; others, ascribed it to her charms; and this produced her a number of enemies, particularly the duchess of Burgundy; and the quarrel between the ladies soon extended to their husbands. They did not however neglect the administration of public affairs; they strove to conciliate the parliament by preserving the rights of the commons; and they endeavoured to check gaming, and to substitute manly and martial exercises in its place. During his lucid intervals, Charles resumed the government: and as the war with England still continued, though in a languid manner, the French monarch, had an interview with Richard II. king of England, to put an end to hostilities, of which both were weary. Still, however, their claims were so difficult to be adjusted, that they could only conclude a truce for 25 years; during which space it was hoped that a lasting peace might be established. Richard gave up Cherbourg to Charles, and Brest to the duke of Brittany: a marriage was also concluded betwixt the king of England and Isabella the daughter of Charles, though the latter was then only 7 years of age; but it was never consummated. During this unfortunate reign, France was still farther weakened by the succours sent to the Hungarians against the Turks. On this fatal expedition upwards of 1000 of the bravest knights were sent under John Count of Nevers, eldest son of the duke of Burgundy; the count of Eu constable of France; John de Vienne admiral of France; and the count of Marche, a prince of the blood royal; together with De Courcy, one of the most experienced captains in Christendom. The prudent counsels of this veteran, however, were not obeyed by the youthful warriors. Attacking the enemy rashly, they were all either killed or taken prisoners. Notwithstanding this, assistance was sent, in 1400, to Wenceslaus emperor of Germany; and the duke of Orleans acquitted himself so well that he acquired the duchy of Luxemburg for himself, and left his ally satisfied: but while the friendship of France was thus courted by foreign powers, the kingdom itself was in the most miserable situation. The king's distemper daily gained ground; while the interests of the contending parties kept the nation in a ferment. The most violent animosity took place betwixt the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy. The former, by his own interest with the queen, and the ascendancy of his duchess over the king, got the better of his rival, and was made lieutenant general and governor of the kingdom; but having presumed to levy new imposts on the people, and oppressing also the churchmen, whom he ought to have let alone, he was deprived of his authority, and obliged to yield to the duke of Burgundy. For some time, however, these powerful rivals were kept within bounds by the mediation of the duke of Bourbon, who seems to have been the only grandee of a pure and unspotted character; but by his death in 1404, the unhappy nation was left exposed to their fury. In 1405, the queen and duke of Orleans again seized the administration; but were soon deprived of it by the

the voice of the people. During this period Charles and his children were abandoned to distress; but they were relieved by the duke of Burgundy on his obtaining the regency; and Isabella, with the duke of Orleans, was obliged to retire from Milan. A sudden return of the king's reason for a much longer time than usual, now deprived both parties of their power; and the administration was vested in the queen and a council of princes of the blood. The two rival dukes, prohibited from interfering in public affairs, exercised themselves in hostilities against the English, with whom the truce had been lately concluded. They were encouraged to this infraction of the treaty by the unsettled situation of the affairs of Henry IV.: but proving unsuccessful, the truce was renewed, after obtaining restoration of the princess Isabella, who had been married to Richard II. The failure of their enterprises produced a new scene of discord betwixt the dukes, who mutually threw the blame upon each other. By the intreaties of the duke of Berry they were apparently reconciled; but the duke of Burgundy pretended friendship only to take the more signal vengeance. To this he was now further inflamed by jealousy. Having hired a band of ruffians, the duke was one evening attacked by 18 of them while attended only by two pages. A Norman, whom the duke had deprived of an employment, headed the assassins, and attacked the duke. At the first blow he cut off his hand, at the second he struck him from his mule, and at the third put an end to his life. His wife Valentina died soon after. The duke of Burgundy escaped to Flanders: and the whole nation was rent into two factions, called the *Burgundians* and *Armagnacs*; the latter being the title of the party of the duke of Orleans, from Armagnac, his father-in-law. A dreadful confusion ensued: the duke of Burgundy returned to France, and extorted a pardon from the unhappy king, who could no longer resist him: and it will give some notion of the state of the kingdom, that 2000 perished in one tumult in the capital. The king was alternately the prisoner of each party, and alternately transferred the power, as he happened to fall into their hands. This was thought by Henry V. of England a favourable opportunity to recover those grants that had been formerly ceded. But previously, to maintain the appearance of justice, he sent ambassadors to Paris, offering perpetual peace and alliance, if put in possession of those provinces which had been taken from the English, and to espouse Catharine, the French king's daughter, with a suitable dowry. Though the French court was at that time averse to war, yet the exorbitance of these demands could not be complied with; and Henry probably made them in these hopes. He therefore assembled a great fleet and army at Southampton; and having allured all the military men in the kingdom to attend him, from the hopes of conquest, he put to sea, and landed at Harfleur, at the head of an army of 6000 men at arms, and 24,000 foot, mostly archers. His first operations were upon Harfleur; which promised to surrender at a certain day, unless relieved before that time. The day arriving, and the garrison still resolving to defend the place, Henry ordered an *assault to be made, took the town by storm, and*

put all the garrison to the sword. From the victor advanced farther into the country which he now laid waste. But although the English made a feeble resistance, yet the climate was against the English; a contagious dysentery rying off three 4ths of Henry's army. In this situation he had recourse to an expedient common enough in that barbarous age. He challenged the dauphin, who commanded the French army, to single combat. This challenge was rejected by the French at last seemed to unite at the prospect of the common danger. A number of 14,000 men at arms, and 40,000 foot bled under count Albert, and was now posted to intercept Henry's weakened forces on their march. The English monarch, when it was too late, began to repent of so rashly making an invasion of a country where disease and a powerful enemy everywhere threatened him with destruction. He therefore thought of retiring into Calais, but this retreat, which was both painful and dangerous, Henry took every precaution to intercept his troops with patience and perseverance: and he set them the brightest example of fortitude and resolution. He was continually harassed by small parties of the enemy; and whenever he attempted to pass the Somme, he saw troops on the opposite side ready to oppose his passage. However, he seized, by surprise, a passage near St. Quintin, and there he safely carried over his army. But the enemy was still resolved to intercept him, and after passing the small river of Teuclange, he was surprised to observe from the heights the whole French army drawn up on the plains of Agincourt; and so posted, that it was impossible to avoid coming to an engagement. The battle accordingly took place, in which the English gained a victory, the most remarkable of any recorded in history. See AGINCOURT. This victory, gained on the 25th of October 1415, was however attended with no immediate success. Henry still retreated, after the battle of Agincourt, and carried his prisoners to Calais, and from thence to England. In 1517, he once more landed with an army of 25,000 men in Normandy; and intended to strike a decisive blow for the crown of France. That wretched country was now in a deplorable situation. The whole kingdom was rent as one vast theatre of crimes. The duke of Orleans was assassinated by the duke of Burgundy, and the duke of Burgundy, in his turn, by the treachery of the dauphin. The duke's son, to revenge his father's death, entered into a treaty with the English; in which the king promised to revenge the murder of the late duke of Orleans. Henry, therefore, proceeded without opposition. Several towns and provinces fell into his approach; the city of Rouen was taken, likewise Pontoise and Gisors. He even threatened Paris, and obliged the court to remove to Bourges. At this city the duke of Burgundy, who had been upon him the protection of the French king, obliged Henry to ratify that treaty formerly concluded, by which the crown of France was to be transferred to a stranger. The imbecility in which Charles had fallen, made him passive in the execution of this remarkable treaty; and Henry dictated the principal articles were, That Henry

neefs Catharine; that king Charles the title and dignity of king for life; y should be declared heir to the ould be intrusted with the present; that France and England should ted under one king, but should still pective laws and privileges; that unite his arms with those of king e duke of Burgundy, to depress and aphin and his partisans. Not long y, Henry married the princess Ca- which he carried his father-in-law took a formal possession of that ca- the estates of the kingdom ratified act; after which he turned his arms against the dauphin; who, in the andered about a stranger in his own to his enemies successes only oppo- xpostulations. Henry was obliged erson to prevail upon his parliament succours; and on his arrival in Eng- he found his subjects highly pleased dor of his conquests, yet they were o the advantage of them. A treaty, med to transfer the seat of empire l, was not much relished by the par- various pretences, they refused him l to his exigencies; but he was re- fusing his schemes; and, joining to ranted at home, the contributions of d provinces, he was able once more army of 28,000 men, and with these ly at Calais. In the mean time, the nce of great prudence and activity, pportunity of repairing his ruined si- taking advantage of Henry's absence.

on the regent of Scotland to send f 8000 men; and with these, and a i his own, he attacked the duke of o commanded the troops in Henry's gained a complete victory. This ction which turned the tide against

But it was of short duration: for after appearing with a considerable aphin fled; while many places which for the dauphin, surrendered to the Thus, while Henry was everywhere: fixed his residence at Paris; and had a small court, he was attended magnificent one. On Whitsunday, o kings and their two queens with air heads dined together in public; ving apparent homage, but Henry with absolute authority. In the he dauphin was chased beyond the as even pursued into the south, by ms of the English and Burgundians. ice, he found it necessary to sp'n out o evade all hazardous actions. Mean- g of England died, and Charles VI. tr.

CE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH- LES VI, TO THE CORONATION OF l. Charles VII. succeeded his father throne. Nothing could be more de- his situation on assuming the crown. were masters of almost all France; : though but an infant, was invested

with regal power by legates from Paris. The duke of Bedford was at the head of a numerous army, in the heart of the kingdom, while the duke of Burgundy, who had entered into a firm confederacy with him, seconded his claims. Yet, notwithstanding these favourable appearances, Charles found means to break the leagues formed against him, and to bring back his subjects to their natural interests and their duty. However, his first attempts were unsuccessful. Wherever he endeavoured to face the enemy he was overthrown; and he could scarcely rely on the friends next his person. His authority was insulted; every advantage was gained against him; and a battle fought near Verneuil, in which he was totally defeated by the duke of Bedford, seemed to render his affairs altogether desperate. But as the English could not keep the field without new supplies, Bedford was obliged to retire to England; and in the mean time his vigilant enemy recovered from his late consternation. Dumois, one of his generals, at the head of 2000 men, compelled the earl of Warwick to raise the siege of Montargis; and this advantage, slight as it was, began to make the French suppose that the English were not invincible. But they soon had still greater reason to triumph, and a new revolution was produced by means the most unlikely. In the village of Domremi, near Vaucouleurs, there lived a country girl, about 27 years of age, called *Joan de Arc*. She had been a servant at a small inn; and had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto discovered none of those enterprizing qualities which appeared soon after. She contentedly fulfilled the duties of her situation, and was remarkable only for her modesty and religion. But the miseries of her country was one of the greatest objects of her compassion. Her mind, inflamed by these objects, began to feel several impulses, which she was willing to consider as the inspirations of heaven. Convinced of this, she had recourse to one Baudricourt, governor of Vaucouleurs, and informed him of her destination by heaven to free her native country. Baudricourt treated her at first with neglect: but her importunities prevailed; and willing to make a trial of her pretensions, he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the court, which at that time resided at Chinon. The French court were probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions; but they were willing to make use of every artifice to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out, that Joan was inspired; that she had discovered the king among the number of his courtiers, although without any distinction of his authority; that she had told him alone some secrets; and that she had demanded, and minutely described, a sword in the church of St Catharine de Fierbois, which she had never seen. In this manner, the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-a-pie, and shown to the people. She was then brought before the university; and they, willing to second the imposture, declared that she had actually received her commission from above. When her mission was completely blazoned, the next aim was to send her against the enemy. The English

were then besieging Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and every thing promised a speedy surrender. Joan undertook to raise the siege; and girded herself with the miraculous sword. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out; she displayed a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her, felt secretly the terrors of her mission. A supply of provisions was to be conveyed into the town; Joan, heading some French troops, covered the embarkation, and entered Orleans at the head of the convoy. While leading her troops along, a dead silence and astonishment reigned among the English; and they regarded with religious awe that temerity, which they thought nothing but supernatural assistance could inspire. But they were soon roused from their amazement by a sally from the town; Joan led on the besieged, bearing the sacred standard in her hand, encouraging them with her words and actions, bringing them to the trenches, and overpowering the besiegers in their own redoubts. In attacking one of the forts, she was wounded in the neck with an arrow; but instantly pulling out the weapon with her own hands, and getting the wound quickly dressed, she hastened back to head the troops, and to plant her victorious banner on the ramparts of the enemy. These successes continuing, the English found it impossible to resist troops animated by such superior energy; and Suffolk, who conducted the attack, thinking that it might prove extremely dangerous to remain any longer in the presence of such a victorious enemy, raised the siege, and retreated with all imaginable precaution. From being attacked, the French in turn became the aggressors. Charles formed a body of 6000 men, and sent them to besiege Jargeau, whither the earl of Suffolk had retired, with a detachment of his army. The city was taken; Suffolk yielded a prisoner; and Joan marched into the place in triumph. A battle was soon after fought near Patay, where the English were worsted, as before; and the generals Seales and Talbot were taken prisoners. The raising of the siege of Orleans was one part of the maid's promise to Charles; the crowning him at Rheims was the other. She now declared that it was time to complete that ceremony; and Charles, by her advice, set out for Rheims at the head of 12,000 men. The towns through which he passed opened their gates to receive him; and Rheims sent him a deputation, with its keys, upon his approach. The ceremony was there performed with the utmost solemnity; and the *Maid of Orleans* (for so she was now called) seeing the completion of her mission, desired leave to retire. But the king could not think of parting with her; he pressed her to stay so earnestly, that she at length complied.

(35.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CORONATION OF CHARLES VII, TO THE EXPULSION OF THE ENGLISH. A tide of success followed this solemnity; Laon, Soissons, Chateau Thierry, Provins, and many other fortresses submitted on the first summons. The English, discomfited and dispirited, fled on every quarter; not knowing whether to ascribe their misfortunes to the power

of sorcery or to a celestial influence; terrified at both. They now found deprived of the conquests they had gained as the French had formerly found their power. Their own divisions entered them for carrying on the war; and of Bedford saw himself divested of his power in the country, without being able to stop the enemy's progress. In order, therefore, to the declining state of his affairs, he resolved Henry VI. crowned king at Paris, that the natives would be allured to obedience by the splendor of the ceremony. In 1430, accordingly crowned, the vassals swore fealty and homage. But it was now too late to perform the ceremonies of a coronation to give a turn to the generality of the kingdom had declared against them, and the remainder only waited an opportunity to follow their example. A civil war ensued soon after, which, though it promised to promote the English cause in France, served to render it odious. The duke of Burgundy, at the head of a powerful army, laid siege to Compiègne; and the Maid of Orleans, thrown herself into the place, contrary to the wishes of the governor, who did not think of the company of one whose authority would be less than his own. The garrison, however, was struck at her appearance, and believed themselves invincible. But their joy was of short duration. Joan having the day after her arrival made a sally, and twice driven the enemy from the trenches, she was at last obliged to retire, placing herself in the rear, to protect the rear of her forces. But in the end attempting to draw her troops into the city, the gates were closed, and the bridge drawn up by order of the governor, who is said to have long wished for an opportunity of delivering her up to the English. Nothing could exceed the joy of the English at having taken a person who had been so long a terror to their arms. Te Deum was sung on this occasion; and it was hoped, that the appearance of this extraordinary person would restore to the English their former victories and courage. The duke of Bedford was no sooner informed than he purchased her of the count Vendôme, who had made her his prisoner, and ordered her to be committed to close confinement. The opinion of both nations was at that time so greatly affected, that nothing was too absurd to gain credit. Afore, from her successes, was regarded as a saint; she was now, upon her captivity, considered as a sorceress, forsaken by the demon who had seduced her a temporary and fallacious assistance. Accordingly it was resolved to send her to be tried for witchcraft; and the bishop of Beauvais, a man devoted to the English, presented a petition against her for that purpose to the university of Paris, who were so mean as to grant the request. Several prelates, among whom the cardinal of Winchester was the only Englishman, were appointed her judges. They held their court in Rouen, where Henry resided; and she, clothed in her former military apparel, and chained with irons, was produced before them. Her behaviour there no way disgraced her former gallantry; she betrayed neither weakness

submission; but appealed to God and the truth of her former revelations. In the end, she was found guilty of heresy and witchcraft, and sentenced to be burnt alive. But previous to this sentence, they were resolved to make her recant her errors; and at length so far prevailed upon her, that her spirits were entirely broken by the hardships she was obliged to suffer. She publicly declared herself willing to recant, and never more to give way to the vain delusions. This was what they desired; and willing to give her some appearance of mercy, they changed her sentence into perpetual imprisonment, and to give her bread and water. But their rage was not satisfied. Suspecting that the female dress she had consented to wear, was disagreeable to her, they purposely placed in her apartment of men's apparel, and watched for the opportunity of their temptation. Their artifices prevailed, and struck with the sight of a dress in which she had gained so much glory, threw off her perukes, and put on the forbidden garment. The monks caught her equipped in this manner; they considered as a relapse into her former errors. No recantation would suffice, pardon would be granted. She was condemned to be burnt alive in the market-place of Paris; and this infamous sentence was accordingly executed. One of the first misfortunes which she felt after this, was the defection of the Duke of Burgundy; who had for some time seen the error of his conduct, and wished to break an old connection, that only served to involve him in ruin. A treaty was therefore concluded between him and Charles, in which he agreed to assist him in driving the English from France. This was a mortal blow to their arms, and such was its effects upon the population, that they killed several of the duke of Burgundy's subjects, who happened to be there. It perhaps have hastened the duke of Bedford's death, who died at Rouen a few days after; and the Earl of Cambridge was appointed his successor in the regency of France. From this period English affairs became irretrievable. The Duke of Burgundy returned once more to his duty. John of Monmouth, who commanded it, only effected for the safe retreat of his troops to Normandy. That ground was continually, though not entirely, wasted by the French; and although their towns found waste, and their towns depopulated, they found protection from the weak divisions of the English. At length both sides began to grow weary of a war, which, carried on but feebly, was yet a burden which either could support. A truce, therefore, for twelve months, was concluded in 1443. No sooner was this settled, than Charles employed his repairing those numberless ills to which France had so long been exposed. He established discipline among his troops, and justice among his governors. He revived agriculture, and improved his nation. Thus being prepared once more for the field, he took the first favourable opportunity of breaking the truce; and Normandy was invaded by a powerful army; one commanded by himself, a 2d by the duke of Brittany, a 3d by the count of Alençon, and a 4th by the Duke of Burgundy.

Every place opened its gates almost as soon as the French appeared. Rouen alone promised to hold out; but the inhabitants clamoured so loud, that the duke of Somerset, who commanded, was obliged to capitulate. The skirmish of Fourmings was the last stand which the English made. However, they were put to the rout, and above 1000 were slain. All Normandy and Guienne, that had so long acknowledged subjection to England, were lost in one year; and the English saw themselves entirely dispossessed of a country which for above 3 centuries they had considered as annexed to their native dominions. Calais alone remained; and this was but a small compensation for the blood and treasure which had been lavished in that country, and only served to gratify ambition with a transient applause. Thus, in 1450, the power of the English in France was entirely destroyed; and Charles deservedly obtained the surname of *the Victorious*.

(36.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLES VII, TO THAT OF LEWIS XI. The satisfaction of Charles was now greatly diminished by domestic misfortunes. The dauphin, forgetting the duty he owed his father, had already impeded his conquests by his seditious intrigues. He had used every endeavour to thwart the designs of his ministers, and it was said that he had poisoned Agnes Soreille, his father's favourite mistress. He had married Charles's daughter to the duke of Savoy; which Charles resented by a declaration of war against the duke, but had been persuaded to recall it, to prosecute the war against Guienne, which made part of the dominions of the English. At last weary of the disobedience of his son, he commanded him to be arrested; but Lewis withdrew to Franche Comté, and afterwards to Brabant; of which the duke of Burgundy (then sovereign of the country) was no longer apprised, than he ordered him to be supplied with every necessary, and treated with all imaginable respect. He refused to see him, however, until he should obtain the approbation of his father; on which Lewis having in vain attempted to draw in the duke, employed himself in sowing dissension betwixt his benefactor and his son the count of Charolois, while he himself was receiving a pension of 12,000 crowns annually from the father. Thus he at last destroyed the domestic peace of his benefactor, while his unnatural behaviour created continual suspicions in the mind of his father. Charles was repeatedly informed that his own domestics, along with his undutiful son, were in a conspiracy against his life. The miserable monarch, therefore, in continual fear of being poisoned, and having none in whom he could repose any confidence, obstinately refused for some days to take any nourishment; and when at last prevailed upon by the importunities of his attendants to do so, his son had been so long incapable of receiving food, so that he died for want of sustenance in 1461. His body, neglected by his unnatural son, was interred at the expense of Tannegui de Chatell, who had been his faithful companion. On Charles's death, his son Lewis XI. succeeded him. He did not even attempt to conceal his joy at his father's death. He pretended much friendship for the Count of Charolois, son to the duke of Bur-

gundy, and even conferred upon him a pension of 12,000 crowns annually; but all this show of affection soon degenerated into a mortal aversion on both sides. Some differences which took place between the courts of France and Castile produced an interview betwixt the two monarchs Lewis, and Henry, surnamed the *Impotent*. They met at Mauleon on the confines of Navarre: but their negotiations came to nothing. In his negotiations with the duke of Burgundy, Lewis proved more successful; persuading him to restore some towns on the Somme, which had been ceded by Charles VII. and which rendered the duke master of Picardy. By this transaction he effectually ensured the hatred of Charolois, while he eminently displayed his own duplicity; for though he had agreed to retain in those towns the officers appointed by the duke, he was no sooner in possession of them, than he nominated others in their stead. Brittany was at this time governed by Francis a weak but generous prince, and whose defect of capacity was supplied by the abilities of his ministers. Him Lewis grossly insulted, but as Francis found himself unable to oppose such a powerful adversary alone, he joined in a close alliance with the duke of Burgundy and the count of Charolois. The conspiracy was joined by several of the principal French nobility, and though the secret was confided to upwards of 500 persons, not one of them ever divulged it. Lewis, finding matters become very critical, marched with an army towards the capital, which the count of Charolois already refused. A battle ensued, in which both princes exerted themselves to the utmost. About 1500 perished on each side, but the count of Charolois remained master of the field. Lewis, however, entered the capital; where he endeavoured, by concession, to conciliate his subjects; in which he succeeded so well, that though the insurgents were above 100,000, they were unable to make themselves masters of the city. At last a treaty was set on foot betwixt Lewis and the count of Charolois; by which the latter obtained the towns formerly ceded, with Boulogne, Guines, Peronne, Mondidier, and Royé, as a perpetual inheritance. By granting favours to the other confederates, the league was broken; and the moment that Lewis found himself freed from danger, he protested against the whole treaty in presence of some confidential members of parliament, and therefore waited the first favourable opportunity, to crush one by one those who had been ready by their united efforts to destroy him. He gained over the duke of Bourbon, one of the most able of the confederates, while, by the discontents betwixt the dukes of Brittany and Normandy, he was enabled to secure the neutrality of the former, and to recover from the latter some territories which he had unwillingly ceded to him. In 1467, Philip duke of Burgundy, from his amiable qualities surnamed *The Good*, died, and left his dominions to his son Charles, count of Charolois. That impetuous prince, an implacable enemy of Lewis, had entered into a secret treaty with Francis; but Lewis had driven the Bretons from the posts they occupied in Normandy, before the duke of Burgundy could pass the Somme. Lewis, however, concluded a peace with Brittany; and, determi-

ned to have a personal interview with the duke of Burgundy. This took place in 1468; and Peronne, a city of Picardy, but belonging to the duke of Burgundy, was appointed as the place of rendezvous. To this place Lewis repaired attended only by Cardinal Balue, the duke of Bourbon, and the count of St Pol, constable of France, seemingly without reflecting that he was entering an hostile city, where he might be treated at the pleasure of the duke, who was his mortal enemy. Indeed he had not been long in the place when he began to see his error; and by the daily course of Burgundian lords and other persons of rank, who were his avowed enemies, he became alarmed for his personal safety. His fear suggested a worse measure than the former; he requested apartments in the castle, when he was in the power of his rival in a moment to make him a close prisoner. This event accordingly took place, and that through the arts and machinations of Lewis himself. His design had been from the beginning to keep the duke of Burgundy constantly employed in domestic war. For this purpose he had, before his interview with Charles, excited the inhabitants of Liege, who were subject to the duke of Burgundy, to revolt. It is most probable that he did not imagine the effects of this treachery would so soon begin to appear. At the very time, however, that Lewis was in the castle of Peronne, the people of Liege revolted, seized the bishop and governor; and having massacred great numbers retired to the capital. Charles was informed of this massacre, with the additional circumstance, that the ambassadors of Lewis were seen animating the insurgents. He flew into a transport of rage; commanded the castle-gates to be shut; denouncing the severest vengeance on the perfidious monarch. Lewis, however, though greatly and justly alarmed, did not neglect to take the proper methods for securing himself. He distributed large sums of money among those officers, to whom he imagined the duke was most inclined to pay any regard, and by splendid promises and presents endeavoured to allay the resentment of his other enemies. At last the resentment of Charles having subsided, he entered into a treaty with the king, and concluded it upon much the same terms as those which had been agreed upon before. It was not long, however, before this new alliance was dissolved. A confederacy against Lewis, whom neither promises nor threats could bind, was formed betwixt his own brother the duke of Normandy, and the duke of Burgundy; but before their measures were ripe for execution, Lewis had already commenced hostilities. The duke of Burgundy, as a peer of France, was summoned to parliament; and on his refusal, the constable of St Pol made himself master of Quintin. Several other cities were soon afterwards seized; Baldwin, the natural brother of Charles, corrupted by Lewis, deserted his cause; the proud spirited duke, was at last obliged to solicit a peace. This however, was of no long duration. Charles, encouraged by Edward IV. of England, his brother-in-law, began once more a league with the dukes of Brittany and Guienne, the latter being the king's brother. But these prospects were suddenly overcast by the death

duke of Guienne, which was universally supposed to have been occasioned by poison, and it was as universally looked upon as the author. The abbot of St Jean d'Angeli was fixed as the immediate perpetrator of the deed: on the day appointed for his trial he was strangled in his cell; and this also was with probability, supposed to have been the deed of Lewis, who after the death of his brother inherited the territory of Guienne, and extended to the dominions of France. By this conduct of the French monarch, Charles was incensed, that he vowed the most effectual vengeance against the French, and threatened sacrifice to the memory of the duke of Burgundy every one who now fell into his hands. A number of Nivelle were massacred without distinction of sex or age; Beauvais resisted his attacks; and Charles wreaked his fury on the oppressors. Having entered the country of Caux, he seized the cities of Eu and St Valery, burnt the suburbs, and wasted the whole country as far as Rouen. Lewis, on the other hand, determined to dissolve the league between the duke of Burgundy and Edward IV. of England. Accordingly he encamped with his army on the frontiers of Brittany, while the duke was obliged to continue a truce for a year; and the duke of Burgundy himself was obliged to follow his example. In a very little time, he again began to conspire with the king of England against Lewis and a general invasion was determined upon. Edward embarked the sea with an army of 10,000 men, while Charles assembled all his forces to join him. Lewis, however, still avoided the storm. Charles, instead of depending on the assistance of Edward, entered France at the head of 15,000 archers and 1,000 men at arms, laid siege to Nuiz on the Rhine; while the constable of St Pol, instead of delivering up the towns as he had promised, secured his allies, and enabled Lewis to dissolve a confederacy, which, had it been vigorously maintained, might have involved him in the present difficulties. To procure the departure of Edward, however, he was obliged to consent to a tribute of 75,000 crowns, as well as to settle on the king himself 50,000 crowns for life; betrothing also the dauphin to the eldest daughter of the king of England. The duke of Burgundy exclaimed loudly against this treaty: but Edward persisted in his resolution; and it was accordingly concluded at a place called *Pecquigny*, near Amiens; but in such a manner as showed the little confidence the two sovereigns reposed in each other. A power was reserved by Edward, for the duke of Burgundy to accede to the treaty; but the latter haughtily replied, that he was able to support himself without the assistance of England; and that he would make no peace with Lewis till six months after the return of Edward. To this resolution he adhered; but no sooner was the term expired, than he concluded a truce with Lewis for 9 years. The constable of St Pol, having rendered himself obnoxious to all parties by his complicated treachery, fled to Mons in Hainault; but the duke of Burgundy had already agreed to deliver him up, on condition of receiving his estates and moveables as the price of his treachery.

Thus Lewis, without any qualification but cunning, falsehood, and duplicity, got rid of all his enemies except the duke of Burgundy, whose growing power rendered him a constant object of jealousy and terror. The duke's own imprudence however, soon proved his ruin. Having rashly entered into a war with the Swiss, he was defeated in the first engagement with the loss of his military chest and baggage, with his plate and jewels, supposed to be the richest in Europe. His disappointment on this occasion was so great, that he was seized with a severe sickness, from which he had hardly recovered when he returned his mad scheme of conquering the Swiss. Another battle ensued; in which, after an obstinate dispute, Charles was defeated with the loss of 18,000 men, himself escaping with difficulty. This disaster was followed by the defection of most of his allies; the duke of Lorraine recovered Nancy, and great part of his dominions, which Charles had seized; while the latter overwhelmed with shame and disappointment, spent his time in solitude and inactivity. From this he was at last roused by the misfortunes, which fell upon him in such quick succession. He now invested the city of Nancy; and in this, as well as in every other instance, he acted against the advice of his best officers; and the consequences were still more fatal than before. The duke of Lorraine advanced with a strong body of Germans to the relief of the city, while Charles had scarcely 4000 men to oppose him. His troops were therefore easily defeated, and himself, notwithstanding the most heroic efforts of valour, hurried away in the crowd. The count de Campobasso, an Italian nobleman in whom he put a great deal of confidence, but who was in reality a traitor, had deserted with about 80 men in the beginning of the engagement. He left 12 or 15 men about the duke's person, with strict orders to assassinate him in the tumult; and this order they punctually complied with; the body of Charles being found two days after the battle pierced with three wounds. The news of Charles's death was received with the utmost joy by Lewis, whose sole object now was to unite the territories of the duke of Burgundy to his own. This might be done in two ways; one by a match betwixt the dauphin and Mary the heiress of Burgundy; the other, by marrying her to the duke of Angoulême, a prince of the royal blood of France, and on whom Mary had shewn some inclination to bestow herself. The king, however, to whom duplicity and falsehood seem to have been absolutely necessary, chose a third method, more agreeable to his character. The match with the dauphin was attended with such circumstances as rendered it evidently impracticable. The disparity of age was very great, the dauphin being only 8 years old, and the princess 20; the Flemings were besides averse; but, Lewis insisted upon the match, at the same time that he endeavoured to make himself master of her dominions by force of arms. He addressed circular letters to the principal cities of Burgundy; representing, that the duchy had been given up by king John to the male heirs of his son Philip; and that now, when there were extinct by the death of Charles, the territory reverted of course to the crown. He corrupted the

governors of some towns, and seduced the inhabitants of others to rise against their governors; whilst he himself, at the head of an army, prepared to enforce obedience from those who could not be worked upon by other methods. Thus Burgundy was entirely reduced; but Flanders could not be brought under subjection either by fair means, force, or fraud. In his conduct for this purpose, indeed, Lewis displayed the most detestable treachery and falsehood. To render Mary odious to her subjects, he negotiated with her ministers, and prevailed upon them to disclose to him some of the most important state secrets; after which he communicated their letters to the states of Flanders. This double treachery, however, did not answer his purpose. Mary was thus induced to bestow herself upon the emperor Maximilian; and Lewis had the mortification to find, that all his arts had contributed only to aggrandize a rival power, whom he had already sufficient cause to dread. To remedy this oversight, he entered into an alliance with Edward IV. of England, whom he had inspired with a jealousy of his brother Clarence, in order to prevent a match betwixt that nobleman and the princess Mary, which had also been in agitation. Thus a peace was concluded between the two monarchs, to continue during the life of each, and for a year after. The marriage of Mary with Maximilian effectually secured the independence of Flanders; while the return of the prince of Orange to the party of that princess extended the flames of war once more to the cities of Burgundy. The French were on the point of being totally expelled from that country, when Maximilian unexpectedly made proposals of peace. A truce was concluded; but without any term limited for its duration, or without any conditions stipulated in favour of the Burgundians; so that the whole country was quickly after reduced by Lewis. The king now, freed from the apprehension of foreign enemies, turned his vindictive disposition against his own subjects; over whom, under pretence of former rebellions he exercised the most insupportable tyranny. The principal victim to his sanguinary disposition on this occasion was James d'Armagnac duke of Nemours, one of the first noblemen in the kingdom but who had formerly appeared a zealous confederate against him in the league in which Edward and Charles were concerned. The unfortunate nobleman, fled to a fortress named *Carlat*, situated among the mountains of Auvergne. Here he was besieged by the Seigneur de Beaujeu, who had married Anne the daughter of Lewis. The place, however, was almost impregnable to any force; so that his enemies were obliged to make the most solemn promises of safety to induce him to surrender. By these he was at last persuaded to trust himself in the hands of the faithless tyrant; who no sooner had him in his power than he shut him up in the Bastille in an iron cage, and reprimanded the judges because they had released him from this close confinement during the time of his examination. The judges reluctantly condemned him to be beheaded: but the king's cruelty extended beyond the sentence; and he ordered the two sons of the duke, though yet in childhood, to be placed directly under the scaffold,

that they might be covered with the blood of their father: 4000 persons are said to have fallen upon this occasion without any form of law. By these he broke the spirit of the French, and gradually extended the power of France beyond all bounds; so that at last it was only by the king's pleasure. In 1479, Louis XI. or Maximilian, who had lightly abandoned the duchy of Burgundy when he might have retained it, now renewed his claims when it was in his power to enforce them. After some negotiations, and destruction of cities, on both sides, a bloody battle was fought at Guinegate. The Flemings were routed; but as the French fought with too great ardour, the infantry of France rallied, and the battle was renewed with slaughter on both sides. A more decisive victory was afterwards gained by the capture of some Flemish vessels, which induced that people to think of peace. In the same year, however, Lewis, received warning of his approaching end, by a fit of apoplexy with which he was seized in 1480. He lay speechless for some time, after which he recovered in some degree, but his illness neither prevented him from pursuing his schemes, nor from using the same measures to attain them. He seized the duke of Bourbon, the only nobleman in France whose power could give him any suspicion; yet, notwithstanding his age, and the interest of the dauphin, he kept him prisoner in the castle of Amboise. He married his own consort, and endeavoured to alienate his own son with aversion towards her. But the death of Charles, king of Naples, he became master of the country of Provence; but his satisfaction was marred by a second stroke of apoplexy. However, he revived, and, again began to pursue his ambitious intrigues. The death of Burgundy, who perished by a fall from his horse, inspired him with new views; and he betrothed his son to the infant daughter of the emperor. Thus he offended Edward IV. of England, whose eldest daughter Elizabeth he had previously contracted to the dauphin; and which would have undoubtedly ensued, had it not been for the death of Edward. This was followed after by that of Lewis himself, who, after having exhausted the skill of the physician, and the clerical order with prayers and processions to avert the impending stroke, expired after a reign of 23 years; during which he was detested by his subjects, and equally despised by his neighbours; notwithstanding which he obtained the title of *Most Christian* pope, which his successors have ever since retained. Notwithstanding the dark character of his reign, it must be allowed, that he laid the foundation of the grandeur of the French monarchy. By his arts he deprived the people of their liberties, oppressed the nobility, established a standing army, and even induced the states to render themselves perpetual, which formerly were only convened to support the army which was to keep France in slavery.

(37.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF LEWIS XI, TO THAT OF CHARLES VIII. Charles VIII was only 14 years old, when he succeeded his father Lewis XI, in 1483. But though so young, even at that age, have ascended the throne without any violation of the laws, yet it was judged necessary to have a regent, on account of his delicacy of constitution and want of education. Three competitors appeared, for this important trust, viz. 1. John duke of Bourbon, a prince of the blood, and who had, till the age of 16, maintained the most unblemished character; 2. Lewis duke of Orleans, presumptive heir to the throne, but who, from his being only 20 years old, seemed incapacitated on that account from undertaking such an important office; and 3. Anne, the eldest daughter of Lewis, to whom he latter had, in his last moments, committed the charge of the kingdom, with the title of governor. The claim of this lady was supported by the assembly of the states-general at Tours; and though she was only in the 22d year of her age, the office could not have been more properly bestowed. Being married to Peter of Bourbon, sire of Beaujeu, her title was *the Lady of Beaujeu*; but she acted entirely independent of her husband, who was but of a moderate capacity, and indeed had been recommended to her by Lewis on account of his slender abilities. Left by any other match the House of Bourbon should be too much aggrandized. Her first step was to ingratiate herself with the people by some popular acts; among which one was to punish the instruments of her father's cruelties. One of these, named Oliver le Dain, who, from the station of a barber, had raised himself to the confidence of the king, and had distinguished himself by the invention of new modes of torture, was publicly hanged. Another, named John Doyac, who by continual acts of rapacity had oppressed the people, was condemned to be whipped, to have one of his ears cut off, and his tongue pierced with a hot iron; then taken to his native city of Montferrand, again whipped, and his other ear cut off; after which his estates, as well as those of Oliver, were confiscated. James Cailler, the physician of Lewis, who had availed himself of the terror of death with which the king was influenced, to extort great sums of money from him, was ordered to answer for the immense wealth he had acquired; but he averted the danger by paying a fine of 50,000 crowns. Thus the queen gained the affections of the people; and many of those who were averse to her government. The duke of Bourbon was made constable, an office which he had long desired; but the duke of Orleans behaved so as to exclude all hopes of it. Incensed at the determination of a trifling dispute at tennis against him, by the governors, he exclaimed, that whoever had decided it in that manner "was a liar if a man, or a strumpet if a woman." After this furious declaration he fled to the castle of Beaujeu, where, however, he was soon forced to surrender. He then applied to Henry VII, but that prince, paying little attention to his proposals, he next made his application to the court of Brittany. Here he was received with great marks of esteem, and began to entertain hopes of marrying the daughter of the duke;

but being looked upon with a jealous eye by the nobility, they entered into secret negotiations with Anne, and even solicited her to invade the country. In these however, they stipulated that only a certain number of troops should enter the province, and that no fortified place should remain in the hands of the French. Brittany however was invaded at once by 4 armies, each of them superior to the stipulated number, who quickly made themselves masters of the most important places; while the troops of the duke retired in disgust. Finding at last, however that the entire subjection of their country was determined upon, the nobility began to exert themselves in defence of it; and, inflamed by the enthusiasm of liberty, they raised an army of 60,000 men, and compelled the French to abandon the siege of Nantz. But this proved only a transient success; Anne persevered in her design, and the state of Europe at that time favoured it. England alone was then capable of affording any effectual assistance; and the avarice of Henry prevented him from giving it, which for his own interest he ought to have done. Thus the Bretons were left to defend themselves the best way they could; and having ventured a battle, they were entirely defeated, and most of their leaders taken prisoners. A small body of English, under lord Woodville, who assisted them, were entirely cut in pieces. The duke soon after died by a fall from his horse, leaving his dominions to his daughter Anne, at that time only 13 years of age. The lady Beaujeu, then, finding that the conquest of Brittany would still be difficult, determined to conclude a marriage betwixt the young king of France and the duchess, though the former had already been married to Margaret of Austria, the daughter of Maximilian. This marriage indeed had not been consummated by reason of the tender age of the princess; but she had been sent to Paris for her education, and had for several years been treated as queen of France. In 1491, however, Margaret was sent back to her father: Anne of Brittany for a long time refused to violate the engagements into which she had entered; but at last, finding herself distressed on all sides, and incapable of resisting the numerous forces of France with which she was pressed, she reluctantly consented to the match, and the nuptials were celebrated at Langeais in Touraine. Maximilian, enraged at the double disgrace he had suffered, began, when too late, to think of revenge. France was now threatened by the united forces of Austria, Spain, and England. But this formidable confederacy was soon dissipated. Henry was bought off with money; the immediate payment of 745,000 crowns, and the promise of 25,000 annually ever after, persuaded him to retire into his own country. Ferdinand king of Spain had the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne restored to him; while Maximilian was gratified by the cession of part of Artois, which had been acquired by Lewis XI. The young king of France agreed to these terms the more readily, that he was bent upon an expedition into Italy, to conquer the kingdom of Naples, to which he claimed a right. Most of his counsellors were against it, but he was inflexible, though Ferdinand king of Naples offered

ed to do homage for his kingdom, and pay him a tribute of 50,000 crowns a-year. He appointed Peter duke of Bourbon regent in his absence; after which he set out with very few troops and very little money. By the way he fell ill of the smallpox, but soon recovering he entered Italy with only 6000 horse and 12,000 foot; he was attended with the most surprising success, traversing the whole country in six weeks, and becoming master of Naples in less than a fortnight. Had Charles acted up to the character generally given him, he might have raised his name as high as any hero of antiquity. His behaviour, however, was very different. He amused himself with feasts and shows; and leaving his power in the hands of favourites, they shared it with any who would purchase titles, places, or authority, at the rates they imposed. But while Charles was thus losing his time, a league was concluded against him at Venice; into which entered the pope, the emperor Maximilian, the archduke Philip, Lewis Sforza, and the Venetians. The confederates assembled an army of 40,000 men, commanded by Francis marquis of Mantua; and they waited for the king in the valley of Fornovo, in Parma, into which he descended with 9000 men. On the 6th July 1495 he attacked the allies; and, notwithstanding their great superiority, defeated them, with the loss of only 80 of his own men. Thus he got safe to France; but his Italian dominions were lost almost as soon as he departed. Some schemes were proposed for recovering these conquests; but they were never put in execution, and the king died of an apoplexy in 1498. The premature death of this monarch, in the 28th year of his age, was supposed to have been owing to his irregular life. He was greatly celebrated for his sweet temper and agreeable disposition, which procured him the titles of the *Affable* and *Courteous*. Two of his domestics are said to have died of grief after his death, and his widow abandoned herself to the most pungent sorrow for *seven days*.

(38.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS XII'S ACCESSION TO THAT OF FRANCIS I. By the death of Charles VIII. the crown passed from the direct line of the house of Valois, and Lewis duke of Orleans succeeded. At his accession he was in his 36th year, and had long been taught in the school of adversity. During the administration of the Lady Beaujeu, he had been constantly in disgrace; after his connections with the duke of Brittany, he had spent a considerable time in prison; and though afterwards set at liberty by Charles, he had never possessed any share of his favour. Towards the conclusion of that reign, he fell under the displeasure of the queen; and had continued at his castle of Blois till he was called to the crown. He had been married in early life, and against his will, to Jane the youngest daughter of Lewis XI. a princess of an amiable disposition, but deformed, and supposed to be incapable of bearing children. Afterwards he entertained thoughts of having this marriage dissolved, and was supposed to possess the affection of the duchess of Brittany before she became queen of France. After the death of her husband, that princess retired to Brittany, where she pre-

tended to assume an independent form; but Lewis having got his marriage with her dissolved by pope Alexander VI. quickly accepted of the queen dowager, which she accepted; but it was stipulated, that if she have two sons, the younger should inherit the duchy. As Lewis, while duke of Orleans, had some pretensions to Naples, he instantly began realizing them. On his accession, he met with in that country much more favourable dispositions than formerly. The pope was interested in him, he had conciliated the friendship of the Venetians; he concluded a truce with the duke Philip; and renewed his alliances with the crowns of England, Scotland, and France. He then entered Italy with an army of 20,000 men, assisted by the Venetians, quickly recovered one part of the duchy, while they conquered the other, the duke himself being obliged to retire to his family to Inspruck. He then attacked Ferdinand of Spain with three armies at once: one by land, and one by sea; but not performing any thing remarkable, he returned to Naples in 1504. In 1506 the Genoese drove out the nobility; chose 8 tribunes, and declared Paul Nuova, a silk-dyer, their king; after which, they expelled the French, and reduced a great part of the Riviera. This occasioned Lewis's return into Italy; in 1507, he obliged the Genoese to surrender; and, in 1508, entered into the league of Cambray, with the other princes who at that time wanted to reduce the overgrown power of the Venetians. Pope Julius II. who had been the first contriver of this league, very soon broke off it; and declared, that if the Venetians restore the cities of Faenza and Rimini, which had been unjustly taken from him, he would be contented. This was refused; and in consequence of the republic received such an insult from Lewis, that they agreed to demand not only the two cities, but whatever else they required. The pope now, instead of making peace, made war on the king, without the least provocation. Lewis assembled his clergy; where it was determined, that in some cases it was lawful to make war on the pope; upon which the king declared against him, and committed the care of his affairs to Marshall de Trivulce. He soon obliged the pope to retire into Ravenna; and in 1512 the duke of Nemours, gained a great victory at Ravenna, but was killed in the engagement; his death the army disbanded for want of pay, and the French affairs in Italy, and elsewhere, fell into confusion. They recovered the duchy of Milan, and lost it again in a few years. Henry VIII. of England invaded France, took Terruon and Tournay; and the Swiss defeated Burgundy with an army of 25,000 men. In this desperate state of affairs the queen mother put an end to the opposition of the king's dangerous enemies by negotiating marriage with Ferdinand of Spain he offered his second son for either of his grandsons, Charles or Lewis, and to renounce, in favour of that marriage, all his claims on Milan and Genoa. This proposal was accepted; and Lewis himself married t

Francis found it impossible to succeed; and at the same time an irreconcilable hatred took between the two monarchs. In 1521, this produced a war; which, however, might have been terminated, if Francis had retreated, but this being refused, hostilities renewed with greater vigour than ever; they concluded till France was brought to the very brink of ruin, Francis himself being prisoner, on the 24th Feb. 1524. This divided the whole kingdom into the utmost confusion. The Flemish troops made continual ravages, and many thousand boors assembled in Alliance, to oppose an invasion from that quarter; Henry VIII. assembled a great army, and threatened the kingdom on that side also; and a party was sent to dispossess the dukes of the regency, and to confer it upon the duke of Vendôme. The constable, however, who, after the death of the king, was head of the House of Bourbon, went on to Lyons, where he assured the regent that he had no view but for her service, and that he would be ready to obey her every command; upon which she formed a council of the best men of the kingdom, and of this she made him president. The famous Andrew Doria, with the French galleys to take on board the French troops under the duke of Vendôme, whom he landed safely in France. Those who were expelled out of the Milanese also made their return again. Henry VIII. under the influence of the pope, resolved not to oppress the oppressed; and he agreed to a truce with the regent for five years. In Picardy the Flemings were repulsed, and count Guise, with the duke of Lorraine, defeated and cut to pieces the German peasants. In the mean time Francis was detained in captivity in Italy: weary of his confinement in that country, the princes of Italy beginning to cabal for his release, he was carried to Madrid; where,

he was presented to the emperor, and together with the assembly of the notables; to whom he proposed the question, Whether he was bound to perform the treaty of Madrid? or, Whether if he did not perform it, he was obliged in honour to return to Spain? To both these questions, the assembly answered in the negative. When the ambassadors delivered their propositions, Charles treated the English herald with respect, and the French one with contempt; which produced a challenge from Francis to the emperor. See DUEL, § 3. All differences, however, were at last adjusted; and a treaty was concluded at Cambray, on the 21st Aug. 1528. By this treaty, the emperor contented himself with reserving his right to the duchy of Burgundy, and to receive two millions of crowns, as the ransom of the king of France's two sons. Of these he was to receive 1,000,000 in ready money: the prince's lands in Flanders belonging to the house of Bourbon were to be delivered up; these were valued at 400,000 more; and the remaining 400,000 were to be paid by France in discharge of the emperor's debt to England. Francis was likewise to discharge the penalty of 500,000 crowns, which the emperor had incurred, by not marrying his niece the princess Mary of England; and to release a rich *Heur-de-lis* which had been many years before pawned by the house of Burgundy for 50,000 crowns. The town and castle of Hesden were also yielded; together with the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and all the king's pretensions in Italy. As for the allies of France, they were abandoned to the emperor's mercy, without the least stipulation in their favour; and Francis himself protested against the validity of the treaty before he ratified it, as did also his attorney general before he registered it in parliament; but both of them with the greatest secrecy imaginable. Not long after, the war was renewed with Charles V, who made an invasion into France, but with very bad success; nor was peace

the people to their duty without making many examples: the other behaved with the utmost haughtiness and cruelty; and though the king afterwards remitted many of his punishments, yet from that time the constable became odious to the people, while the family of Guise were highly respected. In 1548, the king began to execute the edicts which had been made against the Protestants with the utmost severity; and, thinking even the clergy too mild in the prosecution of heresy, erected for that purpose a chamber composed of members of the parliament of Paris. At the queen's coronation, which happened this year, he caused a number of Protestants to be burned, and was himself present at the spectacle. He was, however, so much shocked, that he could never forget it; but complained, as long as he lived, that, at certain times, it appeared before his eyes, and troubled his understanding. In 1549, a peace being concluded with England, the king purchased Boulogne from the latter, for the sum of 400,000 crowns; one half to be paid on the day of restitution, and the other a few months after. Scotland was included in the treaty, and the English restored some places they had taken there. This was the most advantageous peace that France had hitherto made with England; the vast arrears which were due to that crown being in effect remitted; and the pension which looked so like tribute, not being mentioned, was in fact extinguished. The earl of Warwick himself, who had concluded the peace, was so sensible of the disgrace suffered by his nation on this occasion, that he pretended to be sick, in order to avoid setting his hand to such a scandalous bargain. This year, an edict was made to restrain the extravagant remittances which the clergy had been in use of making to the court of Rome. With this edict pope Julius III. was highly displeased; and in 1550, war was declared by the king of France against the pope and the emperor. The emperor soon found himself in such danger, that he could not support the pope as he intended, who on that account was obliged to sue for peace. After this, the king continued the war against the emperor with success; reducing Toul, Verdun, and Metz. He then entered the country of Alsace, and reduced all the fortresses between Haguenau and Wissemburg. He failed, however, in his attempt on Strasburgh: and was soon after obliged by the German princes and the Swiss to desist from farther conquests on that side. This war continued with very little interruption, and as little success on the part of the French, till 1557, when a peace was concluded; and in 1559, the king was killed at a tournament by the count de Montgomery, one of the strongest knights in France, who had done all he could to avoid this encounter with the king. The reign of his son and successor Francis II. was remarkable only for the persecution of the Protestants, of whom he made a dreadful slaughter; 1200 died by the hands of the executioner; the waters of the Loire were tinged with their blood, and their bodies, being denied burial, tainted the air. He died in his 18th year, and 2d of his reign, A. D. 1560.

(41.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF FRANCIS II. TO THE MASSACRE OF THE PRO-

TESTANTS UNDER CHARLES IX. succeeded his brother in 1560. Th at last took up arms in their own defence, occasioned several civil wars, the first continued till 1562, when a peace was made by which the Protestants were to have religion, and liberty of conscience. In 1562, a new war broke out anew, and was continued with little interruption till 1569, when peace was concluded upon very advantageous terms for the Protestants. After this, king Charles, having taken the government into his hands, persecuted the Protestants in an extraordinary manner. He invited to court the admiral Coligni, who was of the Protestant party; and cajoled him into a perfect security, notwithstanding the many warnings given him by his friends. On the 22d Aug. 1571, as he was walking in the court to his lodgings, he received a blow in the window, which carried away the 2d of his right hand, and wounded him grievously in the left arm. This he ascribed to the duke of Guise, the head of the Catholic party. After dinner, the king went to pay a visit to the admiral, and amongst others made him this speech: "You have received the wound, but do not suffer." This satisfied the admiral of the king's sincerity, and hindered him from complying with the desire of his friends, who would have forced him away, and who were strong enough to have forced a passage out of Paris, if they had attempted it. In the evening, the queen, Catherine de Medicis, held a cabinet council, in which the execution of the massacre of the Protestants, which had been long meditated, was determined. The council, which was composed of the king, the duke of Anjou, the king's brother, the duke of Nevers; Henry of Angoulême, prior of France, and bastard brother of the king; the marshal de Tavannes; and Albert, count de Retz. The direction of the massacre was given to the duke of Guise. The guards were pointed to be in arms, and the city was ordered to dispose the militia to execute the king's command, of which the signal was the ringing of the bells of the Louvre. Some say, that when the king approached, which was that of midnight, he grew undetermined: that he expressed great horror at shedding so much blood, especially considering that the people whom he was to destroy were his subjects, who had a capital at his command, and in consequence of his word; and particularly the admiral, who was detained so lately by his caresses. The queen, however, reproached him with his indecision, and represented to him the great danger that was in from the Protestants; which obliged him to consent. According to the king's order, however, the king himself urged on the execution, and when it was proposed to him to cut off a few of the heads, he cried out, "I will die, let there not be one left to reproach me for breach of faith." As soon as the signal was given, a body of Swiss Catholic troops, headed by the duke of Guise, the chevalier of Angoulême, accompanied by many persons of quality, proceeded to the admiral's house. Having forced open the doors, the foremost of the assassins

ment; and one of them asked if he was. To this he answered that he was; adding, "Young man respect these gray hairs:" the assassin replied by running him through with his sword. The duke of Guise, growing impatient below stairs, to know if the business was done; and finding that it was, commanded that the body be thrown out at the window. As soon as he lay on the ground, the chevalier, or (as some call him) the Duke of Guise, wiping the blood off the sword with his foot. The body was delivered to the fury of the populace; who, tired of indignities, dragged it to the cemetery, to which they chained it by the feet, a being cut off and carried to the queen; who caused it to be embalmed and sent to the king. The king himself went to see the body upon the gibbet; where a fire being kindled, part was burnt. In the Louvre, the king's brother, the king of Navarre and the prince of Conde were murdered under the same roof. Two of them wounded, and pursued by assassins, fled into the bed-chamber of the queen of Navarre, and jumped upon her bed, begging her to save their lives; and as she went to the door, two more, the king's brothers, rushed into the room, and lay themselves at her feet. The queen came to the window to enjoy this dreadful sight; and the king, seeing the Protestants flying on the other side of the river flying, called for his long gun, and fired at them. In 3 or 4 days many thousands were killed in Paris, by the most cruel deaths which could be invented. Peter Ramus, professor of philosophy and mathematics, after having lost all he had, his belly being first open, was thrown out of a window. This affected Denis Lambin, the king's physician, though a zealous Catholic, he died of grief. The first two days the king denied it was his orders, and threw the whole blame upon the Duke of Guise; but, on the 28th of August, he appeared in the parliament, avowed it, was condemned upon it, and directed a process against himself, by which he was stigmatized as a tyrant. Two innocent gentlemen suffered as his accomplices in a pretended plot against the life of the king, in order to set the crown on the head of the prince of Conde. They were executed by the king; and the king and the queen mother, the king of Navarre and the prince of Conde were spectators of this horrid deed; and at the jubilee to thank God for the execution of it.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DIABOLICAL MASSACRE OF THE PROTESTANTS, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES IX. This massacre was confined to the city of Paris alone. On the day of St. Bartholomew, orders had been sent to the governors of provinces to fall upon the Protestants themselves, and to let loose the people upon them; and though an edict was published the end of the week, assuring them of the king's protection, and that he by no means designed to exterminate them because of their religion, yet private orders were sent, of a nature
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directly contrary; in consequence of which, the massacre, or, as, in allusion to the Sicilian vespers; (see ITALY) it was now styled, the *Matins of Paris*, were repeated in Meaux, Orleans, Troyes, Angers, Thoulouse, Rouen, and Lyons; so that in the space of two months 30,000 Protestants were butchered. The next year Rochelle, the only strong fortress which the Protestants held in France, was besieged, but was not taken without the loss of 24,000 Catholics, who besieged it. After this a pacification ensued on terms favourable to the Protestants, but to which they never assented. This year the duke of Alençon was elected king of Poland, and soon after set out to take possession of his new kingdom. The king accompanied him to the frontiers of the kingdom; but during the journey was seized with a slow fever, which had a very dangerous appearance. He lingered for some time under the most terrible agonies both of body and mind; full of remorse, and blood oozing from all the pores of his body. He died on the 30th of May 1572, having lived 33 years, and reigned 13. It is said, that after the dreadful massacre, this prince had a fierceness in his looks, and a colour in his cheeks which he never had before. He slept little, and never sound. He waked frequently in agonies, and was obliged to have soldiers to compose him again to rest.

(43.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF HENRY III. During the first years of the reign of Henry III. who succeeded his brother Charles, the war with the Protestants was carried on with indifferent success on the part of the Catholics. In 1575, a peace was concluded, called by way of eminence the *Edict of Pacification*. This edict gave occasion to the Guises to form an association in defence, as was pretended, of the Catholic religion, afterwards known by the name of the *Catholic League*. In this league, though the king was mentioned with respect, he could not help seeing that it struck at the very root of his authority: for, as the Protestants had already their chiefs, so the Catholics were, for the future, to depend entirely upon the chief of the league; and well, by the very words of it, to execute whatever he commanded, for the good of the state, against any, without exception of persons. The king to avoid the bad effects of this, by the advice of his council, declared himself head of the league; and of consequence recommenced the war against the Protestants, which was not extinguished as long as he lived. The faction of the Duke of Guise, in the mean time took a resolution of supporting Charles cardinal of Bourbon, a weak old man, as presumptive heir of the crown. In 1584, they entered into a league with Spain, and took up arms against the king; and though peace was concluded the same year, yet in 1587, they again proceeded to such extremities, that the king was forced to fly from Paris. Another reconciliation was soon after effected: but it is generally believed that the king from this time resolved on the destruction of Guise. Accordingly, finding that this nobleman still behaved towards him with his usual insolence, the king caused him to be murdered, as he was coming into his presence, by his guards, on the 23d Dec. 1587. The king himself died . . .

long survive him; being stabbed by one James Clement, a Jacobine monk, on the first of August 1589. His wound at first was not thought mortal; but his frequent swooning quickly discovered his danger; and he died next morning, in the 39th year of his age, and 16th of his reign.

(44.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF HENRY IV. Before the king's death, he nominated Henry Bourbon, king of Navarre, to be his successor, but as he was a Protestant, or at least greatly favoured their cause, he was at first owned by very few except those of the Protestant party. He met with the most violent opposition from the members of the Catholic league; and was often reduced to such straits, that he went to people's houses under colour of visits, when in reality he had not a dinner in his own. By his activity and perseverance, however, he was at last acknowledged throughout the kingdom, to which his abjuration of the Protestant religion, no doubt, contributed. As the king of Spain had laid claim to the crown of France, Henry, no sooner found himself in a fair way of being firmly seated on the throne, than he formally declared war against that kingdom; in which he at last proved successful, and in 1597 entered upon the quiet possession of his kingdom. The king's first care was to put an end to the religious disputes which had so long distracted the kingdom. For this purpose, he granted the famous edict, dated at Nantes, April 13, 1598. Soon after, he concluded peace with Spain upon very advantageous terms. This gave him an opportunity of restoring order and justice throughout his dominions; of repairing all the ravages occasioned by the civil war; and abolishing all those innovations which had been made, either to the prejudice of the prerogatives of the crown or the welfare of the people. His plans of reformation, indeed, he intended to carry beyond the boundaries of France. If we may believe the duke of Sully, he had in view no less a design than the new-modelling of all Europe. He imagined that the European powers might be formed into a kind of Christian republic, by rendering them as nearly as possible of equal strength; and that this republic might be maintained in perpetual peace, by bringing all their differences to be decided before a senate of wise, disinterested, and able judges; and then he thought it would be no difficult matter to overturn the Ottoman empire. With a view, it is now thought, of executing this grand project, but under pretence of reducing the exorbitant power of the house of Austria, Henry made immense preparations both by sea and land; but if he really had such a design, he was prevented by death from attempting to execute it. He was stabbed in his coach by one Ravillac, a friar, on the 12th of May, 1610.

(45.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS XIII. On the murder of Henry IV. the queen mother assumed the regency. Ravillac was executed after suffering severe tortures. It is said that he made a confession, which was so written by the party who took it down, that not one word of it could ever be read, and thus his instigators and accomplices could never be discovered. The regency during the minority of Lewis XIII. was a scene of cabals and

intrigues of the courtiers. In 1617, the king assumed the government himself, banished the queen mother to Blois, caused her favourite minister d'Ancre to be killed, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu. In 1620, a war broke out between the Catholics and Protestants, which was carried on with the greatest fury on both sides. Both parties soon became weary of such a destructive war; and a peace was concluded in 1621, by which the edict of Nantes was confirmed. This treaty, however, was of no long duration. A new war broke out, which lasted till the year 1628, when the edict of Nantes was again confirmed; only the Protestants were deprived of all their cautionary towns, and consequently of the power of defending the frontier in time to come. This put an end to the wars on account of religion in France. It is estimated, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were expended in carrying them on; and that 9 cities, 40 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 100,000 houses, were burnt or otherwise destroyed during their continuance. The next year, the king was attacked with a slow fever which nothing could allay, an extreme depression of spirits, and a disgusting swelling in his stomach and belly. A year after, however, he recovered, to the great disappointment of his mother, who had been full of hopes of regaining her power. She was arrested but escaped into Flanders, where she remained during the rest of this reign. Richelieu, by his masterly train of politics, though himself was to an enthusiast for popery, supported the Protestants of Germany and Gustavus Adolphus against the house of Austria; and, after quelling all rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, died some months before Lewis XIII. in 1641.

(46.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS XIV. Lewis XIV. surnamed *the Great*, succeeded to the throne when only five years of age. During his minority, the kingdom was torn by factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a Protestant had turned Papist. The war of France was involved at once in civil and foreign wars; but the queen mother having made choice of Cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and so divided the domestic enemies of the court, that when Lewis assumed the government into his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever reigned upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the treasury, commerce, and manufactures of France, which he carried to a surprising height. The minister, ignorant and vain, was blind to the patriotic duty of a king, promoting the interests of his subjects only to answer the purposes of greatness; and by his ambition he embroiled

th all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered many a dismal scene of devastation. By politic and unjust revocation of the edict of 1685, with the dragging the Protestants that followed it, (see DRAGOONING,) he led many to take shelter in England, Holland, several parts of Germany, where they established manufactories, to the great prejudice of France. He was so blinded by flattery, that he attributed to himself the divine honours paid to pagan emperors of Rome. He made and treated for his conveniency: and in the united himself a confederacy of almost all the princes of Europe; at the head of which was King William III. He was so well served that he made head for some years against this; and France seemed to have attained the height of military glory, under the conduct of renowned generals Conde and Turenne. (UNITED PROVINCES.) At length, having deceived the English by his repeated infidelities, was under the duke of Marlborough, and the Austrians under prince Eugene, rendering the latter part of Lewis's life as miserable as the beginning of it was splendid. His reign from 1688 to 1711, was one continued series of calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which, the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expense of many thousand lives. (See ENGLAND—75.) Just as he was reduced, old and feeble, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people and dying at their head, he was deserted by the English Tory ministry deserting the king, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding peace of Utrecht in 1713. The last years of his reign were all embittered by domestic troubles; which, added to those he had already experienced of a public nature, impressed him with a morbid melancholy. He had been for some time afflicted with a fistula; which, though successful, never afterwards affected his health. The day before the peace, his only son, the duke of Burgundy, died, together with the duchess and their son; and the only remaining child was at the point of death. The king himself survived the month of Sept. 1715; but on the 1st of that month expired, leaving the kingdom to his great-grandson Lewis, then a minor.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE REIGN OF LEWIS XV. By the last will of Lewis XIV. he bequeathed the regency during the minority of his grandson, upon a council, at the head of which was the duke of Orleans. That nobleman, disgusted with a disposition which gave him no casting vote, appealed to the parliament at Paris, who set aside the will of the late king and declared him sole regent. His first acts were extremely popular. He restored to parliament the right of remonstrating against the edicts of the crown, and forced those who had enriched themselves during the former reign to restore their estates. He also took every method to efface the marks occasioned by the unsuccessful wars of his predecessor had engaged; promoted commerce and agriculture; and, by a close alliance with Great Britain and the United Provinces, to lay the foundation of a lasting tranquil-

lity. This happy prospect, however, was soon overcast by the intrigues of Alberoni the Spanish minister, who had formed a design of recovering Sardinia from the emperor, Sicily from the duke of Savoy, and of establishing the house of Stuart on the throne of Britain. To accomplish these purposes, he negotiated with the Ottoman Porte, Peter the Great of Russia, and Charles XII. of Sweden; the Turks intended to resume the war against the emperor; the two latter to invade Great Britain. But as long as the duke of Orleans retained the administration of France, he found it impossible to bring his schemes to bear. To remove him, therefore, he fomented divisions in the kingdom. An insurrection took place in Brittany; and Alberoni sent small parties in disguise into the country, to support the insurgents, and even laid plots to seize the regent himself. All of a sudden, however, the Spanish minister found himself disappointed in every one of his schemes. His partisans in France were put to death; the king of Sweden was killed at Frederickshall, in Norway; the Czar, intent on making new regulations, could not be persuaded to make war upon Britain; and the Turks refused to engage in a war with the emperor, from whom they had lately suffered so much. The cardinal, nevertheless, continued his intrigues: which quickly produced a war betwixt Spain on the one part, and France and Britain on the other. The Spaniards, unable to resist the union of two such formidable powers, were soon reduced to the necessity of suing for peace; and the terms were dictated by the regent of France; and of these the dismissal of Alberoni the Spanish minister was one. A double marriage was now set on foot: the duke of Orleans gave his own daughter Mad. Montpensier, to Don Lewis prince of Asturias, while the infant of Spain was betrothed to her cousin the king of France. From this time the house of Bourbon continued united; both princes being convinced, that it was their interest not to waste their strength in wars against each other. The spirit of conquest having now greatly subsided, and that of commerce taken place throughout the world in general, France became the scene of as remarkable a project in the commercial way as ever was known in any country. John Law, a Scots projector, of uncommon genius, (see LAW,) proposed the plan of a company which might by notes pay off the debt of the nation, and reimburse itself by the profits. The nation being at this time involved in a debt of 200 millions, the regent as well as the people in general were very fond of embarking in his new scheme. The bank was established in 1716, and proceeded at first with some caution; but having by degrees extended their credit to more than 80 times their real stock, they soon became unable to answer their demands: so that the company was dissolved in 1720, the 4th year after it had been instituted. The confusion into which the kingdom was thrown by this fatal scheme, required the utmost exertions of the regent to put a stop to it; and the king, in 1723, took the government into his own hands. The duke then became minister; but he did not long enjoy this post. His irregularities had broken his constitu-

tion, and brought on a number of maladies, under which he soon sunk, and was succeeded in his administration by the duke of Bourbon Conde. The king had been married, when very young, to the infanta of Spain, but the marriage had never been consummated. The princess, however, had been brought to Paris, and for some time treated as queen of France; but as Lewis grew up, he contracted an inveterate hatred against the intended partner of his bed. The minister therefore, at last consented that the princess should be sent back; an affront so much resented by the queen her mother, that it had almost produced a war betwixt the two nations. The dissolution of the marriage of Lewis was the last act of Conde's administration; and the procuring of a new match was the first act of his successor, Cardinal Fleury. The princess pitched upon was the daughter of Stanislaus Leszinski, king of Poland; who had been deposed by Charles XII. of Sweden. This princess was destitute of personal charms, but of an amiable disposition; and though, perhaps, she never possessed the love of her husband, her excellent qualities commanded his esteem; and the birth of a prince, soon after their marriage, removed all fears concerning the succession.

(48.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XV. TILL THE FAMILY COMPACT. Cardinal Fleury continued the pacific schemes pursued by his predecessors; though they were somewhat interrupted by the war which took place in 1733. Notwithstanding the connection betwixt that monarch and the French nation, however, Fleury was so parsimonious in his assistance, that only 2500 soldiers were sent to relieve Dantzic, where Stanislaus himself resided, and who at that time was besieged by the Russians. This pitiful reinforcement was soon overwhelmed by a multitude of Russians; and Stanislaus was at last obliged to renounce the crown of Poland, though he was permitted to retain the title of king: and that this title might not be merely nominal, the king of France bestowed upon him the duchies of Bar and Lorraine; so that, after his death, these territories were again united to the dominions of France. Fleury steadily pursued his pacific plans; the disputes between Spain and England, in 1737, very little affected the peace of that kingdom; and it must be remembered to his praise, that instead of fomenting quarrels betwixt the neighbouring states, he laboured to keep them at peace. He reconciled the Genoese and Corsicans: and his mediation was accepted by the Ottoman Porte, who carried on a successful war with the Emperor of Germany, but made peace with him at the cardinal's intercession. All his endeavours to preserve the general peace, however, proved at last ineffectual. The death of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, set all Europe in a flame. The emperor's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, claimed the Austrian succession. Among the many competitors who pretended a right to share these extensive dominions, the king of France was one. But as he wished not to awaken the jealousy of the European princes by preferring directly his own pretensions, he chose rather to support those of Frederick II. who laid claim to Silesia. This brought on the war of 1740, of which an account

will be found under ENGLAND, § 80, & PRUSSIA. It was terminated in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; but to this Lewis secretly meditated a severe vengeance against, only consented, that he might have recruit his fleet and put himself somewhat upon an equality with that formidable monarch. But while he meditated great exploits of this kind, the internal tranquillity of his kingdom was disturbed by violent disputes betwixt the parliaments of France. In the reign of Lewis there had been violent contests betwixt the Jesuits and Jesuits, and the opinions of the Jesuits had been declared heretical by the celebrated bull named *Unigenitus*; the reception of which was enforced by the king, in opposition to the parliaments, the archbishop of Paris, and to the people. The archbishop with the prelates protested against it. The duke of Orleans favoured the bull by inducing the bishops to submit to it; but at the same time stopped the execution which was going on against its opponents. Thus matters passed over till the conclusion of the peace; soon after which the jealousy of the king was awakened by the minister attempting to acquire into the wealth of individuals of the kingdom. To prevent this, they revived the contest about the bull *Unigenitus*; and it was resolved, that professional notes should be obtained of dying persons, that these notes should be signed by priests, who maintained the authority of the bull; and without such notes, no person could obtain the sacrament, or extreme unction. On this occasion the new archbishop and the parliament took opposite sides: the latter imprisoned some of the clergy as refused to administer the sacraments. Other parliaments followed the example of Paris; and a war was instantly kindled between the civil and ecclesiastical departments of the kingdom. In this dispute the king interfered, for he commanded the parliaments to take cognizance of the ecclesiastical proceedings, and commanded them to suspend all prosecutions relative to the refusal of the sacraments; but instead of acquiescing, they presented new remonstrances, refused to attend to any other business, and resolved they could not obey this injunction without violating their duty as well as their oath. They presented the archbishop of Orleans before their tribunal, and ordered all writings, in which his jurisdiction was disputed, to be burnt by the executioner. In the assistance of the military, they enforced the administration of the sacraments to the sick, and to distribute that justice to the subject which they had been originally instituted. They enraged at their obstinacy, arrested and imprisoned four members who had been most obstinately banished the rest to Bourges, Poitiers, and Angers; while, to prevent any impediment to the administration of justice by their absence, letters patent, by which a royal chamber was created for the prosecution of civil and criminal suits was issued. The counsellors refused to plead before these new courts; and the king, finding that the nation was about to fall into a state of anarchy, recalled the parliament. The banished members entered Paris amidst the acclamations of the people; and the archbishop, who still

rage the priests in refusing the sacraments, fled to his seat at Conflans; the bishops of Sens and Troyes were also banished, and their see established; but it was of no long duration. In 1756, the parliament again fell under the censure of the king, by their imprudent persecution of those who adhered to the bull *Unigenitus*. They even refused to register the taxes for carrying on the war. By this Lewis provoked, that he suppressed the 4th and 5th orders of inquest, the members of which acquitted themselves by their opposition. He ordered the bull *Unigenitus* to be respected, prohibited the secular judges from ordering the administration of the sacraments. On this, 15 members of the great chamber resigned their offices, and 124 members of the different parliaments followed their example: and the most grievous disorders took place throughout the kingdom. The attempt was made by a fanatic, named *Damien*, to assassinate the king; and he was actually killed, though slightly, between the ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his

The assassin was put to the most exquisite tortures; in the midst of which he persisted, in the most obstinate manner, to declare that he had no intention to kill the king; but that his design was only to wound him, that God might enlighten his heart, and incline him to restore peace to the dominions, &c. These expressions, which evidently indicated insanity, had no effect on the judges, who consigned him to one of the most horrid deaths the ingenuity and cruelty of man could invent. This attempt, however, though it had some effect upon the king, as he afterwards banished the archbishop of Paris, and he had been recalled, and accommodated with his parliament once more. The unfortunate issue of the war of 1755, had brought the nation to the brink of ruin, when Lewis implored the assistance of Spain; and on this occasion, the *United Family Compact* was signed; by which, the single exception of the American trade, between France and Spain were naturalized in both kingdoms, and the enemy of the one soon was invariably to be looked upon as the enemy of the other. At that time, however, the assistance of Spain availed very little; both powers were reduced to the lowest ebb, and the arms of France were triumphant in every quarter of the

See ENGLAND, § 82, 83.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XV. TO HIS DEATH. The peace concluded at Fontenoy in 1763, though it freed the nation from a destructive and bloody war, did not restore internal tranquillity. The parliament, eager to sue for the victory they had formerly gained over their religious enemies, now directed their efforts against the Jesuits, who had obtained and registered the bull, *Unigenitus*. That once powerful order, however, was now on the brink of dissolution. A general detestation of its members had taken place throughout the whole world. A party formed by them against the king of France, and from which he narrowly escaped, increased the indignation of Europe, and this was further inflamed by some fraudulent practices of which they had been guilty in France.

Le Valette, the chief of their missionaries at Martinico, had, ever since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, carried on a very extensive commerce, insomuch that he even aspired at monopolizing the whole West India trade, when the war with Britain commenced in 1755. Leonay and Gouffre, merchants at Marseilles, in expectation of receiving merchandizes to the value of two millions from him, had accepted of bills drawn by the Jesuits to the amount of a million and an half. Unhappily they were disappointed by the vast number of captures made by the British; in consequence of which they were obliged to apply to the Society of Jesuits at large: but they, either ignorant of their true interest, or too slow in giving assistance, suffered the merchants to stop payment. Their creditors demanded indemnification from the society at large; and on their refusal to satisfy them, brought their cause before the parliament of Paris. That body, eager to revenge themselves on such powerful adversaries, carried on the most violent prosecutions against them. In the course of these, the volume containing the constitution and government of the order itself was appealed to, and produced in open court. It then appeared, that the order of Jesuits formed a direct body in the state, submitting implicitly to their chief, who alone was absolute over their lives and fortunes. It was likewise discovered that they had, after a former expulsion, been admitted into the kingdom upon conditions which they had never fulfilled; and to which their chief had obstinately refused to subscribe; consequently that their existence at that time in the nation was merely the effect of toleration. The event was, that the writings of the Jesuits were pronounced to contain doctrines subversive of all civil government, and injurious to the security of the sacred persons of sovereigns; the attempt of *Damien* against the king was attributed to them, and every thing seemed to prognosticate their speedy dissolution. In this critical moment, however, the king interfered, and by his royal mandate suspended all proceedings against them for a year; a plan of accommodation was drawn up, and submitted to the pope and general of the order: but the latter, by his ill-timed haughtiness, entirely overthrew the hope of reconciliation. The king withdrew his protection, and the parliament redoubled their efforts against them. The bulls, briefs, constitutions, and other regulations of the Society, were determined to be encroachments on authority, and abuses of government; the Society itself was finally dissolved, and its members declared incapable of holding any clerical or municipal offices; their colleges were seized; their effects confiscated; and the order annihilated. The parliament having gained this victory, next made an attempt to set bounds to the power of the king himself. They now refused to register an edict which Lewis had issued for the continuance of some taxes which should have ended with the war, and likewise to conform to another, by which the king was enabled to redeem his debts at an inadequate price. The court attempted to get the edicts registered by force, but the parliament everywhere seemed inclined to resist to the last. In 1766, the parliament of Brittany refused the crown a gift of

900,000 livres; in consequence of which, they were singled out to bear the weight of royal vengeance; but while matters were just coming to extremities, the king dropt the process altogether, and published a general amnesty. The parliaments, however, affected to despise the royal clemency; which exasperated the king to such a degree, that he ordered the counsellors of the parliament of Brittany (who had refused to resume the functions of which he deprived them) to be included in the list of those who were to be drafted for militia; and those upon whom the lot fell were immediately obliged to join their respective regiments; the rest being employed in forming the city guard. The parliament of Paris remonstrated so freely upon this conduct of the king, that they also fell under his censure; and Lewis in the most explicit manner declared, that he would suffer no earthly power to interfere with his will; and the parliaments were thus intimidated into submission. The interval of domestic tranquillity was employed by the king in humbling the pride of the pope, who refused to recall a brief he had published against the duke of Parma. On this the French monarch reclaimed the territories of Avignon and Venaissin; and while the pontiff denounced his unavailing censures against him, the marquis de Rochecouart, with a single regiment of soldiers, drove out the troops of the pope, and took possession of these territories. A more formidable opposition was made by the natives of the small island of Corsica; the sovereignty of which had been transferred to France by the Genoese, its former masters, on the condition that Lewis should reinstate them in the possession of the island of Capraria, which the Corsicans had lately reduced. These islanders defended themselves with the most desperate intrepidity; and it was not till after two campaigns, in which several thousands of the bravest troops of France were lost, that they could be brought under subjection. The satisfaction which this unimportant conquest might afford to Lewis, was clouded by the distress of the nation at large. The East India Company had totally failed, and most of the capital commercial houses in the kingdom were involved in the same calamity. The minister, the duke of Choiseuil, by one desperate stroke, reduced the interest of the funds to one half, and at the same time took away the benefit of the survivorship in the tontines, by which the national credit was greatly affected; the altercation betwixt the king and his parliaments revived, and the dissensions became worse than ever. Choiseuil attempted in vain to conciliate the differences; his efforts tended only to bring misfortunes upon himself, and, in 1771, he was banished by the king, who suspected him of favouring the popular party too much. This was soon followed by the banishment of the whole parliament of Paris, and that by the banishment of others; new parliaments being everywhere chosen in place of those who had been expelled. The people were by no means disposed to pay the same regard to these new parliaments that they had done to the old ones; but every appearance of opposition was at last silenced by the absolute authority of the king. In the midst of this plenitude of power, however, which he had so abun-

dently desired, his health daily declined, and a period of his days was evidently at no great distance. As he had indulged himself in sensuality to the greatest excess, they now proved the immediate means of his destruction. His favourite mistress, Madame de Pompadour, who had governed him with absolute sway, had long been dead, and the king had for some time been equally enslaved by the charms of Madame de Barre. At last even her beauty proved insufficient to excite desire; and a succession of mistresses became necessary to rouse the languid appetite of the king. One of these, who was infected with the small-pox, communicated the disease to the king; who died of it, notwithstanding all the assistance given him by the physicians.

(50.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI. TILL THE AMERICAN TREATY. LEWIS XVI. succeeded his grandfather, in 1774, at the 20th year of his age; and to secure himself against the disease which had proved fatal to his predecessor, submitted to inoculation, with several others of the royal family. Their quick and recovery contributed much to extend that practice throughout the kingdom, and to remove prejudices against it. The king had no sooner regained his health, than he applied himself gently to extinguish the differences which had taken place between his predecessor and the parliaments. He removed those from their employments who had given cause of complaint by their arbitrary and oppressive conduct; and he conciliated the affections of his subjects, by removing the new parliaments and recalling the old ones. But though the prudence of Lewis had suggested to him these measures, he endeavoured still to preserve pure and entire the royal authority. He explained his intentions by a speech in the great chamber of the parliament, which he concluded thus: "That it was his desire to bury in oblivion all grievances; that he should ever behold with extreme disapprobation whatever might tend to create divisions and disturb the general tranquillity; and that his successor would read his ordinance to the assembly from which they might be assented he would suffer the smallest deviation to be made." This ordinance was conceived in the most explicit terms, and was immediately registered by the king's command. The articles of it limited within very narrow bounds the pretensions of the parliaments of Paris: The members were forbidden to look upon themselves as one body with the other parliaments of the kingdom, or to take any step, or assume any title, that might tend towards or imply an union: They were enjoined never to interfere in the administration of public justice, except in the cases of absolute necessity, for which the first president was to be responsible to the king, and it was added, that on their disobedience the Grand Council might displace the parliaments without any new edict. They were still however permitted to enjoy the right of remonstrating, before the registering of any edicts or letters patent, which they might conceive injurious to the welfare of the people, provided they served in their representations the respect due to the throne. But these remonstrances were not to be repeated; and the parliament, if they pre-

, were to register the edict objected to month at farthest from the first day of its issued. They were forbidden to issue which might excite trouble, or in any tard the execution of the king's ordinance they were assured by the king himself, that as long as they adhered to be prescribed, they might depend upon cenance and protection. In short, the which Lewis consented to re-establishments were such, that they were reduced cyphers, and the word of the king used to be the only law in the kingdom. bishop of Paris, who had likewise praised some commotions about the bulls, was obliged to submit; and severely if he should afterwards interfere in such. The final conquest of the Corsicans, voted by the oppression of their government more attempted to regain their liberty the first event of importance which took place this restoration of tranquillity; but the was yet filled with disorder from other scarcity of corn happening to take place at the time that some regulations had been made by M. Turgot, the new financier, the police in great bodies, and committed such that a military force became absolutely to quell them; and it was not till upwards of 500 of them were destroyed, that they were reduced. The king, however, by his bold and vigorous conduct on this occasion, a stop to all riots, and eminently displaying energy as well as prudence in the measures taken for the restoration of the public tranquillity. The humanity of Lewis was next manifested by an edict which he caused to be registered, sentencing the deserters of his army not to work as slaves on the public roads, but punishing them as formerly with death; and giving equal attention to the welfare of his subjects. He seized the moment of peace to fulfil those views of economy, which on his accession he had proposed to his people. Various regulations took place in consequence; particularly the suppression of the *Mulquetaires* and some other corps, being more adapted to the parade of guard than to any real military service, supported at a great expence, without any return of benefit to the state. Particular attention was also paid to the marine; and the appointment of M. de Sartine in 1776, to that office, did honour to the penetration of the king. That minister, fruitful in resources, carried in his application, was incessantly engaged in augmenting the naval strength of his kingdom; and the various preparations that filled the harbours and docks, created no small uneasiness in the English court. The next appointment made in the navy was equally happy, and in one regular and unprecedented. M. Turgot, possessed of integrity and industry, had been able to command the public confidence. In 1776, M. Clugny, intendant general of the navy, had been elevated to the vacant post; and soon after, M. Taboureaux des Reaux

was appointed his successor; and the king associated with him in the management of the finances M. Neckar, by birth a Swiss, and by religion a Protestant. That gentleman, in the preceding reign, had been chosen to adjust some differences between the East India company and the crown; and had discharged his trust in a manner which gained the approbation of both parties. Possessed of distinguished abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of her revenue. It was a new instance of enlargement of mind and liberality of sentiment; and will to posterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis XVI. Although the king was of a pacific disposition, and not destitute of generosity of sentiment, yet his own and the public exultation had been openly and constantly proportioned to the success of the Americans in their contest with Britain: the princes of the blood and chief nobility were eager to embark in support of the cause of freedom; and the prudence of the king and his most confidential ministers alone restrained their ardour. The fatal events of the former war were still impressed on the mind of Lewis; and he could not readily consent to expose his infant marine in a contest with a nation who had so long asserted the dominion of the seas, and so lately broken the united strength of the house of Bourbon. At the same time, he was sensible, that the opportunity of humbling the British court should not be entirely neglected, and that some advantages should be taken of the commotions in America. Two agents from the United States, Silas Deane and Dr Franklin, had successively arrived at Paris; and though all audience was denied them in a public capacity, still they were privately encouraged to hope, that France only waited the proper opportunity to vindicate by arms the independence of America. In the mean time, the American cruizers were hospitably received into the French ports: artillery and all kinds of warlike stores were freely sold or liberally granted to the colonists; and officers and engineers, with the connivance of government, entered into their service. Some changes were about this time introduced into the different departments of state. The conduct of M. Neckar in the finances had been attended with universal approbation; and M. Taboureaux des Reaux, his colleague, had resigned, but still retained the dignity of counsellor of state. To afford full scope to the genius of M. Neckar, Lewis determined no longer to clog him with an associate; but, with the title of Director General of the Finances, submitted to him the entire management of the funds and revenue of France. In the following year, count St Germain, secretary at war, died; and the prince of Montbarey, who had already filled an inferior situation in that department, was appointed to succeed him. In the mean time, Lewis's negotiations with foreign courts were not neglected. He concluded a new treaty of alliance with Switzerland; vigilantly observed the motions of the different princes of Germany on the death of the elector of Bavaria; and when questioned by the English

English ambassador, Lord Stormont, respecting the various warlike preparations which were diligently continued through the kingdom, he replied, That at a time when the seas were covered with English fleets and American cruizers, and when such armies were sent to the New World as had never before appeared there, it became prudent for him also to arm for the security of the colonies, and the protection of the commerce, of France. The king was sensible at the same time, that the remonstrances of Great Britain, and the importunities of the United States, would soon compel him to adopt some decisive line of conduct. This was hastened by the capture of Gen. Burgoyne's army. See AMERICA, § 28, 29. The news of that event were received at Paris with unbounded exultation. M. Sartine, the marine superintendant, was eager to measure the naval strength of France with that of Great Britain; the queen, who had long seconded the applications of the American agents, espoused their cause with fresh ardour; and the pacific inclinations of Lewis being overborn, by the suggestions of his ministers and his queen, he at length determined openly to acknowledge the independence of the United States. Dr Franklin and Silas Deane were now acknowledged as public ambassadors from those states to the court of Versailles; and a treaty of amity and commerce was signed between the two powers, in February 1778.

(51.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TILL THE GENERAL PEACE, IN 1783. The duke of Naoilles, ambassador to the court of London, was in March instructed to acquaint that court with the above treaty. At the same time he declared, that the contracting parties had not stipulated any exclusive advantages in favour of France, and that the United States had reserved the liberty of treating with every nation whatever on the same footing of equality and reciprocity. But this stipulation was treated by the British court with contempt; and the recall of Lord Stormont, their ambassador at Versailles, was the signal for the commencement of hostilities.—The events produced by this war will be found under the articles AMERICA, § 29—33; ENGLAND, § 98, 99, 102—104, 106; and INDOSTAN. Here we have chiefly to notice domestic transactions, the measures of the cabinet, and the internal economy of the state. In 1780, new changes in the French ministry took place. M. Bertin had resigned the office of secretary of state; the prince de Montbarey had retired from the post of secretary at war, and was succeeded by the marquis de Segur. But the most important removal was that of M. Sartine, who had for several years presided over the marine department, and whose unwearied application and ability had raised the naval power of France to a height that astonished Europe: but his colleagues in the cabinet loudly accused a profusion, which would have diverted into one channel the whole resources of the kingdom; and his retreat opened a road to the ambition of the marquis de Castries, who was appointed to supply his place. This year, the king fixed on the anniversary of his birth-day to render it memorable by a new instance of humanity, in abolishing for ever the inhuman custom of *putting the*

question, as it was called, by torture; which had been so established by the pages, that it seemed to be an inseparable constitution of the courts of justice. At the same time, to defray the charge he continued to diminish his own exp and sacrificing his magnificence to the his subjects, dismissed at once above 40 belonging to his court. Unhappily, the public discontents were excited near the dismissal of their favourite minister. He had conceived the arduous but popular of supporting a war by loans without the rigid economy which he had introduced all the departments of the royal household the various resources that presented themselves his fertile genius, had supported him against the difficulties that attended this system. Bitterness of temper had not rendered him acceptable to the sovereign and his subjects repeated reforms he had recommended presented as inconsistent with the dignity of the crown: he was therefore in 1781 dismissed his office of comptroller-general; and M. Fleuri, counsellor of state, was appointed to that important department. The defeat of de Grasse happened next year, and impregnated the kingdom with general grief and confidence. Immense preparations were, however, made for the operations of 1783, and in conjunction with the courts of Madrid and the Hague, Lewis determined this year to make the most efforts to bring the war to a conclusion. In the midst of these preparations, the voice of peace was again heard; and Lewis was induced to the proffered mediation of the two great powers in Europe, the emperor of Germany and the empress of Russia. The court of Versailles, who still occupied the post of secretary of state, was appointed to treat with M. de Soubert, the British minister at Brussels, who lately proceeded to Paris to conduct the important negotiation. The way was already prepared for the restoration of the public tranquillity by provisional articles signed at the conclusion of the war between the States of America and Great Britain, and which were to constitute a treaty of commerce to be concluded when that between France and Great Britain took place. Preliminary articles were accordingly agreed upon and signed at Versailles; which were soon after succeeded by the definitive treaty of peace in 1783.

(52.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE ASSEMBLY OF THE NOTABLES. Though the late war had been attended with most brilliant success, and the independence of America seemed to strike deep at the power of her rival's power, yet France herself had not been entirely free from inconvenience. The M. Necker had diminished the public credit by 3 different persons, who had since occupied the post, increased the jealousies of the people, and the failure of the celebrated CAISSE D'ESCOMPTE completed the universal consternation. The plan had been established in 1776. The plan was formed by a company of private adventurers, its capital was fixed at 500,000 l. sterling, and the professed design of the Company was to

short dates, at the rate of 4 per cent per annum: but as this interest could never be an encumbrance on the capital sunk by the proprietors, and was not without the additional power of interest to the amount of their capital, which, were capable of being converted into specie, it was often voluntarily taken by their owners from mere convenience. The reputation was soon raised its stock to sell above par; and it was still at the highest, when, to the shame of the nation, it suddenly stopped on the 2d Oct. 1783. The cause assigned was the extreme scarcity of specie: But the real cause was that the failure arose from a loan made to government; and what confirmation was, that government about the same time stopped payment of the bills drawn upon by their army in America. Whatever the cause of this event, the king was prevailed upon to extend his protection to the company. Subsequent edicts the banks in Paris were ordered to receive the notes of the *Caisse d'Escompte*; and a lottery with a stock of one million, redeemable in 3 years, being sold, the tickets were made purchasable in the *Caisse d'Escompte*. By these expedients public confidence in that bank was restored, and its stock rose to double the original subscription; the bills drawn were at the same time put in a payment, and public credit was restored to the kingdom. Some compensation for expenses that had been incurred during the war, was drawn from a treaty with the States of America. These engaged to repay France in the sum of 16 millions of livres, which had been advanced in the hour of distress; and Lewis consented to receive the same in conversion to the States, in the form of annuities, by 12 equal and annual payments. The general peace was soon after followed by a treaty between France and Holland, which was effected with great address by the Duke of Nemours. It included all the principles which have to cement in the closest union two nations under distinct governments: which they may mutually participate, in time of war, of good or of evil; and in all render the most perfect aid, counsel, and assistance to each other. It also prescribed, if their joint efforts for the preservation of peace were ineffectual, the assistance they were to render each other by sea and land. France was to furnish Holland with 10,000 effective infantry, 12 ships of the line and 6 frigates. Their High Mightinesses, on the other hand, were to contribute to her defence by sea, were to contribute to her defence by land, and 3 frigates; and in case of attack on the territory of France, the naval force were to have the option of turning out a contingent either in money or troops, to the amount of 5000 infantry and 1000 cavalry. If the stipulated succours should be insufficient for the defence of the party attacked, or for the defence of the party attacked, or for the defence of the party attacked, they engaged to assist each other with all their forces, if necessary; however agreed that the contingent of

troops to be furnished by the States general should not exceed 20,000 infantry and 4000 cavalry. It was further added, that neither of the contracting powers should disarm, or make or receive proposals of peace or truce, without the consent of the other: they promised also not to contract any alliance or engagement whatever, directly, or indirectly, contrary to the present treaty; and on any treaties or negotiations being proposed which might prove detrimental to their joint interest, they pledged their faith to give notice to each other of such proposals as soon as made. Thus Holland became the firm ally of that power against which she had formerly aimed the most powerful kingdoms of Europe; while France supporting America against Great Britain, and converting a formidable foe into a useful friend, seemed to have attained a political influence she had never before been possessed of. Notwithstanding these appearances, the seeds of future contention were already sown. The parliament of Paris had taught the people to look with a less envious eye on the lustre of the throne; the war in America had enlarged their political ideas; they had stood forth as the champions of liberty, in opposition to regal power. From this time, instead of blindly acquiescing under the edict of their sovereign, they canvassed each act with candour and impartiality. The dismissal of M. Necker had given very great dissatisfaction to the public; his successor in office, M. de Fleury, had resigned in 1777, and the transient administration of M. d'Orléans had expired in the same year that gave it birth. On his retreat, M. de Calonne was nominated comptroller general. Though acceptable to the sovereign, he did not enter upon his arduous station favoured by the breath of popularity. The bold and judicious measures of Calonne, however, restored credit to the *Caisse d'Escompte* which had stopped payment a few weeks before his accession. His next measure, in 1784, the establishment of the *Caisse d'Amortissement*, or sinking fund, was intended to a still higher degree of applause. The principal measure of 1785, was the establishment of a New India Company; a measure not equally commendable with the preceding, and which therefore excited violent complaints. Although peace had been re-established throughout Europe for 3 years, yet the finances of France seemed scarcely affected by this interval of tranquillity, and it was found requisite to close every year with a loan. The treaty of commerce, which was concluded in 1771 with Great Britain, proved a new source of discontent. It was represented as likely to extinguish those infant establishments, which were yet unable to vie with the manufactures of England that had attained to maturity; and the market that it held out for the wines and oils of France was passed over to France, while the duties of the tariff was paid in the most sinking columns. But when the edict for registering the law of the conclusion of the year, and which amounted to the sum of 3,435,000 *livres* was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, through the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable aspect. The king however signified, that he expected to be obeyed without

farther delay. The ceremony of the registering accordingly took place on the next day; but it was accompanied with a resolution, importing, "that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessities of the state, and restoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin." The king was no sooner informed of this step, than he commanded the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; when he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and observed, that though it was his pleasure that the parliament should communicate, by respectful representations, whatever might concern the good of the public, yet he never would allow them so far to abuse his clemency, as to erect themselves into the censors of his government. Calonne, however gratified by the approbation of his sovereign, felt deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. His attempts to conciliate that assembly had proved ineffectual: and he experienced their inflexible aversion at the critical juncture when their acquiescence might have been of the most essential service. An anxious enquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure by far exceeded the revenue. In this situation, to impose new taxes was impracticable; to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous; to have recourse only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, M. de Calonne was sensible that something more was necessary than the royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would they submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom. Though originally a body of lawyers, indebted for their appointments to the king, there was not an attribute of genuine legislative assembly but what they seemed desirous to engross to themselves; and they had been supported in their pretensions by the plaudits of the people, who were sensible that there was no other body in the nation that could plead their cause against royal or ministerial oppression. To suppress, therefore, the only power of controul that remained, and to render the government more arbitrary, was deemed too perilous a measure: yet to leave the parliament in the full possession of their influence, an influence that the minister was convinced would be exerted against him, was at once to render his whole system abortive. In this dilemma, the only expedient was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and which should in a greater degree consist of members from the various orders of the state and the different provinces of the kingdom. This promised to be a popular measure; it implied a deference to the people at large, and might be expected to prove highly acceptable. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the States General, had not met since the year 1614; nor

could the minister flatter himself with the obtaining the royal assent to a meeting: despotic sovereign could not but regard with secret jealousy. Another assembly had once been substituted in the room of the States: this was distinguished by the title of the A and consisted of a number of persons from all orders of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the orders of the state, and nominated by himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry IV, again by Lewis XIII, and was once more summoned by the authority of Louis XVI. The writs for calling them together were dated the 29th Dec. 1786; and were addressed to 7 princes of the blood, 9 dukes and 1 prince of France, 8 field marshals, 22 nobles, 8 lords of state, 4 masters of requests, 11 archbishops and bishops, 37 heads of the law, 12 deputies of the *provinces d'états*, the lieutenant civil, and the magistrates of the different towns of the kingdom. The number of members was 144; and on the 1st Jan. 1787, was appointed for the next day the arrival of the Notables at Paris, however the minister found himself yet unprepared to submit his system to their inspection, and postponed the opening of the council to the 7th of Feb. A 2d delay to the 14th, was occasioned by the disposition of M. de Calonne himself, and the count de Vergennes, president of the council of finance and first secretary of state; a delay which was the necessary result of the death of the count de Vergennes on the day previous to that fixed for the opening of the meeting. He was succeeded in the management of foreign affairs by the count de Moustier, a nobleman of unblemished character, whose loss at this critical juncture was severely felt by M. de Calonne; the count alone, of the ministers, having entered with warmth and activity into his plans. The chevalier de Mirabeau, keeper of the seals, was avowedly his rival and enemy. The marshal de Castries, secretary of the marine department, was personally attached to M. Neckar; and the baron de Breteuil, secretary for the household, was the creature of the queen, and deeply engaged in what was called the Austrian system. Under these difficulties M. Calonne, on the 22d Feb. first met the assembly of the Notables, and opened his long expected

(53.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LOUIS XVI, TO THE DISMISSION OF THE NOTABLES. M. de Calonne, began by stating, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenue, and that a very considerable deficit had of course existed; that the Mississippi of 1720 had by no means restored the balance, and that under the economical administration of cardinal Fleury the deficit still existed; that the progress of this derangement under the administration of M. de Maurepas had been extreme; the deficiency amounted to three millions Sterling at the appointment of M. Terray; who, however, reduced it to L. 1,675,000; it decreased a little under the administration that followed, but rose again in consequence of the war, under the administration of M. Neckar; and at his own accession it was L. 3,330,000. To remedy this growing evil M. Calonne recommended a territorial tax like the English land-tax, from which no

men were to be exempted; and an int-
to the poss. of the clergy, which
had been. from contributing
public burden. his branches of
taxation were. to a strict ex-
on; and a con. was pre-
mortgaging the. of the

The very necessity. was
ed with boldness. and
instead of meeting. by acqui-
the comptroller general. and
the boundless ocean of. contro-
M. Neckar, previous to. retirement,
filled his *Compte rendu au Peuple*, which
was represented as possessing a clear sur-
plus of 1.500,000. Sterling. This performance had
at with avidity, and probably contributed
from the author the royal favour; but
it was ably vindicated by M. de Bri-
ssot, of Thoulouse. M. de Calonne met
a more formidable adversary in the count
Necker. This extraordinary man, reflect-
ed disposition, licentious in his morals, but
penetrating, and enterprising, had visited
part in Europe. He had been admitted
into the confidence of the minister; and
although in no offensive charac-
ter, at Berlin the disposition of the
of the great Frederick: in this capacity
he was expected to neglect and
his letters were often left unanswered;
he excited to admiration; and he, who had
the Prussian court the intimate friend, re-
to Paris the avowed enemy, of M. de
Necker. While the archbishop therefore arraign-
the minister, the count impeached his
op. The eloquence of M. de Calonne,
might have successfully vindicated his
and reputation against the calculations of
and the invectives of Mirabeau; but he
to support himself against the influence of
great bodies of the nation. The ancient
and clergy had ever been free from all
assessments; and through the shameful
of buying patents of nobility, such crowds
of nobles started up, that every province
was filled with them. The magistracies likewise
of the kingdom enjoyed their share of these
honours; so that the whole weight of the
taxation fell on those who were least able to bear

The minister's design, then, of equalising
the burdens, and, by rendering the taxes
uniform, diminishing the load born by the lower
classes of people, though undoubt-
edly just and patriotic, at once united against
the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy.
Trigues of these 3 bodies raised against him
a clamour, that finding it impossible to
resist the torrent, he not only resigned his place
on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to
escape from the storm of persecution. During
these dissensions at home, Lewis's attention was
led to the state of affairs in Holland. The
Prince of Orange had been stripped of all autho-
rity by the aristocratic party; and, retiring from
public life, maintained the shadow of a court at
The Hague. His brother-in-law, however, the
King of Prussia, endeavoured to promote his

interest; and having offered, in concert with
France, to undertake the arduous task of com-
posing the differences which distracted the re-
public, the proposal was received with apparent
cordiality by the court of Versailles. But it
could scarce be expected that France would wish
to restore the prince of Orange to that degree of
power which he had before occupied, and thus
abandon one of the most favourite objects of her
policy, the establishing a supreme and permanent
control in the affairs of Holland. In fact, the
conditions framed by the Louvestein faction, as
the basis of reconciliation, were such as plainly
indicated their design to reduce the influence and
authority of the stadtholder within very narrow
limits. But the Prince of Orange was admirably
supported and assisted by the genius, spirit, and
abilities of his consort: who firmly rejected every
measure tending to abridge any rights that had
been attached to the office of stadtholder; and
M. de Rayneval, the French negotiator, having
in vain endeavoured to overcome her resolution,
broke off the correspondence between the Hague
and Nimwegen, and returned to Paris in January
1787. The events that ensued will be found un-
der the article UNITED PROVINCES. It is only
necessary to observe here, that the republican
party were totally disappointed in their hopes
from France. The court of Versailles had indeed
long trusted to the natural strength of the republi-
can party, and had been assiduous during the
whole summer in endeavouring to second them
by every species of succours that could be pri-
vately afforded. These aids, which might have
proved effectual had the contest been confined to
the states of Holland and the stadtholder, were
overwhelmed in the rapid invasion of the Prussians;
for the court of Berlin had taken its measures
with so much celerity, and the situation of the
republicans was already become so desperate,
that it was doubtful whether their affairs could be
restored by any assistance that France was capable
of giving. Yet on great Britain fitting out a
strong squadron of men of war at Portsmouth to
give confidence to the operations of the king of
Prussia, the court of Versailles also sent orders to
equip 16 sail of the line at Brest, and recalled a
small squadron which had been commissioned on
a summer's cruise on the coast of Portugal. But
in these preparations Lewis seemed rather to re-
gard his own dignity, than to be actuated by any
hopes of effectually relieving his allies. All op-
position in Holland might be already considered
as extinguished. The states assembled at the
Hague had officially notified to the court of Ver-
sailles, that the disputes between them and the
stadtholder were now happily terminated; and
as the circumstances which gave occasion for their
application to that court no longer existed, so the
succours which they had then requested would
now be unnecessary. The French court there-
fore readily listened to a memorial from the
British minister at Paris; who proposed, to pre-
serve the good understanding between the two
crowns, that all warlike preparations should be
discontinued, and that the navies of both king-
doms should be again reduced to the footing of a
peace establishment. This was gladly acceded to

by the court of Versailles; and harmony between the two nations was restored. Though Lewis could not but sensibly feel the mortification of thus relinquishing the ascendancy he had attained in the councils of Holland, the state of his own domestic concerns and the internal situation of his kingdom furnished matter for more serious reflection. The dismissal of M. de Calonne had left France without a minister, and almost without a system; and though the king bore the opposition of the Notables with admirable temper, yet the disappointment he had experienced sunk deep into his mind. Without obtaining any relief for his most urgent necessities, he perceived too late that he had opened a path to the restoration of the ancient constitution of France, which had been undermined by the crafty Lewis XI. and had been nearly extinguished by the daring and sanguinary counsels of Richlieu under Lewis XIII. The Notables had indeed demeaned themselves with respect and moderation, but at the same time they had acted with firmness. The appointment of the archbishop of Thoulouze, the vigorous adversary of M. de Calonne, to the office of comptroller general, probably contributed to preserve the appearance of good humour in that assembly; yet the proposed territorial impost, or general land-tax, which was an object so ardently coveted by the court, was rejected. Lewis, therefore, deprived of any further hope of rendering the convention subservient to his embarrassments, determined to dissolve the assembly; which he accordingly did, with a very moderate and conciliatory speech to the members on their dismissal.

(54.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE RECALL OF THE EXILED PARLIAMENT. Thus, disappointed of the advantage which he expected to have drawn from the acquiescence of the Notables, the king was obliged to recur to the usual mode of raising money by royal edicts. Among the measures proposed for this purpose were, the doubling of the poll-tax, the re-establishment of the third twentieth, and a stamp duty. But the whole was strongly disapproved of by the parliament of Paris; and that assembly, in the most positive terms, refused to register the edict. Lewis was obliged to apply, as the last resort, to his absolute authority; and, by holding what was called a *bed of justice*, compelled them to enroll the impost. The parliament, though defeated, were far from being subdued; and on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the edict; declaring, "that it had been registered against their approbation and consent, by the king's express command; that it neither ought nor should have any force; and that the first person who should presume to attempt to carry it into execution, should be adjudged a traitor, and condemned to the galleys."—This spirited declaration left the king no other alternative, but either to proceed to extremities in support of his authority, or to relinquish for ever the power of raising money without the consent of the parliament. Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not expect to surrender, without a struggle, that

authority which had been so long exercised by predecessors. Since the commencement of present discontents, the capital had been greatly filled with considerable bodies of troops about a week after the parliament had entered protest, an officer of the French guards, party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each member, to signify the king's command, that he should immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about 70 miles from Paris, without seeing or speaking to any person out of his house before his departure.—These orders were served at the same instant; and before the members of Paris were acquainted with the transfer of their magistracies, they were already on the road to their place of banishment. Previous to their removal, however, they had presented a remonstrance to the late measures of government, and the present state of public affairs: wherein they declared, that neither the parliaments, nor any other authority, excepting that of the 3 estates of the kingdom collectively assembled, warranted the laying of any permanent tax on the people; and they strongly enforced the renewal of these national assemblies, which had rendered the reign of Charlemagne so great and glorious. This requisition of the parliament to establish the national council, or states general, was the more honourable, as the former assembly must have sunk under the influence of the king, and returned to their original condition of registers and courts of law. The consideration of the people therefore rose in proportion to this instance of disinterestedness; and murmurs were openly expressed in the streets of the capital, and the general dissatisfaction augmented by the step put to public liberty by the exile of the parliament. Lewis, availing himself of rigorous counsels, wished to allay the general discontent by every concession that was consistent with his dignity; but the queen strongly dissuaded him from any step that might diminish the authority of the crown. The influence of that princely cabinet was undoubtedly great: but the popularity which once had accompanied her was now gone; while the count of Artois, the king's brother, who had expelled himself in the most unbecoming terms against the conduct of the parliament, excited the utmost popular hatred. Not only in the capital that the flame once rose; but in the provinces it blazed with equal strength in the provincial parliaments. Among various instances of this, the parliament of Grenoble passed a resolution against LETTRES DE CACHET, one of the most odious engines of arbitrary power. The king had endeavoured to soothe the Parisians by regulations of economy, and by continual attentions in his household: but these efforts, which once would have been received with the loudest acclamations, were now regarded under their affliction for the absence of their parliament. Lewis therefore, to regain the affections, consented to restore that assembly, and gave up the stamp-duty and the territorial

(55.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PARLIAMENT OF NOTABLES. These measures were, in

ment to establish harmony between the court
 e parliament. The necessities of the state
 intained; nor could the deficiency of the
 be supplied but by extraordinary resources.
 the middle of November 1787, in a full
 of the parliament, attended by all the
 of the blood and the peers of France, the
 entered the assembly, and proposed two edicts
 of approbation: one was for a new loan of
 millions, near 19 millions Sterling: the other
 of the re-establishment of the Protestants in all
 ancient civil rights; a measure which had
 been warmly recommended by the parliament.
 his occasion, the king delivered a speech of
 great length, filled with professions of re-
 spect for the people: but strongly expressive of the
 success he expected to his edicts. An animat-
 ed debate took place, and was continued for 9
 days: when the king, chagrined at some free-
 dom in their debates, suddenly rose and
 ordered the edict to be registered without fur-
 delay. This measure was most unexpected-
 ly opposed by the duke of Orleans; who, con-
 sidering it as an infringement of the rights of par-
 liament, protested against the whole proceedings
 of that day as being thereby null and void. Though
 the king could not conceal his astonishment and
 anger at this decisive step, he contented him-
 self with repeating his orders; and immediately
 quitting the assembly, retired to Versailles.
 On the next day, the parliament confirmed the
 edict of the duke of Orleans. It was not to be
 expected that Lewis would suffer so bold an at-
 tack upon his authority with impunity. A letter was sent
 to the duke of Orleans, commanding
 him to retire to Villars Cotterel, one of his
 country seats from Paris, and to receive
 company there except his own family: at the
 same time the Abbé Sabatier and M. Freteau,
 members of the parliament, who had distin-
 guished themselves in the debate, were seized and
 sent, the first to the castle of Mont St Michel
 in Brittany, the last to a prison in Picardy.
 acts of despotism roused the feelings of the
 assembly. On the following day they waited
 on the king, and expressed their astonishment that
 the blood of the blood had been exiled, and two
 members imprisoned, for declaring what
 duty and consciences dictated. The answer
 of the king was reserved, forbidding, and un-
 satisfactory; and tended to increase the resent-
 ment of the parliament. At the same time, it
 did prevent them from attending to the ex-
 ists of the state; and convinced of the emer-
 gency, they consented to register the loan for
 millions of livres, which had been the source
 of his unfortunate difference. This concession
 pleased the king, and the sentence of the two
 knights was in consequence changed from
 imprisonment to exile; M. Freteau being sent to
 his country seat, and the Abbé Sabatier
 to a convent of Benedictines. The parliament,
 however, would not give up the points against
 which they had originally remonstrated. In a
 session touched in the most animated language,
 boldly reprobated the late acts of arbitrary
 power. Lewis naturally mild, and willing to
 pursue measures of reconciliation, in the beginning

of 1788, recalled the duke of Orleans to court,
 who soon after obtained leave to retire to England;
 and he permitted the return of the Abbé Saba-
 tier and M. Freteau to the capital. The parlia-
 ment also seconded the parliament of Grenoble,
 by loudly inveighing against LETTRES DE CACHET.
 These repeated remonstrances, mingled with per-
 sonal reflections, seconded most probably the
 suggestions of the queen, and Lewis was once
 more instigated to measures of severity. Mess.
 d'Espremevil and Monsambert, whose bold and
 pointed harangues had pressed most closely on the
 royal dignity, were doomed to experience its im-
 mediate resentment. While a body of armed
 troops surrounded the hotel in which the parlia-
 ment were convened, Colonel Degout entered
 the assembly, and secured the persons of the ob-
 noxious members, who were instantly conducted
 to different prisons. This new instance of arbi-
 trary violence occasioned a fresh remonstrance from
 parliament, which in boldness far exceeded all
 the former representations of that assembly. They
 declared they were now more strongly confirmed,
 by every proceeding, of the intire innovation
 which was aimed at in the constitution. "But,
 sire," added they, "the French nation will never
 adopt the despotic measures to which you are
 addicted, and which excite alarm the most faithful
 of your magistrates: we shall not support all the
 unfortunate circumstances which afflict us; we
 shall only represent to you with respectful firm-
 ness, that the fundamental laws of the kingdom
 must not be trampled upon, and that your autho-
 rity can only be extended so long as it is tempered
 with justice." Language so pointed and decisive,
 and which asserted the controlling power of the
 laws above the royal authority, could not fail
 fervently to alarm the king; and with a view to
 diminish the influence of parliament, it was deter-
 mined again to convene the Notables.

(36.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS
 XVI. TO THE RESTORATION OF THE STATES
 GENERAL. Lewis appeared in the assembly of
 the Notables, about the beginning of May, 1788,
 and after complaining of the excesses of the par-
 liament of Paris which had drawn down his re-
 luctant indignation on a few of the members, he
 declared his resolution, to recall them to their
 duty and obedience by a salutary reform. M. de
 la Moignon, as keeper of the seals, then explain-
 ed his majesty's pleasure to establish a *cour pie-
 niere* or supreme assembly, to be composed of princes
 of the blood, peers of the realm, great officers of
 the crown, the clergy, marshals of France,
 governors of provinces, knights of different orders,
 a deputation of one member from every parlia-
 ment, and two members from the chambers of
 council, and to be summoned as often as the public
 emergency, in the royal opinion, should render
 it requisite. If the assembly of the Notables
 listened in silent deference to the project of their
 sovereign, the parliament of Paris received it with
 aversion. That body protested against the esta-
 blishment of any other tribunal; and declared
 their final resolution not to assist at any delibera-
 tions in the supreme assembly which his majesty
 proposed to institute. A more unexpected morti-
 fication occurred to the king in the opposition of
 several

Several peers of the realm : these expressed their regret at beholding the fundamental principles of the constitution violated ; and while they were lavish in their professions of attachment to the person of their sovereign, concluded with apologizing for not entering on those functions assigned them in the plenary court, as being inconsistent with the true interests of his majesty, which were inseparable from those of the nation. The flame quickly spread throughout the more distant provinces ; at Rennes in Brittany, and Grenoble in Dauphine, the people broke out into acts of the most daring outrage ; several hundreds of the inhabitants perished in a conflict with the military ; yet they maintained their ground against the regulars ; and the commanding officer, at the intreaties of the first president, readily withdrew his troops from a contest into which he had entered with reluctance. The different parliaments of the kingdom at the same time expressed their feelings in the most glowing language : and strongly urged the necessity of calling together the states general, the lawful council of the kingdom, as the only means of restoring the public tranquillity. Lewis now plainly saw, that the re-establishment of the *states general* was absolutely necessary, in order to avoid the calamities of a civil war. It was not, however, till after many a painful struggle that he could resolve to restore an assembly, whose influence must naturally diminish that of the crown, and whose jurisdiction would confine within narrow limits the boundless power he had inherited from his predecessors. It is probable that Lewis XVI, still flattered himself with the hope of being able to allure the members of that assembly to the side of the court ; and having employed them to establish some degree of regularity in the finances, and to curb the spirit of the parliaments, that he could again have dismissed them to obscurity. Under these impressions an arrest was issued in August, fixing the meeting of the states general to the 1st of May 1789 ; and every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public during the interval.

(57.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE REVOLUTION, IN 1789. New arrangements now took place in the administration ; and M. Neckar, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances ; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was now entirely abolished ; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law ; and it was decreed, that in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of 3 judges. The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states general : but the moment of that assembly's meeting was far from being auspicious : The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours ; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each ; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent which had been ex-

torted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general discontent ; and the people pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, impatient of the obstacles he daily encountered, could conceal his chagrin ; while the influence of queen in the cabinet was again established, was attended by the immediate removal of Neckar. The dismissal of that minister, so the favourite of the public, was the signal of open insurrection ; the Parisians assembled in thousands ; the guards refused to imbrue their hands in the blood of their fellow citizens ; the court of Artois and the most obnoxious of the nobles thought themselves happy in eluding by flight the fury of the insurgents ; the Bastille, so long deemed impregnable, was attacked, demolished, and its governor beheaded ; and thus on the 14th, 1789, a revolution was accomplished, the most extraordinary of any recorded in history. But the rapid succession of new revolutions, that have taken place in France since that period, and the various forms of government that have been successively established and abolished within these 21 years, having rendered it extremely problematical, whether even the present *aristo-democratic* or *semi-royal* form of government, of the French republic, will prove ultimately more permanent than its predecessors, whatever marks of stability it may seem to possess, we shall postpone our account of the history of France, during its revolutionary state, and of all the astonishing events that have accompanied it, with the great crimes and the great virtues, that have been exhibited in its course to the article REVOLUTION. Long before we arrive at that article, it is to be hoped by every friend of the human race, that a period will be put to the slaughter of Britons, of Frenchmen, and of the allies of both, by a solid and lasting peace founded on the principles of reciprocal justice.

(58.) FRANCE, LATE PROVINCES OF. France before the revolution was divided into the following military governments, or provinces : Alsace, Angoumois, Anjou, Armagnac, Artois, Auvergne, Barrois, Basques, Bearn, Berry, Bretonne, Brissac, Blaisois, Boulonnois, Bourbonnois, Brittany, Burgundy, Cambresis, Champagne, Clermont, Dauphiny, Forez, Foix, Franche Comte, French Flanders, Gascony, Gevaudan, Guienne, French Hainault, Isle of France, Languedoc, Maine, Morvan, Lorrain, Lyonnais, Marche, Maine, Normandy, Navarre, Nivernois, Normandy, Orleans, Perche, Perigord, Picardy, Poitou, Provence, Quercy, Ruoergue, Roussillon, Saintonge, Soissonois, Touraine, Velay, and Vermandois. They varied much from each other in point of extent and importance, and there were others of inferior consideration.

(59.) FRANCE, MODERN DIVISION OF. France was divided by the first legislative assembly into 83 departments, and these were subdivided into districts, cantons, and municipalities. The names of the departments are, Ain, Aisne, Allier, Alpes Lower, Alps Upper, Ardeche, Ardennes, Ariège, Aube, Aude, Aveyron, Calvados, Cantal, Charente Lower, Cher, Correze, Corsica, Creuse, d'Or, Creuse, Dordogne, Doubs, Drome, Eure and Loire, Finisterre, Gard, Garonne Up-

ode, Herault, Indre, Indre and Loire, e and Vilaine, Jura, Landes, Loire, Loire Lower, Loire Upper, Loiret, and Garonne, Lozere, Maine, Maine re, Manche, Marne, Maine Upper, Meuse, Morbihan, Moselle, Mouths of re, Nièvre, Nord or North, North ile, Orne, Paris, Puy de Dome, Pyrene, Pyrenees Lower, Pyrenees Upper, wer, Rhine Upper, Rhone and Loire, per, Saone and Loire, Sarthe, Seine and ne Lower, Seine and Marne, the Two omme, Straits of Calais, Tarn, Var, Vienne, Vienne Upper, Vosges, and About 18 new departments have been ted out of the conquered territories an- the republic. See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

FRANCE, MOUNTAINS OF. The chief s of France, are those of the Alps, Pyren- ences, and Auvergne: Mount Blanc, &c.

FRANCE, NEW CONSTITUTIONS AND GO- IT OF. No country ever had a greater constitutions in so short a period, or a d succession of changes in the form of ment, than France has had within these ars, since the 14th July 1789. The first on formed by the National Assembly, af- urther of the old despotic government, y beautiful limited monarchy: wherein, and hereditary honours were abolished, still retained a considerable degree of ad enjoyed a large annual income; no 1,500,000 l. Sterling being allotted for rsonal expences; a sum evidently one e than is allowed his present Majesty Britain; and nearly double if we deduct ons on the civil list. The next con- which was erected upon the total of monarchy, in August 1792, was a y upon the principles of liberty and e- which was still further amended in May t was never carried into execution. (See acy, § 2.) Instead of this, the most arbitra- oody measures were carried on under the of a junto of the Convention, by their a- he revolutionary tribunals. These were by the mild government, which suc- 1795, under the form of a Directory and ois. Of this constitution we have al- n a pretty full account, under the ar- ouncil, § 8, 9; and DIRECTORY, § 2, he present existing constitution, establish- n, when Bonaparte overturned the Di- nd Councils, and fixed the supreme pow- hands of a triumvirate, under the title of s, a conservatory senate of 24, appointed a tribunate of 100, and a legislative body of eed say little in this place, as it will natural- be considered under the article REVO- . But we cannot conclude this section, observing, that, tho' France still retains e of a republic, and its public acts are in- with the words LIBERTY and EQUALITY, resent constitution retains very little of the e of either; as the successive controul of rent classes of voters, arranged by it in ion to their property, over the preceding

voters possessed of less property, reduces any ef- fect of the first suffrages given by the citizens as large, to a mere shadow; and the 41st article of the Constitution gives to the First Consul a degree of power almost despotic, and greatly superior to that enjoyed by the unfortunate Lewis XVI, under the beautiful limited monarchy established by the Constitution of 1789—91.

(62.) **FRANCE, POPULATION OF.** The popula- tion of France, before the revolution, was stated by the French at 25 millions; but from the great ex- tent of territory added to the republic since the commencement of the present war, and now in- corporated with it, (see FRENCH REPUBLIC,) the total population is supposed to be now increased to at least 33 millions.

(63.) **FRANCE, PRESENT EXTENT OF.** See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

(64.) **FRANCE, PRODUCTIONS OF.** Besides all the necessaries of life, (see § 2.) France produces many of its luxuries; as silk, perfumes, lemons, o- ranges, olives, prunes, peaches, &c. The forests a- bound with wood, and the mountains with mines of copper, lead, tin, iron; and some gold and silver. Gold in grains is also found among the sands of some rivers.

(65.) **FRANCE, RELIGION OF.** The established religion of France, from the reign of Clovis I. to the revolution, has been the Roman Catholic; and though it was never accompanied by that dreadful engine of ecclesiastical tyranny, the inquisition, yet no country in Europe has exhibited more barba- rous and bloody proofs of the intolerant spirit of that system of superstition than France. (See § 41.) Yet, though universal liberty of conscience was es- tablished upon the revolution in 1789, the Roman Catholic system was not attempted to be abolish- ed. So far from this, the kingdom was divided in- to 10 archbishoprics (formerly 19), and 73 bishop- rics (formerly 113), an episcopal hierarchy; an e- piscopal town being allotted to each department. But Danton and his atheistical associates, in the Convention of 1793, endeavoured to overthrow all religion whatsoever. Upon the fall of Danton, Robertspierre, affecting an abhorrence of the im- piety of ATHEISM, did his utmost to recommend DEISM, in its stead. But since his death, CHRIS- TIANITY has been again openly professed; the churches have been restored to the use of all who in- eline to attend them; and people of all religious persuasions are allowed to worship God in the way most agreeable to themselves; only as no particu- lar system is established, no salaries are paid to the priests at the public expence, but each party pays its own clergy.

(66.) **FRANCE, RIVERS OF.** France is watered and fertilized by a great number of rivers, many of which afford names to the new departments. (See § 59.) The principal of these are the Seine, Loire, Garonne, and Rhone.

(67.) **FRANCE, SOIL OF.** See § 2.

(68.) **FRANCE, STRENGTH OF.** The present strength of the French republic, we shall not attempt to estimate. It has been sufficiently tried during the course of the present war, and will probably be still more so before it be concluded. Previous to the revolution, the army, in time of peace,

consisted of 200,000 men, and, in time of war, of 400,000; among whom were many Swiss, Germans, Scots, Irish, Swedes, and Danes.

(69.) FRANCE, TAXES AND CI-DEVANT REVENUES OF. See § 3.

(70.) FRANCE, TRADE AND MANUFACTURES OF. The French in time of peace carry on a great trade with Spain, Italy, and the E. Indies. Before the war, a trade very advantageous to Britain was established by the Commercial Treaty. They have very extensive manufactures of linens, woollens, silks, laces, paper, china, soap, &c. and particularly what is called *Castile* soap.

(71.) FRANCE, TOWNS, CITIES, AND VILLAGES IN. France before the war, was said to contain 400 cities or walled towns, and 43,000 small towns and villages. Paris is the capital.

(II.) FRANCE, ISLE OF, a ci-devant province of France, so called, because it was formerly bounded by the rivers Seine, Marne, Oise, Aisne, and Ourque. It comprehended the Beauvoisis, the Valois, the county of Senlis, the Vexin, the Hurepois, the Gatinois, the Multien, the Goele, and the Mantois. Paris was the capital. It is now divided into 4 departments; viz. Oise, Seine and Oise, Seine and Marne, and Paris.

(III.) FRANCE, ISLE OF, or MAURITIUS, an island in the Indian Ocean. See MAURITIUS.

(IV.) FRANCE, LITTLE, a village of Scotland, 2 miles SE. of Edinburgh, near CRAIGMILLAR Castle; built in the 16th century, for the accommodation of the French retinue, that attended Queen Mary after her return from Paris.

FRANCESCA, Peter, an eminent Florentine painter of night pieces and battles, who was employed to paint the Vatican. He also painted portraits, and wrote on arithmetic and geometry. He died in 1458.

(1.) FRANCFORT ON THE MAINE, an Imperial and Hanseatic town of Germany, in Franconia, where the emperors were formerly elected. It is a handsome, strong, and rich place, and has a great deal of commerce. Here the golden bull is preserved, which is the original of the fundamental laws of the empire. The town is seated in a fine fertile plain; and extremely well fortified. It has 2 great fairs, and has great conveniency for carrying on an extensive trade with the other parts of Germany, by the Maine, which runs through it. The suburbs are called SAXEN-HAUSEN, and are joined to the town by a stone bridge over the Maine. Lutheranism is the established faith, but the Calvinists are richest and most numerous. It is 20 miles E. of Mentz, and 350 W. by N. of Vienna. It was taken by the French in Oct. 1792, by the Prussians in Dec. retaken by the French, in 1793, and afterwards by the Austrians. It is at present, (July 1806,) blockaded by the French, under gen. St. Suzanne. Lon. 8. 40. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

(2.) FRANCFORT ON THE ODER, a rich and handsome town of Germany, in the middle Marche of Brandenburg, formerly imperial, but now subject to the king of Prussia. It has 3 great fairs, an academy and 2 colleges; and is 43 miles SE. of Berlin, and 72 S. of Stettin. Lon. 14. 39. E. Lat. 52. 23. N.

FRANCHIE Compta, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the S. by Breffe; on the W.

by Burgundy; on the N. by Lorrain; and E. by Alsace and Switzerland. It is 1 long from N. to S. and 80 broad. It is p and partly hilly. The flat country is fr grain, wine, hemp, and pasture; and th bound in cattle, copper, lead, iron, silver, waters, stone, marble, and alabaster. It divided into 3 departments; viz. Doubs and Upper Saone.

FRANCHEMONT, or } a town and
FRANCHIMONT, } a ci-devant
sate, of Germany, in the late bishopric o now included in the French republic, and ment of Ourte. The town lies 13 mile Liege.

FRANCHIRE, a river of Madagascar province of Anossi.

FRANCHIS, a town NW. of Burwash

(1.) * FRANCHISE. *n. f.* [*franchise*, Fr exemption from any onerous duty. 2. P immunity; right granted.—They grant markets, and other *franchises*, and erect rate towns among them. *Davies on Irela.*

His gracious edict the same *franchise*
To all the wild increase of woods and

3. District; extent of jurisdiction.—The ther privileges granted unto most of the tions, that they shall not be travelled forth own *franchises*. *Spenser's Ireland.*

(2.) FRANCHISE and LIBERTY, in law, as synonymous terms; for “a royal priv branch of the king's prerogative, subsist hands of a subject.” Being therefore deri the crown, they must arise from the king or, in some cases, may be held by pre which presupposes a grant. The kinds a rous and various. We shall briefly ment of the principal; premising only, that t be vested either in natural persons or bo tic; in one man, or in many: but the sa tical franchise, that has before been gr one, cannot be bestowed on another, would prejudice the former grant. A PALATINE is a franchise vested in several It is likewise a franchise for a number of to be incorporated and subsist as a body with a power to maintain perpetual ti and do other corporate acts: and each i member of such corporation is also said i franchise. Other franchises are, to hold lect; to have a manor or lordship; or, to have a lordship paramount: to ha wrecks, estrays, treasure-trove, royal feitures, and deadlands: to have a court own, or liberty of holding pleas and tryin to have cognizance of pleas; which is a l liberty, being an exclusive right, so that court shall try causes arising within that tion: to have a bailiwick, or liberty exer the sheriff of the county; wherein the gr ly, and his officers, are to execute all p to have a fair or market; with the right toll, either there or at any other public at bridges, wharfs, or the like; which t have a reasonable cause of commencing consideration of repairs, or the like, t else chite is illegal and void: or lastly, to hav

ark, warren, or fishery, endowed with pri-royalty. See CHASE, FOREST, &c.

ANCHISE is also used for an asylum or, where people are secure of their per-

Churches and monasteries in Spain are for criminals; so were they anciently in till they were abused to such a degree was a necessity for abolishing the cus- of the most remarkable capitulars made magne in his palace of Heristal, in 779, relating to the franchises of churches. of franchise was held so sacred, that its religious kings observed it to a degree outcasts; but to such excess in time was, that Charlemagne resolved to reduce it. ly he forbid any provision to be carried as retired into churches for refuge.

FRANCHISE OF QUARTERS is a certain district at Rome, wherein are the houses habitations of the princes of Europe; and when they retire cannot be arrested or seized, except at law. The people of Rome look on it as an old usurpation and a scandalous privilege of ambassadors, out of a jealousy of the pope, carried to a great length in the 15th century by enlarging infinitely the dependencies of the houses, within which the right of sanctuary was anciently confined. Popes Julius III, Gregory XIII, and Sixtus V, published laws and ordinances against this abuse; and reduced so considerable a part of the pope's authority, and rendered it a refuge for the most abandoned persons. At length Pope Alexander VI. expressly refused to receive any more ambassadors, but such as would make a formal renunciation of the franchise of quarters.

FRANCHISE, *v. a.* (from the noun.) To make free; to make free; to keep free.—

I lose no honour
in going to augment it; but still keep
my *franchis'd*, and allegiance clear.

Shack. Macbeth.

FRANCIA, Francis, a celebrated Bolognese painter, born in 1470. He was first a jeweller, and a maker of coins and medals; and applied to painting, obtained great reputation for his works, particularly by a piece of St Francis, in which he had drawn bound to a tree, and his hands tied over his head. He pined himself to death by despising to equal his rivals, and died in 1518.

FRANCIA, a town of Naples, in the province of Ultra; 8 miles NE. of Nicotera.

FRANCIADE, or ST DENYS. See DENYS, N^o 5.

FRANCIADE, or ST DENYS. See DENYS, N^o 5.

FRANCIS I. and II, kings of France. See FRANCIS, N^o 39, 40.

FRANCIS, Philip, D. D. a very ingenious scholar of Irish extraction, if not born in Ireland. He was first dean of a cathedral in that kingdom, and then retired to the church. He was more esteemed as a translator than as an original author. His versions of Horace and Demosthenes are justly valued; the former is accompanied with learned and useful notes. He was also a considerable political writer; and is supposed to have been employed by the government; for which he was appointed rector of Barrow in Suffolk. Part I.

folk, and chaplain of Chelsea hospital. He was also the author of two tragedies, *Eugenia*, and *Constantia*. He died at Bath in March 1773; leaving a son, then one of the supreme council at Bengal.

(4.) FRANCIS, ST, the founder of the society of the FRANCISCANS, was the son of a merchant of Assisi, in the province of Umbria. Having led a dissolute life, he was reclaimed by a fit of sickness, and afterwards fell into an extravagant kind of devotion, that looked less like religion than alienation of mind. In 1208, hearing the passage quoted, (Matt. x. 9, 10.) "Provide neither gold, nor silver," &c. he was led to consider a voluntary and absolute poverty as the essence of the gospel, and to prescribe it as a sacred rule to himself and those who followed him. See FRANCISCANS. He died in 1226.

FRANCISCANS, in ecclesiastical history, religious of the order of ST FRANCIS, founded by him in 1209. This society, which appeared to Innocent III. extremely adapted to the state of the church, was solemnly approved and confirmed by Honorius III. in 1223. Francis, through an excessive humility, would not suffer the monks of his order to be called *fratres*, i. e. brethren or friars, but FRATERCULI, i. e. little brethren, or *fratres minor*, by which denomination they still continue to be distinguished. They are also called *grey friars*, on account of the colour of their clothing, and CORDELIERS, &c. The Franciscans and DOMINICANS were zealous and active friends to the papal hierarchy. In 1287, Matthew of Aqua Sparta, being elected general of the order, discouraged the ancient discipline of the Franciscans, and indulged his monks in abandoning even the appearance of poverty. This conduct raised the indignation of the spiritual or austere Franciscans; so that from 1290, schisms arose in the order that had been famous for its pretended disinterestedness and humility. Such was the enthusiastic frenzy of the Franciscans, that they impudently maintained, that St Francis was a *second Christ*, in all respects similar to the first; and that their institution and discipline were the true gospel of Jesus. Accordingly, Albizzi, a Franciscan of Pisa, published a book in 1383, with the applause of his order, intitled, *The Book of the Conformities of St Francis with Jesus Christ*. In the beginning of the 18th century, the whole Franciscan order was divided into two parties; the one called *Spirituals*, who embraced the severe discipline and absolute poverty of St Francis; and the other, *Brothers of the Community*, who insisted on mitigating the austere injunctions of their founder. These wore long, loose, and good habits, with large hoods; the former were clad in a strait, coarse, and short dress, pretending that this dress was enjoined by St Francis, and that no power on earth had a right to alter it. Neither the moderation of Clement V, nor the violence of John XXII, could appease the tumult occasioned by these two parties: however their rage subsided from A. D. 1329. In 1368 these two parties were formed into two large bodies, which still subsist, comprehending the whole Franciscan order; viz. the *conventual brethren*, and the *brothers of the observance* or *reformation*, from whom sprung the Capuchins and Recollects. The Franciscans are said to have con-

into England in 1224, and to have had their first house at Canterbury, and their second at London; but there is no certain account of their being here till Henry VII. built 2 or 3 houses for them. At the dissolution of the monasteries, the conventual Franciscans had about 55 houses, which were under 7 wardenships; viz. those of London, York, Cambridge, Bristol, Oxford, Newcastle, and Worcester.

FRANCKEMONT. See FRANCHMONT.

FRANCKENBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Hesse; 16 m. N. of Marburg, and 29 SW. of Cassel.

FRANCKENMARK, or FRANKEMARK, a town of Germany, in Aultria; 8 m. SW. of Voglabruck.

FRANCKS, a town of Kent, E. of the Crays.

FRANCOCCI, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Spoleto, 7 miles WNW. of Spoleto.

FRANCOIS, CAPE, a town in the N. part of Hispaniola. It suffered much from the dreadful commotions that took place in that island, in 1794, 95, and 96. Lon. 72. 18. W. Lat. 19. 46. N.

FRANCOISE, a town of France, in the dept. of Lot, 7½ miles NW. of Montauban, and 20½ SSW. of Cahors. Lon. 18. 54. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 7. N.

FRANGOLIN. See ATTAGEN.

FRANCONIA, a circle of Germany, bounded on the N. by Meissen and Thuringia, on the S. by Bavaria and Suabia; on the E. by Bohemia and the Upper Palatinate, and on the W. by the Lower, and the electorate of Mentz; being 88 miles from N. to S. and 95 from E. to W. The middle is very fertile in corn, wine, and fruits; but the borders are full of woods and barren mountains. The majority of the people are Lutherans; but there are also many Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and Jews. The FRANKS, who conquered and gave name to France, came from this province. See FRANCE, § 4. Nuremberg is the capital.

FRANCONVILLE, a town of France, 10 miles N. of Paris.

FRANCOSO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, 22 miles E. of Viseu.

FRANCOVILLA, a town of the Ligurian republic, 6 miles S. of Novi.

FRANCREMONT, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege. 4 miles N. of Spa.

(1.) FRANCTON, a town in Warwickshire, on the Fosse, near Dunsmore Heath.

(2.) FRANCTON, ENGLISH, } two villages in
(3.) FRANCTON, WELSH, } Shropshire, near
Ellelmere.

FRANE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Doubs, 7½ miles SW. of Pontarlier.

FRANEKER, FRANEQUER, or FRANKER, a town of the Batavian republic, in the department of Eems, and ci-devant province of N. Friesland. It has a castle, 2 navigable canals, many magnificent buildings, and an university, rendered famous by its learned professors; particularly Adrian Metius, George Pastor, Pierius Winslemus, Sixtus Amama, &c. It lies 9 miles W. of Iewarden, and 5 E. of Harlingen. Lon. 5. 33. E. Lat. 53. 11. N.

FRANEKERADEEL, or } a late canton of the
FRANEQUERADEEL, } ci-devant United

Provinces, in the district of Westergo-
vince of North Friesland, now included
partment of Eems.

FRANFIELD, a village in Sussex.

* FRANGIBLE. *adj.* [*frango*, Lat. brittle: easily broken.—Though it seem
est wood, if wrought before it be wet
it will shew itself very *frangible*. Boyle.

FRANGULA, in botany. See RHAM

* FRANION. *n. f.* [Of this word I
the derivation.] A paramour; a boon c

First, by her side did sit the hoid:

Fit mate for such a mincing mi. ion,

Who in her looseness took exceedi

Might not be found a franker *franion*:

(I.) * FRANK. *adj.* [*franc*, Fr.] 1. I.
nerous; not niggardly.—The moister to
yield little mois, for the reason of the
ting up of the sap into the boughs. Bar-
were left destitute, either by narrow pr
by their *frank* hearts and their open
their charity towards others. Spratt.—
dinary practice of the world to be *fran*
ties that cost them nothing. *L'Esfran*
pen; ingenuous; sincere; not reserved.
out conditions; without payment.—

Thou hast it won; for it is of *fra*

And he will care for all the rest to fl

Hubb

4. Not restrained; licentious. Not in
Might not be found a *franker* fr

(II.) FRANK, or FRANC, in the ancie
customs, signifies literally *free* from c
impositions, or exempt from public tax
in various senses: sometimes compou
sometimes not; though the latter is dou
proper. Thus,

1. * FRANKALMOIGNE. *n. f.* The f
we in Latin call *libera elemosyna*, or f
English; whence that tenure is commo
among our English lawyers by the nar
nure in *frank aumone*, or *frankalmoig*
according to Briton, is a tenure by di
Ayliffe's Parergon.

2. FRANK ALMOIGNE is a tenure,
religious corporation, aggregate or sol
lands of the donor to them and their
for ever. The service which they were
render for these lands was not defined
in general to pray for the souls of the
his heirs, dead or alive; and therefore t
fealty (which was incident to all other
because this *divine service* was of a m
nature. This is the tenure by which al
ancient monasteries and religious houses
lands; and by which the parochial c
very many ecclesiastical and eleemosyna
tions, still hold them; the nature of
being upon the reformation altered,
conformable to the purer doctrines of
of England. It was an old Saxon te
continued under the Norman revolutio
the great respect that was shown to r
religious men in ancient times. This
reason that tenants in frankalmoigne we
ged of all other services except the *trin*
tas, of repairing the highways, buildi

pulling invasions; just as the druids, among ancient Britons, had *omnium rerum immunitas*. And even at present this is a tenure of a different nature from all others; being not in itself feudal, but merely spiritual. For, if the lord be neglected, the law gives no remedy by writ, or otherwise, to the lord of whom the tenant is holden; but merely a complaint to the king or visitor to correct it.

FRANK CHACE is a liberty of free chace, by persons that have lands within the county of the same, are prohibited to cut down any wood out of the view of the forester.

FRANK FEE signifies the same thing as hold-land and tenements in fee simple; that is, to the tenant and his heirs, and not by such service as is required by ancient demesne, but is pleaded in common law. See **FEE**.

FRANK LAW, the free and common law of the land, or the benefit a person has by it. He who by offence loseth this frank law incurs many inconveniences, viz. He may not be permitted to serve on juries, nor used as an evidence in law; and if he has any thing to do in the court, he must not approach it in person, but by his attorney; his lands, goods, and chattels be seized into the king's hands; and he be estranged, his trees rooted up, and he committed to custody.

FRANK MARRIAGE, in law, is where tenements are given by one man to another, together with his wife, who is the daughter or cousin to the donor, to hold in frank marriage. By such gift, having but *frank marriage* is expressed, the wife shall have the tenements to them, and the issue of their two bodies begotten; that is, in special tail. For this expression, *frank marriage*, denotes, *ex vi termini*, not by purchase, like *frank almoigne*, but like inheritance; supplying, not only the issue of the donor, but of procreation also. Such marriages in frank marriage are liable to no service; for a rent reserved therein is void unless the degree of consanguinity be past between the issue of the donor and donee.

FRANKPLEDGE. *n. s.* [*franciplegium*, Lat. *n. l. e. liber & pleige*. *i. e. fidei iussor*.] A surety or surety for freemen. For the ancient custom of England, for the preservation of the public peace, was that every freeborn man at 14 years of age, religious persons, clerks, knights and ~~other~~ *other* sons excepted, should find security for his life to the king, or else be kept in prison: and it became customary for a certain number of freemen to be bound for one another, to see that the pledge forthcoming at all times, in case of the transgression of any one absent himself. This was called *frankpledge*, and the sum of the pledge was called *decenna*, because it consisted of ten households; and every part of the person, thus mutually bound, was called *frank*. This custom was so strictly observed, that the sheriffs, in every county, did from time to time take the oaths of young ones as they grew up, of fourteen years, and see that they were bound in one dozen or other: this branch of the king's authority was called *visus franciplegii*, or *frankpledge*. *Cocuel*.

8. FRANK PLEDGE.—In such cases, as those above-mentioned, (§ 7.) whenever any person offended, the persons bound either produced the offender in 31 days, or made satisfaction for his offence.

9. FRANK TENEMENT. See **TENURE**.

(III. l.) * **FRANK**. *n. s.* [from the adjective.]

1. A place to feed hogs in; a sty: so called from liberality of food.—Where lups he? Doth the old boar feed in the old *frank*? *Shakspeare*. *Henry IV.*

2. A letter which pays no postage.—You'll have immediately, by several *franks*, my epistle to lord Cobham. *Pope*. 3. A French coin.

(ii.) **FRANK**, § III, i; *def.* 2. See **FRANKED LETTERS**.

(iii.) *The* **FRANK**, or **FRANC**, (§ III, i; *def.* 3.) anciently current in France, was either of gold or silver:

1. **FRANK, GOLD**, was something more than that of the gold crown.

2. **FRANK, SILVER**, was a third of the value of the gold one. This coin has been long out of use, though the term is still retained as the name of a money of account; in which sense it is equivalent to the livre, or 20 sols.

(IV.) **FRANK**, in geography, a town of the United States, in S. Carolina, 11 m. E. of Kingston.

(V.) **FRANK LANGUAGE**, *Lingua Franca*, a kind of jargon spoken on the Mediterranean, and particularly throughout the coasts and ports of the Levant, composed of Italian, Spanish, French, vulgar Greek, and other languages.

* *To* **FRANK**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To shut up in a frank or sty. *Hanmer*.—

In the sty of this most bloody boar,

My son George Stanly is *frank'd* up in hold.

Shakspeare.

2. To feed high; to fat; to cram. *Junius* and *Ainsworth*. 3. [From the adjective.] To exempt letters from postage.—My lord Orrery writes to you to-morrow; and you see I send this under his cover, or at least *franked* by him. *Swift*.—

Gazettes sent gratis down, and *frank'd*,

For which thy patron's weekly thank'd. *Pope*.

FRANKED LETTERS. The privilege of letters coming free of postage to and from members of parliament was claimed by the House of Commons in 1660, when the first legal settlement of the present post-office was made; but afterwards dropped, upon a private assurance from the crown, that this privilege should be allowed the members. Accordingly a warrant was constantly issued to the postmaster general, directing the allowance thereof to the extent of two ounces in weight: till at length it was expressly confirmed by 4 Geo. III. c. 24. which added many new regulations, rendered necessary by the great abuses in franking; whereby the annual amount of franked letters had increased from 23,600*l.* in the year 1715, to 170,700*l.* in the year 1763. Other regulations afterwards took place; in particular, franks were required to be dated (the month written at length), and put into the office the same day; notwithstanding which, the revenue still lost by this privilege above 80,000*l.* *per annum*. The following are the regulations of franking required by 35 Geo. III. and now in force. No letter directed by or to any M. P. shall be exempted from postage if it

exceeds 1 oz. in weight. No letter directed by any member shall be exempted, unless he shall actually be in the post town, or within the limits of its delivery of letters, or within 20 miles of it on the day, or the day before it, on which the letter shall be put into the office. No member shall be entitled to send free from postage more than ten letters in one day, nor to receive more than 15. Whenever the number of letters sent or received by such member in one day shall exceed the number exempted, and the postage upon any of them shall differ, the letters chargeable with a higher postage shall be included in the number exempted, in preference to any chargeable with a lower postage, and the remainder shall be chargeable with the postage to which common letters are now chargeable. Persons who may now in right of their offices send and receive letters free may continue so to do. Printed votes or proceedings in parliament, and printed newspapers may also be sent as usual. No single letter sent by the post from any non-commissioned officer, seaman, or private, in the navy, army, militia, fencible regiments, artillery, or marines, shall be charged with more postage than one penny, but must be paid at the time of putting it into the post office; and such letter must have written thereon, in the hand writing of and signed by the commanding officer, the name of such commanding officer, and of the ship, vessel, corps, regiment, or detachment. Also no single letter directed to any such non-commissioned officer, seaman, or private, shall be charged with more postage than one penny, to be paid on the delivery thereof; but such letter must be directed to such persons, specifying the ship, vessel, regiment, troop, corps, company, or detachment to which they belong: And the postmaster must deliver such letter either to the party to whom it shall be directed, or to some person appointed to receive the same by the commanding officer, and to no other. Every cover containing patterns or samples of goods, not exceeding one ounce, shall be charged only as a single letter, if sent open at the sides, and without any letter or writing therewith, other than the name of the person sending the same, the place of his abode, and the prices of the articles.

(1.) **FRANKLIN**, Francis, commonly called *Old Frank*, a famous Flemish painter, supposed to have been born about A. D. 1544. He painted historical subjects from the Old and New Testament; and was remarkable for introducing a great number of figures into his compositions, which he set the address to express very distinctly. Vandyck greatly commended his works.

(2.) **FRANKLIN**, James, or *James Frank*, the son of the former, born in 1570, was distinguished by his father's whole style he adopted so closely, that their works are not easily distinguished. He travelled into Italy for improvement in colouring. His chief performances are, a large oval piece in the church of Notre dame at Antwerp; and another, of Solomon's idolatry. He died in 1642.

FRANKENAU, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Hesse, 24 miles SW. of Cassel, and 32 SSW. of Waldeck.

(1.) **FRANKENBERG**, a town of Germany, Austria; 6 miles WNW. of Voislanow.

(2.) **FRANKENBERG**, a town of Upper Erzgebürg, 9 miles W. of Freyberg NNE. of Chemnitz.

(3.) **FRANKENBERG**. See **FRANKENFRANKENDAL**, a strong town of lately in the dominions of the Elector now included in the French republic, of Mont Tonnerre. It was taken by the in 1623, by the Swedes in 1632, and the French in 1688. It was taken by the and laid under contribution in 1793, by the Austrians, and finally taken by the Oct. 1794, and annexed to the republic. It has a good trade in porcelain, cloth, silks, and a navigable canal to the Rhine. It is NW. of Mannheim, and 8 S. of Worms 29. E. Lat. 49. 25. N.

FRANKENFELS, a town of Austria, Norderbach, 20 miles WSW. of Hainau.

FRANKENHAUSEN, two towns in Saxony; 1. in Erzgebürg, 8 miles N. of Zwickau; 2. in Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt, on the Wipper. It has rich salt-works. E. of Sonderhausen, and 26 N. of Erfurt 28. 43. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 16. N.

FRANKENIA, in botany, a genus in the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria of plants; and in the natural method under the 17th order, *Calycanthaceae*. The fruit is quinquefid, and funnel shaped; the petals five, the stigma sexpartite; the capsule unilocular.

(1.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine; 5 miles N. of Darnstadt.

(2.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of Silesia, Bautzen, 9 miles W. of Mitterberg.

(3.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of the public, in the department of Sarre and ci-devant duchy of Deux-Ponts; 22 miles of Deux-Ponts, and 22 NW. of Landau 55. E. Lat. 49. 18. N.

(1.) **FRANKFORD**, a town of Virginia, capital of Pendleton county, situated on a branch of the Potomac; 185 miles NW. of Richmond, and 350 WSW. of Philadelphia 31. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 45. N.

(2.) **FRANKFORD**, a village of Virginia, in Albemarle county, situated on Patterson's Creek NW. of Romney.

(1.) **FRANKFORT**, a town of the United States, on the river and in the state of Kentucky 25. 12. W. Lat. 36. 3. N.

(2, 3.) **FRANKFORT**. See **FRANKFORT**.

(1.) **FRANKINCENSE**, a resinous substance so called perhaps from its liberal distribution. *Frankincense* is a dry retort in pieces or drops, of a pale yellowish white, with a strong smell, but not disagreeable, and a sweet and resinous taste. It is very ancient. The earliest histories inform us, that it was used among the sacred rites and in medicine. It continues to be in many parts. We are uncertain as to the place whence it is brought, and as to the tree which produces it. *Hill*.—Take unto thee sweet spices, *Frankincense*. *Exodus*.—I find in *Dioscorides*

frankincense gotten in India. *Brerewood on*
igs.—

ack eben only will in India grow,

od'rous *frankincense* on the Sabcean bough.

Dryden's Virgil.

car and *frankincense*, an od'rous pile,
d on the hearth, and wide perfum'd the
fie. *Pope.*

ANKISTAN, the name given by the Asia-
Europe.

ANKLAND's ISLANDS, a cluster of Islands
South Sea; 6 miles from the NE. coast of
Island. Lon. 146. 0. E. Lat. 17. 13. S.

FRANKLIN, Benjamin, LL. D. and F. R.
of the most celebrated philosophers and
of the 18th century, was born at Boston,
1706. He was the son of Josias Franklin, a
chandler, descended from an ancient Eng-
lish, who had resided upwards of three cen-
turies in Northamptonshire, possessing
a freehold estate of 30 acres, and the eldest
heretofore had been uniformly bred up to the
trade of a blacksmith. This family had early
embraced the opinions of the reformation, and
was in danger of suffering for them, under the
pressure of Q. Mary I. Benjamin was the
eldest son of the youngest branch of this family.
After having joined the non-conformists, and
the prohibition of conventicles under Charles
II. he emigrated with his wife and family, to New
England in 1682; where, on the death of his first
wife, he married Abiah Folger, daughter of Peter
Folger, author of several tracts on liberty of con-
science, who bore him 9 children besides our
author. Benjamin early acquired reading and
writing, but made no progress in Arithmetic, as
appears in his memoirs written by himself.
At 15 to 16 years of age he wrought at his
father's trade, but his inclination for books
induced his father to make him a printer,
where his elder brother James was already of
profession. To this brother he was ac-
cordingly bound apprentice, and by his rapid
progress in the business soon became of great
service, though he often treated him rather
severely. Mean time he improved himself
in Latin and other branches of science, as well
as composition, by writing anonymous essays
for another's paper, *The New England Courant*,
which, being much admired, were for some
time a great advantage to it. But one of them, upon
a political subject, happening to give offence to
the Assembly, his brother was taken up, imprison-
ed a month, and prohibited from printing his
paper. The paper was then continued under
the name of *Benjamin Franklin*, whose indentures
were discharged, and a new secret contract agreed
to: but fresh differences afterwards arising
between the brothers, our author, at the age
of 17, emigrated to Philadelphia, where he ar-
rived without knowing a single individual in it,
escaping the danger of being taken up as a
way servant, and various other droll ad-
ventures, which he humourously describes in his
memoirs. Here he soon got employment from
Gordon and Keimer, the two only printers then
in the city. After this he was introduced by his
cousin-law, Captain Holmes, to Sir William

Keith, governor of the Province, who *promised* to
do much for him, but, except entertaining him
occasionally, in his own house or a tavern, per-
formed nothing. By his advice, however, he
paid a visit to his parents, and in the end of 1724,
sailed for London, where by his own merit, with-
out Sir William's promised letters of recommen-
dation and credit, he obtained the best employ-
ment, first in Palmer's printing office, and after-
wards in Watt's. At this time our author falling
in with some Deistical companions, renounced
the religious principles in which he had been edu-
cated, commenced Sceptic, and published a
Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity, Pleasure and
Pain, wherein he endeavoured to prove that there
is no difference between virtue and vice; which
he afterwards considered as one of the grand er-
rors of his life. This work, however, introduced
him to the acquaintance of Dr Mandeville, Dr
Pemberton, Sir Hans Sloane, and other celebra-
ted authors. He had been only 18 months, how-
ever, in London, during which time, living very
temperately, or rather abstemiously, he had begun
to lay up money, when a proposal was made to
him by his friend, Mr Denham, of returning to
Philadelphia. This gentleman had been formerly
a merchant in Bristol, and, having failed, emigrat-
ed to America, where he made a fortune; then
returned, invited his creditors to a feast, and paid
their balances with interest. He engaged Franklin
as his clerk and book-keeper, and to superintend
the goods he was carrying back to America. They
accordingly sailed on the 23d July, 1726, and ar-
rived at Philadelphia, Oct. 11. but Denham dying
in Feb. 1727, our author engaged once more as
a printer with Keimer; whom he also served as a
letter-founder, ink-maker, engraver, and copper-
plate printer; as well as constructor of a press for
that purpose. This press which was the first that
had been seen in the country, was erected by Mr
Franklin at Burlington, to print some New Jersey
money bills; and proved the means of his ac-
quaintance with Judge Allen, and several other
members of the assembly, who were afterwards
of great service to him. After this he com-
missioned types from London, set up a printing
office, in company with Hugh Meredith, one of
Keimer's lads; and, at the same time established
a weekly club, for mutual improvement, which
not only proved an excellent school of philosophy
and politics, but turned out also very beneficial
to his business. This Society, which was called
the *Junto*, lasted near 40 years. Mean time he
astonished the public by his personal industry.
Early and late at work, he composed and distri-
buted a sheet per day of a work in folio, on pic-
ture letter loaded with heavy notes in a smaller type,
besides doing other occasional jobs as they came
in. This indefatigable industry soon raised his
credit, and Keimer, being unable to continue his
News-paper, sold the copy-right to Franklin for
a mere trifle; who by his improvements in the
conduct and execution of it, soon raised it to such
a degree of celebrity, as to make his fortune by
it. After this his accurate and elegant manner of
printing recommended him to the employment of
the Assembly: And his partner Meredith being
unable to raise his share of the money to pay for
the

the printing materials, gave up the printing, turned farmer, and thus left Franklin sole proprietor of the business, in 1729. Whereupon his friends Mess. Coleman and Grace offered him money to carry it on extensively, and he accepted of half the offered sum from each. Soon after a new emission of Paper currency being wished for by the public, but opposed by the opulent part of the Assembly, Franklin published a pamphlet on the subject, which, being unanswerable, occasioned the measure to be carried through, and himself to be rewarded by being employed to print the bills. Public and private employment now flowing upon him more and more, he, in 1736, married a lady, for whom he had entertained an affection before he went to London, and whose attachment was mutual. This lady was not *his partner's daughter*, as the Editors of both the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and the *English Encyclopædia* affirm; but a young widow, whose maiden name was Read, and who, during his absence had been prevailed on by her mother, to marry one Rogers, a potter, who had used her so ill, that she did not so much as bear his name. (See *Franklin's Life*, written by himself, and published by Dr R. Price.) To our author she proved an excellent wife, and contributed much to the success of his Stationary shop. In 1731, Franklin's love of literature led him to set on foot, first a private, and afterwards a public library, which, in 1742, was incorporated by the name of *The Library Company of Philadelphia*; which now consists of many thousand volumes, besides a philosophical apparatus, &c. In 1732, he began to publish *Poor Richard's Almanack*, a work which he rendered remarkable by its numerous valuable and concise moral maxims, recommending industry and œconomy, and which he at last collected into one humorous address to the reader, entitled *The Way to Wealth*, which has since been translated into various languages. In 1736, he entered on his political career, by being appointed Clerk to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania. In 1737, he was appointed Postmaster. In 1738, he formed the first Company for preventing damages by fires, and soon after got an insurance office erected. In 1744, during the war between France and Britain, the French and Indians having made inroads upon the frontiers of the province, he proposed a voluntary association for its defence; which was approved of, and immediately signed by 1200 citizens, who chose Franklin their colonel. But he was then too deeply engaged in philosophical and political pursuits to accept of that honour. In 1745, he published an account of his new invented fire-place. See FIRE-PLACE, § 2. In 1747, he was elected a member of the General Assembly, where he supported the rights of the citizens in opposition to the proprietaries. In 1749, he completed the plan of the Philadelphia Academy, upon the most liberal principles, which was incorporated in 1753. Franklin had now conducted himself so well in his office of postmaster to the province, that in 1753, he was appointed deputy post-master general for the British Colonies; and in his hands this branch of the revenue soon yielded thrice as much annually as that of Ireland. Yet none of these public avocations pre-

vented his making important discoveries in science. The Leyden experiment in ELECTRICITY had rendered that science an object of general curiosity, Mr Franklin applied himself to it, and distinguished himself so eminently in that science as to attract the attention and applause of not only the Count de Buffon, and other French philosophers, but even of Lewis XV. himself. He was the first who thought of securing buildings from lightning; and he was also the first inventor of the electrical kite; having completed his experiment in June 1752, a full year before M. DuRoi's discovery. His theory of positive and negative electricity has likewise received the sanction of public approbation; though many think it not fully capable of supporting itself. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*. His theories were at first opposed by the members of the Royal Society in London; but in 1755, when he returned to America, they voted him the gold medal, which is annually given to the author of a memoir on the most curious and interesting subject. He was likewise admitted a member of the Society, and had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him by the universities of St Andrews, Edinburgh, and Oxford. When the war broke out between Britain and France, he returned to America, to take a share in the public affairs of his native country. About 1753, he set on foot, and prevailed upon the Assembly to establish the Pennsylvania hospital. In 1754, the American colonies having suffered much by the depredations of the Indians on their frontiers, he drew up and presented to the commissioners from several colonies, a plan of union (called the *Albany Plan*, from the place where it was first met,) which, though unanimously approved by the commissioners, was at last rejected, by the assemblies, as giving too much influence to the president, who was to be appointed by the British, and disapproved of by the British ministry, as giving too much power to the representatives of the people. This rejection on both sides affords the strongest proof of the excellency and impartiality of his plan, as suited to the situation of Britain and America at that period. It appears to have steered exactly between the opposite interests of both countries. In 1757, he restored tranquility to the province, by an amicable and equitable settlement of the differences that had long subsisted between the proprietaries and the people, as to taxation. In 1766, he travelled into Holland and Germany, and in 1767, he visited France, and was every where received with the greatest marks of attention by men of science. He was introduced in the latter kingdom to Lewis XV. Returning to England in 1767, he was examined before the house of commons concerning the Stamp act. In 1773, having been appointed agent for Pennsylvania, he again came over to England, while the disputes between Great Britain and America were on the point of coming to extremities; when he attracted the public attention by a letter on the duel betwixt Mr Whatley and Mr Temple, concerning the publication of gov. Hutchinson's letters. On the 28th Jan. 1774, he was examined before the privy council on a petition he had presented long before, as agent for Massachusetts Bay against Mr Hutchinson: but this

being disagreeable to ministry, was precipitately rejected, and Dr Franklin was soon removed from his office of postmaster general. He was now looked upon by government with a jealous eye, that it was proposed to treat him as a fomentor of rebellion. The Doctor, however, departed for America in the beginning of 1775 with such privacy, that he had left before it was suspected that he entertained such design. Being elected a delegate to the Continental Congress, he had a principal share in drawing up the declaration of independence. In 1776 he was deputed by Congress to Canada, to persuade the Canadians to throw off the British yoke; but they had been so disgusted with the hot-headed zeal of the English, who had burnt some of their towns, that they refused to listen to the proposition, though enforced by all the arguments Dr Franklin could urge. On his return to Philadelphia, Congress, sensible how much he was esteemed, sent him to finish the negotiations with Silas Dean. This important commission was readily accepted by the Doctor, though then in the 71st year of his age. The event is well known; a treaty was signed between France and America; and M. le Roi asserts, that the Doctor had advised M. Maurepas not to lose a single day, if he wished to secure the friendship of America, and to detach it from the mother country. In 1777 he was regularly appointed plenipotentiary from Congress to the French court. He had just seen the full accomplishment of his mission by the conclusion of the peace in 1783, which confirmed the independence of America, and he was about to be recalled, and Mr Jefferson was sent to succeed him. Dr Franklin arrived in Philadelphia in Sept. 1785, and was received with the acclamations of a vast multitude, who conducted him in triumph to his own house. For many days he was visited by the members of Congress and the principal inhabitants. He was afterwards twice elected president of the assembly. In 1786, he was appointed a delegate from Pennsylvania, for revising the articles of confederation; and he signed the new constitution in the name of the State. He was also chosen president of the *American Society for alleviating the miseries of the African*, and of the *Pennsylvania Society for promoting the Abolition of Slavery*. His last public act was a memorial on this subject, 12th Feb. 1789. The greatest part of his life he had been afflicted with asthma. In 1735, indeed, he was attacked with a pleurisy, which ended in a suppuration of the lower lobe of the lungs, so that he was almost suffocated by the quantity of matter thrown up. In this, as well as another attack, he recovered completely, that his breathing was not affected. As he advanced in years, however, he was again subject to fits of the gout, to which interictic colic was added. From this time he was also subject to the stone, and during the last year of his life these complaints almost confined him to his bed; notwithstanding which, neither his mental abilities nor his health forsook him. His memory was tenacious to the last; a remarkable instance of which was, that he learned to speak French after he was

70. About 16 days before he died, he was seized with a feverish disorder; which, about the 3d or 4th day, was attended with a pain in the left breast, accompanied with a cough and laborious breathing. Thus he continued for 5 days, when the painful symptoms ceased; but a new impotency had now taken place in the lungs, which suddenly breaking, he was unable to expectorate the matter fully. Hence the difficulty of respiration increased, and he expired on the 17th April 1790. He left one son, governor William Franklin, a zealous loyalist; and a daughter, married to Mr William Bache merchant in Philadelphia, who waited upon him during his last illness. Dr Franklin was sententious but not fluent in society; more inclined to listen than to talk; and an instructive rather than a pleasing companion. With regard to religion, after renouncing his sceptical principles, as neither true nor beneficial to society, he became a firm believer in the Scriptures; and his sentiments on death may be gathered from a letter written about 35 years ago to Miss Hubbard on the death of her father-in-law and his brother, Mr John Franklin. "We are spirits (says he); That bodies should be lent us while they can afford us pleasure, assist us in acquiring knowledge, or doing good to our fellow creatures, is a kind and benevolent act of God. When they become unfit for these purposes, and afford us pain instead of pleasure; instead of an aid they become an incumbrance, and answer none of the intentions for which they were given: it is then equally kind and benevolent, that a way is provided by which we may get rid of them. Death is that way. Our friend and we are invited abroad, on a party of pleasure, that is to last for ever. His carriage was first ready, and he is gone before us; we could not all conveniently start together; and why should you and I be grieved at this, since we are soon to follow, and know where to find him?" The Doctor was author of many tracts on electricity, and other branches of natural philosophy, on politics and miscellaneous subjects. The following epitaph on himself was written by Dr Franklin many years before his death:

The BODY of
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, PRINTER,
Like the COVER of an OLD BOOK,
Its contents torn out,
And stript of its lettering and gilding,
Lies here food for worms.
Yet the WORK itself shall not be lost;
For it will (as he believed) appear once more,
In a NEW and MORE BEAUTIFUL EDITION,
Corrected and amended

BY THE AUTHOR.

(II.) FRANKLIN, Thomas, D. D. chaplain to his majesty, was the son of Richard Franklin, printer of a famous anti-ministerial paper called, *The Craftsman*; in the conducting of which he was greatly assisted by Lord Bolingbroke, Mr Pulteney, and other excellent writers, who opposed Sir Robert Walpole's measures. By Mr Pulteney's advice, young Franklin was devoted to the church, under a promise of being provided for by the patriot; who, however, forgot it, and neglected him. He was educated at Westminster; whence

whence he went to Cambridge, became fellow of Trinity college, and professor of Greek. In Dec. 1758, he was named vicar of Ware and Tunbridge; afterwards lecturer of St Paul's, and at last rector of Braford in Kent. He was long a favourite in the literary world. His translations of Phalaris, Sophocles, and Lucian, evince his learning and genius, as they are equally distinguished for fidelity, and congeniality with the spirit of the originals. He suffered a translation from the French of Voltaire's works to be printed in his name; but the Orestes and Electra are supposed to be all that were really by him. His own dramatic compositions, particularly the tragedies of *The Earl of Warwick* and *Matilda*, are deservedly esteemed. He died, March 15, 1784.

(III.) * **FRANKLIN.** *n. s.* [from *frank.*] A steward; a bailiff of land. It signifies originally a little gentleman, and is not improperly Englished a gentleman servant. Not in use.—

A spacious court they see,
Both plain and pleasant to be walked in,
Where them does meet a *franklin* fair and free.

Fairy Queen.

(IV—XIX.) **FRANKLIN**, in geography, the name of 6 counties, 8 townships, an island, and a fort, in the United States of America, viz.

1. **FRANKLIN**, a county of Georgia, in the Upper District, seated on the Tugulo, which separates it from S. Carolina, containing 885 citizens, and 156 slaves, in 1790.

2. **FRANKLIN**, a populous and well cultivated county of Kentucky, bounded by Scott, Shelby, Fayette, and Woodford counties. Frankfort is the capital.

3. **FRANKLIN**, a county of N. Carolina, in Halifax district, bounded by the Greenville, Warren, Johnston, Wake, and Orange counties; containing 4842 citizens, and 2717 slaves, in 1790. Lewisburg is the chief town.

4. **FRANKLIN**, a fertile county of Pennsylvania, seated chiefly between the N. and S. Mountains, comprehending 800 square miles, or 512,000 acres. It is divided into 11 townships, and contained 15,325 citizens, and 330 slaves, in 1790. Iron is found in it. Chambersburg is the capital.

5. **FRANKLIN**, a county of Vermont, bounded on the N. by Lower Canada, and W. by Lake Champlain; containing 25 townships.

6. **FRANKLIN**, a county of Virginia, bounded by Bedford, Campbell, Patrick, and Montgomery counties; 40 miles long and 25 broad. It comprehends a part of the Alleghany mountains on the NW. and contained 5769 citizens, and 1073 slaves, in 1790.

7. **FRANKLIN**, an islet of Maine district, in Lincoln county, in the mouth of St George's river, 12 miles S. of Thomaston.

8. **FRANKLIN**, a township of Connecticut, in New London county, 6 miles NW. of Norwich, containing above 1000 citizens, in 1790, chiefly farmers.

9. **FRANKLIN**, a township of Massachusetts, in Norfolk county, bounded on the N. by the Charles, containing 1700 acres, and above 1100 citizens, 30 miles S. of Bolton.

10—13. **FRANKLIN**, four townships of Pennsyl-

vania, in Fayette, Washington, W. and York counties.

14, 15. **FRANKLIN**, two townships of in Delaware and Dutchess counties.

16. **FRANKLIN, FORT**, a fort of P in Alleghany county, near Venango, bank of the Alleghany, 63 miles N. of Lon. 79. 41. W. Lat. 41. 1. N.

FRANKLINIAN DOCTRINE, or electricity. See **ELECTRICITY**, *Inde.*

FRANKLINVILLE, a town of K miles ESE. of Frankfort.

* **FRANKLY.** *adv.* [from *frank.*] ly; freely; kindly; readily.—

Oh, were it but my life,
I'd throw it down for your deliver
As *frankly* as a pin. *Shak. Me.*

If ever any malice in your heart
Were hid against me, now forgive

Shak.

—When they had nothing to pay, he gave them both. *Luke*, vii. 42.—By the of the earth the sap cannot get up to spryly as it should do. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—garden more for being full of blackbirds, and very *frankly* gave them fruit for *Spect.* 2. Without constraint.—The ted their servants upon their own horse with the volunteers, who *frankly* listened amounted to a body of two hundred horse. *Clarendon.* 3. Without referred very *frankly* into those new del were contrived at court. *Clarendon.*

* **FRANKNESS.** *n. s.* [from *frank*] nels of speech; openness; ingenuou the Conde duke had some eclairecism duke, in which he made all the protest sincere affection, the other received him with all contempt; and declared, with cellary *frankness*, that he would have with him. *Clarendon.*—Tom made a man of sense, and always treated her ring the whole time of courtship: his per and good breeding hindered him any thing disagreeable, as his sincerit nels of behaviour made him converse fore marriage in the same manner he do afterwards. *Addis. Guardian.* 2. bounteousness. 3. Freedom from delivered with the *frankness* of a true word by word, what Kalandar ha touching the strange story. *Sidney.*—men that ever were, have had all an c *frankness* of dealing, and a name of c veracity. *Bacon.*

FRANKPIEDGE. See **FRANK**,

(1.) **FRANKS, FRANCES, FRANK** quis, a name which the Turks, Arab &c. give to all the people of the west Europe. The appellation is common to have had its rise in Asia, at the erofades; when the French made it fiderable figure among the croiées: time the Turks, Saracens, Greeks, &c. used it as a common term for a tians of Europe, and called Europe **KISTAN.** The Arabs and Mahometans

term *Franks* not only to the name originally belonging to the Latins and Europeans in general, but also to the appellation *Franks*, by which the Greeks, he says, at first called the *Franci*, or German Franks, who were settled in Gaul; (see **FRANCE**), and after they had been conquered by the Romans, and at length they extended it to all the sense is the name used by several writers, as *Comnenus*, &c. who to distinguish them from the *western Franks*, called them the *eastern Franks*, that about the time of Charlemagne distinguished eastern France, western or Roman France, and Germany, which was the ancient France after **FRANCONIA**.

FRANKSTOWN.

FRANKSTADT, a town of Moravia, in Prerau, 4 miles S. of Freyberg.

FRANKSTADT. See **FRAUSTADT**.

FRANKTOWN, or **FRANKS**, a town and borough of Pennsylvania, in Huntingdon county, on the branch of the Juniatta, 20 miles W. of Harrisburg.

FRANKFELD, or **PUSKOWITZ**, a town of Prussia, 12 miles NW. of Festenberg.

FRANKOU, a town of France, in the dept. of the Nord, 12 miles W. of Abbeville.

FRANMONT, a town of the Helvetic Republic, on the Doubs, 16 miles N. of Besancon and 23 W. of Soleure.

FRANVILLE, a town of France, in the dept. of the Seine, 6 miles SE. of Rouen.

FRANKS. See **FRANKS**, N° 1.

FRANTICK. *adj.* [corrupted from *phrenetick*, Lat. *phreneticus*.] 1. Mad; deprived of reason by violent madness; outrageously mad.

He wonders what makes him so glad,
As ' merry fruit they did invent,
That *frantick* rites have made them mad.

Fairy Queen.
Tossed by violence of passion; outrageous.—Esteeming, in the *frantick* error of the senses, the greatest madness in the world, and the highest wisdom foolishness.

At a height their *frantick* passion grows,
And both love, both hazard to destroy.

Dryden.
She has her hair, and, *frantick* in her griefs,
Lucia.

Addison's Cato.
Mad.—

The lover, *frantick*,
His beauty in a brow of Egypt. *Shak.*
FRANTICKLY. *adv.* [from *frantick*.] Mad-
dly; outrageously.—

How *frantickly* I square my talk.

Shak.
FRANTICKNESS. *n. s.* [from *frantick*.] Mad-
ness; distraction.

FRANKFORD, a town of Silesia, in the prin-
ce of Neisse, 4 miles N. of Neisse.

FRANKFURT, Wolfgang, professor of divi-
nity at Erfurt, was born in 1564. He wrote,

PART I.

1. *Animalium Historia Sacra*: 2. *De Interpretatione Sacrarum Scripturarum*. He died in 1620.

FRANZBURG, a town of Up. Saxony, in Swedish Pomerania, founded in 1587, 14 miles S. of Stralsund. Lon. 30. 36. E. of Ferro. Lat. 54. 9. N.

FRASCATI, or **FRESCATI**. See **FRESCATI**.

(1.) **FRASERBURGH**, or **FRASERSBURGH**, a small sea-port town in Aberdeenshire, seated on the S. extremity of the Murray Frith, called Kinnaird's Head. It was erected in the 16th century, on Sir *Alex. Fraser's* estate, whence the name. It has a good harbour, made and kept up at a considerable expence by the proprietor and the town, and well adapted for building small vessels. There are from 12 to 15 feet water within the harbour, and 20 feet immediately without at spring tides; without is a tolerable road for shipping, in a bay nearly a league in length and half a league in depth, with good anchorage in a sandy bottom. Vessels of about 200 tons burden enter the harbour. Fraserburgh contains about 1600 inhabitants, and is well situated for trade with the east coast of Europe. The town has lately advanced considerably, and requires only encouragement to render it a port of importance. At present it carries on a small trade to the east sea; several manufactories are forming in its neighbourhood. It is 16 miles E. of Banff, and 40 N. of Aberdeen. Lon. 1. 16. E. of Edinburgh. Lat. 57. 37. N.

(2.) **FRASERBURGH**, a parish of Scotland, on the coast of Aberdeenshire, so named from the above town, (N° 1.) but anciently called **PHILORTH**. It is 6 miles long from N. to S. 3½ broad, and 4 along the coast; comprehending above 10,000 acres, intersected by the parish of Rathven. The soil is various but mostly fertile, though intermixed with mosses and moors. The climate is dry and healthy, and many of the natives long-lived. Husbandry is much improved, and inclosures are general. Barley, oats, pease, and beans, are the most general produce; potatoes, turnips, cabbages, and clover, are also cultivated, with some wheat and flax. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. Alexander Simpson, in his report to Sir John Sinclair, was 2200, and had increased 518 since 1755. Linen yarn is the chief manufacture. Kelp is also made on the coast. Cod, ling, turbot, haddocks, lobsters, &c. are taken in great quantities. Fish and grain are exported.

FRASLA, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, 10 miles W. of Cilly.

FRASSINETO, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Bari, 9 miles SSW. of Conversano.

FRASTENTZ, a town of Germany, in the county of Feldkirk, 2 miles E. of Feldkirk.

FRAT, the name given by the Asiatics to the **EUPHRATES**.

(1.) **FRATELLI**, two small islands in the Mediterranean, 25 miles W. of Scarpanto.

(2.) **FRATELLI**. See **FRATRIBELLI**.

(1.) **FRATELLINI**, Joanna, a celebrated Italian paintress, born at Florence, in 1666. She acquired an excellent stile in painting historical subjects and miniatures, and was patronized by the archduchess Victoria. She died in 1731.

K

(2.) **FRAT**

(2.) **FRATELLINI**, Laurence Maria, the son of Joanna, (N^o 1.) was born in 1690, and studied under Gabbiani. He painted portraits, animals, landscapes, and historical subjects, admirably. He died in 1729.

(1) * **FRATERNAL**, *adj.* [*fraternal*, French; *fraternus*, Lat.] Brotherly; pertaining to brothers; becoming brothers.—

One shall rise

Of proud ambitious heart; who, not content

With fair equality, *fraternal* state,

Will arrogate dominion undeserv'd,

Over his brethren. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

—The admonitions, *fraternal* or paternal, of his fellow Christians, or of the governors of the church; then more public reprobations; and upon their unsuccessfulness, the censures of the church, until he reform and return. *Hammond.*—

Plead it to her,

With all the strength and heats of eloquence,

Fraternal love and friendship can inspire.

Addis. Cato.

(2.) **FRATERNAL AFFECTION** is the love and attachment subsisting among, or due to one another by, children of the same family. An hearty benevolence, an ardent concern for each other's welfare, and a readiness to serve and promote it, are the peculiar offices of this relation. See *Cicero, De Officiis.*

* **FRATERNALLY**, *adv.* [from *fraternal*.] In a brotherly manner.

FRATERNISATION, *n. s.* [from *fraterniser*, Fr. to fraternise,] one of the many new words to which the French revolution has given birth, literally signifies the act of living together as brethren; but in an enlarged sense, it is used for the act of one nation voluntarily agreeing with another, to be governed by the same laws, or to live in strict alliance, and under the same democratical form of government, with another.

To **FRATERNISE**, *v. n.* [*fraterniser*, Fr.] To live together like brothers. *Bailey.* This verb is also now used in the same enlarged political sense with the noun. See last article.

(1.) * **FRATERNITY**, *n. s.* [*fraternité*, Fr. *fraternitas*, Lat.] 1. The state or quality of a brother. 2. Body of men united; corporation; society; association; brotherhood. — 'Tis a necessary rule in alliances, societies, and *fraternities*, and all manner of civil contracts, to have a strict regard to the humour of those we have to do withal. *L'Esrange.* 3. Men of the same class or character.—With what terms of respect knaves and fops will speak of their own *fraternity*. *South.*

(2.) **FRATERNITY**. See COMPANY and GUILD.

(3.) **FRATERNITY**, in the Roman Catholic system, signifies a society for the improvement of devotion. Of these there are several sorts; as, 1. The fraternity of the refectory, founded by St Dominic. It is divided into two branches, called the *common refectory* and the *perpetual refectory*; the former of whom are obliged to confess and communicate every first Sunday in the month, and the latter to repeat the refectory continually. 2. The fraternity of the sepulchry, whom the blessed Virgin, according to the sabbatine bull of pope John XXII. has promised to deliver out of hell the first Sunday after their death. 3. The fraternity of St

Francis's girdle are clothed with a sack colour, which they tie with a cord; ancessions walk bare-footed, carrying in th a wooden cross. 4. That of St Austin's girdle comprehends many devotees. Ital and Portugal are the countries where the number of these fraternities, some of which the name of *arch-fraternities*, are to be Pope Clement VII. instituted the arch of charity, which distributes bread every among the poor, and gives portions to girls on the feast of St Jerome their pa The fraternity of death buries such dead abandoned by their relations, and causes be celebrated for them.

FRATHORP, a town S. of Burlington

FRATINO, a town of Maritime A the prov. of Triuli, 9 miles W. of Conco

FRATRES ARVALES. See ARVALES

FRATRIAGE, *n. s.* the partition anthers, or coheirs, coming to the same int

FRATRICELLI, or **FRATELLI**, [Ital. *terculi*, little Brothers,] in ecclesiastical hi enthusiastic sect of Franciscans, which ro ly, particularly in Ancona, about A. 1 The word was used as a term of derision were most of them apostate monks.

reason the term, as a nick-name, was many other sects, as the Catharists, W &c. however different in their opinion their conduct. But this denomination, at the austere part of the Franciscans, was ed as honourable. See FRANCISCANS. I ders were P. Maurato, and P. de Foss who having obtained of pope Celestin mission to live in solitude, after the manne mits, and to observe the rule of St Fra its rigour, several idle vagabond monk them, who, living after their own fan making all perfection to consist in pover soon condemned by pope Boniface VIII successor, and the inquisitors ordered to against them as heretics; which commit executed with their usual barbarity. U retiring into Sicily, Peter John Oliva de had no sooner published his Comment c pocalypse, than they adopted his opinion held the Romish church to be Babylon, posed to establish another far more per They maintained, that the rule of St Fra the evangelical rule observed by Jesus C his apostles. They foretold the reformati church, and the restoration of the true Christ, by the genuine followers of St and declared their assent to almost all the which were published under the name o bet Joachim, in the "*Introduction to the ing Gospel*," a book published in 1250, plained by one of the spiritual friars, wh was Gerhard. Among other enormiti cated in this book, it is pretended that s was the angel mentioned in Rev. xiv, 6. promulgated to the world the true and e gospel of God; that the gospel of Chri be abrogated in 1260, and to give place to gospel; and that the ministers of this gn mation were to be humble and bare-foot destitute of all worldly employments. &

elect a pope of their church; at least elected a general, with superiors, and built cities, &c. Besides the opinions of Oliva, &c. that the sacraments of the church were because those who administered them, were an abuse of power or jurisdiction. They were condemned by pope John XXII. in case of whose cruelty they regarded him as antichrist; but several of them returned to Germany were sheltered by Lewis, duke of Bavaria, the emperor. There are authentic records which it appears that no less than 2000 were burnt by the inquisition, from 1318 to the time of Innocent VI. for their inflexible attachment to the poverty of St Francis. The strongest of them were again revived towards the end of the 15th century, by pope Nicolas V. and his successors. However, all the persecutions, his sect endured, were not sufficient to destroy it; for it subsisted till the time of the reformation in Germany, when its remaining votaries embraced the doctrine and discipline of Luther. This has led Popish writers to charge it with many enormities, some of which are mentioned by Bayle, under the article, FRAUD.

They had several other denominations were called *Dulcini*, from one of their chiefs; *Bizzochi*, *Requins*, and *Begharai*.
FRATRICIDE. *n. s.* [*fratricide*, French; *fratricida*, Lat.] The murder of a brother.
FRATTA, a market town of Maritime Austria, 10 m. of Rovigo, on the Soortico, containing churches, and many palaces.
FRIBRUNNEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, 5 miles N. of Bern, near which a battle was fought by the Bernese over an army of English, and Normans, under S. de Coureay.
FRAUD. *n. s.* [*fraus*, Lat. *fraude*, Fr.] Deceit; trick; artifice; subtilty; stratagem.

Our better part remains
 in close design, by *fraud* or guile,
 which force effected not. *Milton.*

we need the *frauds* of sly Ulysses' fear.
Dryden's Æn.

If success a lover's toil attends,
 asks if force or *fraud* obtains his ends.
Pope.

FRAUD, in law, signifies deceit in grants, advances of lands, &c. or in bargains and goods, &c. to the damage of another person. A fraudulent conveyance of lands or goods, to defraud creditors, as to creditors is void in law. A fraudulent conveyance, to defraud purchasers, is void; and the persons giving or putting off such grants as goods, shall forfeit the value of the lands, and the full value of the goods and chattels, and likewise shall be imprisoned. See CHEAT, § 3.

FRAUDFUL. *adj.* [*fraud* and *ful*.] Treacherous; artful; trickish; deceitful; subtle.—
 The welfare of us all
 hangs on the cutting throat that *fraudful* man.
Shak. Hen. VI.

He, full of *fraudful* arts,
 well-invented tale for truth imparts.
Dryden's Æn.

FRAUDFULLY. *adv.* [from *fraudful*.] Deceitfully; artfully; subtilly; treacherously; by stratagem.

* **FRAUDULENCE**. *n. s.* [*fraudulentia*, Lat.]
 * **FRAUDULENCY**. *n. s.* Deceitfulness; trickishness; proneness to artifice.—We admire the Providence of God, in the continuance of the Scripture, notwithstanding the endeavours of infidels to abolish, and the *fraudulence* of hereticks always to deprave the same. *Hesker.*

* **FRAUDULENT**. *adj.* [*fraudulens*, Fr. *fraudulentus*, Lat.] 1. Full of artifice; trickish; subtle; deceitful.—
 He with serpent tongue
 His *fraudulent* temptation thus began. *Milton.*

She mix'd the potion, *fraudulent* of soul;
 The potion mantled in the golden bowl. *Odys.*
 2. Performed by artifice; deceitful; treacherous.—
 Now thou hast aveng'd
 Supplanted Adam,
 And frustrated the conquest *fraudulent*. *Milton.*

* **FRAUDULENTLY**. *adv.* [from *fraudulent*.]
 By fraud; by deceit; by artifice; deceitfully.—
 He that by fact, word, or sign, either *fraudulently* or violently, does hurt to his neighbour, is bound to make restitution. *Taylor.*

FRAUENBACH, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Elbe, 2 miles SW. of Colleda, in Thuringia.

(1.) **FRAUENBERG**, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Pilsen, 5 miles SW. of Hayd.

(2.) **FRAUENBERG**, a town of Bavaria, in the palatinate of Neuburg, 9 miles NW. of Ratisbon.

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A part of the inscription be not effaced, it does not tally with that recorded by Gassendi, who says, p. 325, in his life of Copernicus, that bishop *Martin Cromer*, a celebrated Polish historian, caused to be erected to the memory of that great astronomer *unam tabulam marmoream*, with this inscription;

D. O. M.

N. D. NICOLAO COPERNICO
TORUNENSI. ARTIUM ET
MEDICINÆ DOCTORI.
CANONICO VARMIENSI.
PRÆSTANTI ASTROLOGO ET
EJUS DISCIPLINÆ INSTAURATORI.

MARTINUS CROMERUS
EPISCOPUS VARMIENSIS
HONORIS ET AD POSTERITATEM
MEMORIÆ CAUSA POSUIT.

M,D,LXXI.

Gassendi adds, that it was 36 years after the death of Copernicus; but this does not agree with the date of our stone. My Canon had for his apartment the Dormitory of Copernicus, and he kindly asked me to pay it a sentimental visit, an invitation you may believe I accepted with emotion, and enjoyed with pleasure. Above the range of the Dormitories there is another little apartment, which my guide allotted to the memory of his great predecessor, and which he has decorated with his portrait in oil colours, well preserved, and perhaps only a copy from some original painting. It was from this place that Copernicus enjoyed a fine scope of the heavens and a large horizon; here that he made the heavens his study, and rendered himself a luminary of the first magnitude, in the constellation of modern astronomers; and when he found it necessary to make his observations in the open air, there is a little gallery or terrace, that communicates with this apartment, and the adjoining steeple, or belfry, which served to accommodate the great Copernicus in his researches. You, my Lord, are able to conceive the divine satisfaction I enjoyed in this place!—classic and sacred!—where I inhaled as it were the spirit of departed greatness! and it was the shock of these transcendent emotions, that made me to forget the stone I have described in the former part of my letter, my time being elapsed and my carriage ready to depart. Near the cathedral my Canon showed me a large reservoir of water, with a high tower which contains the remains of a hydraulic machine, said to have been invented by Copernicus, for carrying and distributing the water by pipes to the different apartments of the canons, his brethren: a convenience now lost, and which, from the ruin of the machine, they are obliged to fetch from a fountain in the lower part of Frauenbourg. I have read in an old German Journal, that in the ancient town of KÖNIGSBERG there are or were preserved many of the books belonging to Copernicus at the time of his death, with his portrait in oil colours, which were purchased at Thorn, probably in his house in that town, possessed by the family so late as the year 1720; and in this house Copernicus was born.”—Frauenbourg was built in 1279, and lies 38 miles SW. of Königsberg.

FRAUENBREITUNGEN, a town of Prussia, in the county of Henneberg, on the 4 miles W. of Schmalkalden.

FRAUENBURG, a town in the duchy of Saxe, 20 miles SSE. of Goldingen.

FRAUENFELD, a town of the Helvetia, the capital of the late bailiwick of 7 It was taken from the Austrians by the 1460. Great part of it was burnt in 1771 20 miles NE. of Zurich. Lon. 8. 56. E. 35. N.

FRAUENMARCK, a town of Hungary NE. of Levens.

(1.) FRAUENSTEIN, a castle of Germany, 5 miles N. of Crainberg.

(2.) FRAUENSTEIN, a town of Upper Saxony, the Mulda, in Erzgebürg, 11 m. SSE. of F.

FRAUENTHAL, a town of Germany, duchy of Stiria, 10 miles S. of Voitsburg

(1.) * FRAUGHT. *n. f.* [from the past participle of *fraught*.] A freight; a cargo.—

Yield up, oh love, thy crown and throne

To tyrannous hate! swell, bosom, with
fraught;

For 'tis of aspicks tongues. *Shak.*

The bark that all our blessings bore
Charg'd with thyself and James, a double
fraught.

(2.) * FRAUGHT. *particip. pass.* [from the past participle of *fraught*.] 1. Laden; charged.

In the narrow seas that part
The French and English, there miscar
A vessel of our country, richly *fraught*
With joy

And tidings *fraught*, to hell he now re
Milton's Paradise Lost

And now approach'd their fleet from
fraught

With all the riches of the rising sun,
And precious sand from southern
brought.

2. Filled; stored; thronged.—The Sea
fraught even with the laws of nature. *H.*

By this sad Una, *fraught* with anguish
Arriv'd, where they on earth their bliss
spilt.

—I am so *fraught* with curious business
leave out ceremony. *Shak.*—Whosoever
mind *fraught* with many thoughts, his
understanding do clarify and break up in
communicating and discoursing with another

Hell, their fit habitation, *fraught* with
Unquenchable, the house of woe and
Milton's Paradise Lost

—Abdallah and Belfora were so *fraught*
kinds of knowledge, and possessed with
stant a passion for each other, that their
never lay heavy on them. *Addison.*

* To FRAUGHT. *v. a.* [for *freight*, by
tion.] To load; to crowd.—

Hence from my sight:

If after this command thou *fraught* the
With thy unworthiness, thou dy'st. *Shak.*

* FRAUGHTAGE. *n. f.* [from *fraught*.]
ing; cargo. A bad word.—

Our *fraughtage*, sir,
I have convey'd aboard. *Shak. Comedy of Errors*

FRA

HEIM, a town of Germany, in Stiria.

HOFEN, a town of Germany, in Lower
3 miles S. of Landshut.

NBERG, a town of Germany, in Stiria,
SE. of Oberwoltz.

REUTH, a town of Upper Saxony, in
ty of Reuss, 6 miles NE. of Greitz.

LAUSTADT, a town of Silesia, on the
of Poland, 70 miles NW. of Breslau, re-
for a battle gained by the Swedes over
in 1706. Lon. 15. 50. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

AUSTADT, or Wschowa, a town of Po-
the frontiers of Silesia, and in the pala-
Pofen; 48 miles W. of Posen.

WENLOB, Henry, a German author,
some books in favour of the fair sex.
1317, his funeral was attended by a great
fradise, who poured so large a quantity
over his grave as to overflow the church.
a river in Anglesea.

INELLA, in botany. See *Dictamnus*.
remarkable of this odorous plant, that,
full blossom, the air which surrounds it
light, may be inflamed by the approach
of a candle. Dr Watson doubts whether
flammability proceeds from an inflammable
d by the plant, or from some of the finer
the essential oil of the plant being dissol-
common atmospherical air. The latter,
he thinks, is most probable, for were it
inflammable air, it would, on account of
specific gravity, leave the plant as soon
it produced. Common air acquires the
of becoming inflammable, by being trans-
through several essential oils.

INUS, the *ASH*: A genus of the diœcia
longing to the polygamia class of plants;
natural method ranking under the 44th
series. There is no hermaphrodite calyx,
adipartite; and there is either no corolla,
trapatulous: there are two stamina; one
a lanceolated seed; and the pistil of the
in lanceolated. There are 6 species; of
the most useful is the common ash. See
1. If a wood of these trees is rightly
it will turn out greatly to the advantage
ner: for, by the underwood, which will
cut every 8 or 10 years, there will be a
income, more than sufficient to pay the
the ground and all other charges; and still
be a stock preserved for timber, which
years will be worth 40s. or 50s. per tree.
flourishes best in groves, but grows very
rich soil in open fields. It bears trans-
and lopping. In Lancashire they lop the
these trees to feed the cattle in autumn
grass is on the decline; the cattle peel
the bark as food. The wood has the sin-
property of being nearly as good when
when old. It is hard and tough, and is
ed to make the tools employed in hui-

The albes of the wood afford very good
The bark is used in tanning calf skin.
infusion of it appears of a pale yellowish
when viewed between the eye and the light;
when looked down upon, or placed betwixt
and an opaque object, it appears blue. This
is destroyed by the addition of an acid,

but recovered by alkalis. The seeds are acrid and
bitter. In the church-yard of Lochaber, Dr Wal-
ker measured the trunk of a dead ash tree, which,
at 5 feet from the surface of the ground, was 58
feet in circumference.—Horses, cows, sheep, and
goats eat it: but it spoils the milk of cows.

* FRAY. *n. s.* [*effrayer*, to fright, Fr.] 1. A bat-
tle; a fight.—

Time tells, that on that ever blessed day,
When Christian swords with Persian blood were
dy'd,

The furious prince Tancredi from that *fray*
His coward foes chased through forests wide.

Fairfax.

After the bloody *fray* at Wakefield fought.

Shak. Henry VI.

He left them to the fates in bloody *fray*,
To toil and struggle through the well-fought
day.

Pope.

2. A duel; a combat.—

Since, if we fall before th' appointed day,
Nature and death continue long their *fray*.

Denham.

The hoaster Paris oft desir'd the day

With Sparta's king to meet in single *fray*. *Pope.*

3. A broil; a quarrel; a riot of violence.—

I'll speak between the change of man and boy
With a reed voice, and turn two mincing steps
Into a manly stride; and speak of *frays*,
Like a fine bragging youth.

Shak.

* To FRAY. *v. u.* [*effrayer*, Fr.] 1. To fright;
to terrify.—

The panther, knowing that his spotted hide
Doth please all beasts, but that his looks them
fray,

Within a bush his dreadful head doth hide,
To let them gaze, whilst he on them may prey.

Spenser.

So diversly themselves in vain they *fray*,

Whilst some more bold to measure him stand
night.

Spenser.

—Fishes are thought to be *frayed* with the motion
caused by noise upon the water. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

—These vultures prey only on carcases, on such
stupid minds as have not life and vigour to *fray*
them away. *Gov. of the Tongue.* 2. [*frayer*, Fr.]
To rub.

FRAYLES, a cluster of islands in the W. Indies,
6 miles NE. of Margarita.

FRAYPONT, a town of the French republic,
in the dep. of Ourte, and ci-devant bishopric of
Liege; seated on the Weze; 8 miles SE. of Liege.

FRAZE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure
and Loire; 12 miles E. of Nogent le Rotrou.

FRAZERSBURG. See FRASERBURGH.

FREA, or FRIGGA, the wife of Odin, or Wo-
den, was, next to him, the most revered divinity
among the Heathen Saxons, Danes, and other
northern nations. As Odin was believed to be fa-
ther, Frea was esteemed the mother of all the o-
ther gods. In the earliest times, Frea was the
same with the goddesses HERTHUS, or EARTH,
who was so devoutly worshipped by the Angli
and other German nations. But when Odin, the
conqueror of the north, usurped the honours due
only to the true Odin, his wife Frea usurped those
which had been formerly paid to mother Earth.
She was worshipped as the goddess of love and
pleasure,

pleasure, who bestowed on her votaries a variety of delights, particularly happy marriages and easy births. To Frea the sixth day of the week was consecrated, which still bears her name, *Friday*, or *Frea's day*.

* **FREAK**. *n. s.* [*frecb*, Germ. *fucy*, petulant; *frac*, Sax. fugitive.] 1. A sudden and causeless change of place. 2. A sudden fancy; a humour; a whim; a capricious prank.—

O! but I fear the fickle *freaks*, quoth she,
Of fortune, and the odds of arms in field. *F. Q.*
—When that *freak* has taken possession of a fantastical head, the distemper is incurable. *L'Estr.*
—She is restless and peevish, and sometimes in a *freak* will instantly change her habitation. *Spett.*

To vex me more, he took a *freak*

To slit my tongue, and make me speak. *Swift.*

* To **FREAK**. *v. a.* [A word, I suppose, Scotch, brought into England by *Thomson*.] To variegate; to checquer.—

There furry nations harbour:

Sables of glossy black, and dark embrown'd,
Or beauteous, *freak'd* with many a mingled hue.

Thomson.

* **FREAKISH**. *adj.* [from *freak*.] Capricious; humourish.—It may be a question, whether the wife or the woman was the more *freakish* of the two; for she was still the same uneasy top. *L'Estr.*

* **FREAKISHLY**. *adv.* [from *freakish*.] Capriciously; humourishly.

* **FREAKISHNESS**. *n. s.* [from *freakish*.] Capriciousness; humourishness; whimsicalness.

FREAM, *n. s.* in husbandry, ploughed land worn out of heart, and laid fallow till it recover.

* To **FREAM**. *v. n.* [*fremere*, Lat. *fremir*, Fr.] To growl or grunt as a boar. *Bailey.*

FREATS, or **FREITS**, *n. s. obs.* a term still used in Scotland for *ill omens*, and sometimes denoting accidents supernaturally unlucky. K. James VI. in his *Demonologie*, MS. pen. Edit. B. I. ch. IV. p. 13.

“But I pray you forget not lykeways to tell what are the Devill's rudimentis? E. His rudimentis I call first in general all that quhilk is called vulgairelie the virtu of woode, herbe, and staine; quhilk is used by unlawfull charmis without natural causis. As lykeways all kynd of prattiques, *freitis*, or uther lyk extraordinair actions, quhilk cannot abyde the tressw twiche of natural raison.” It occurs again in the same sense in p. 14, *marg. note*; and in p. 41, speaking of *Sorcerers*; “And in generall that naime was gevin thaine for using of sic chairmis and *freitis*, as that craft teachis thaine.”

FRECHILLA, a town of Spain in the province of Leon; 17 miles NW. of Valencia.

FRECKELBEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Deßau; 30 miles WSW. of Deßau.

FRECKENHORST, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Munster, 1 m. SW. of Wardendorf.

(1.) * **FRECKLE**. *n. s.* [*flecch*, a spot, German; whence *fleckle*, *freckle*.] 1. A spot raised in the skin by the sun.—

Ruddy his lips, and fresh and fair his hue;
Some sprinkled *freckles* on his face were seen,
Whose dusk set off the whiteness of the skin.

Dryden.

2. Any small spot or discoloration.—

The cowslip tall her pensioners be;
In their gold coats spots you see:

Those be rubies fairy favours;

In those *freckles* live their favours. S
—The farewell frosts and easterly wind
your tulips; therefore cover such with
prevent *freckles*. *Evelyn.*

(2.) **FRECKLES** (**LENTIGINES**) are a yellowish colour, of the bigness of a lentil, scattered over the face, neck, and hands. They are either natural, or proceed from the action of the sun upon the part. A sudden change of weather will often make the skin appear of a darker colour than is natural, and thereby produce what is called *tan*, *sunburn*, *morpheau*; which seem to differ only in degree, and usually disappear in winter. Persons of a fair complexion, and those whose hair is red, are most subject to freckles, especially in parts exposed to the sun and air. To remove freckles, put a few lemons in a glass vial, and, mixing it with oil and borax finely powdered, let it digest for some days, and then use it. Homberg proposes gall mixed with alum, and, after the precipitation, exposed 3 or 4 months to the sun in a close vial, as one of the best menstrua for removing freckles.

* **FRECKLED**. *adj.* [from *freckle*.] Spotted; discoloured with small spots.

Sometimes we'll angle at the brook
The *freckled* trout to take
With filken worms. *Drayton.*

The even mead that erst brought swarms
The *freckled* cowslip,
Wanting the scythe, all uncorrected,
Conceives by idleness. *Spenser.*

Now thy face charms ev'ry shepherd
Spotted over like a leopard;
And, thy *freckled* neck display'd,
Envy breeds in ev'ry maid.

* **FRECKLY**. *adj.* [from *freckle*.] Full of freckles.

* **FRED**. The same with *peace*; as our forefathers called their sanctuaries *i. e.* the seats of peace. So *Frederick* is or wealthy in peace; *Winifred*, victorious; *Reinfred*, sincere peace. *Gibson's Canine.*

FREDBERG, or **FREDEBERG**, a rich town of Germany, in Misnia, remarkable for being the burying-place of princes and of the house of Saxony. A lightful place, seated on the river Mulda 40. E. Lat. 51. 2. N.

FREDDO, a river of Sicily, in the valley of the mona, which runs into the Mediterranean.

FREDEBURG, or **FREDENBURG**, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, 52 miles E. of Cassel, and 50 W. of Cassel. Lon. 8. 16. E. Lat. 51. 16. N.

FREDEGARIUS, an ancient French king who wrote a *Chronicle*, which extends to 641; preserved in Duchesne's collection.

FREDELAND, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania, 60 miles SSW. of Dantzick.

FREDENBURG. See **FREDEBURG**.

FREDENWALDE, a town of Germany, in Brandenburg, 11 miles S. of Prenzlau.

(1.) **FREDEKICA**, a town of Delaware county, 7 miles N. of Milford, and 88 miles S. of Philadelphia.

(2.) **FREDERICA**, a town of Georgia, on the island of St Simons, at the mouth of the Savannah river.

and fortified by General Oglethorpe.

W. Lat. 31. 0. N.

ICHRODE, a town of Germany, in Ty., 6 miles S. of Gotha.

ICHSHULE, a town of Upper Sax- duchy of Crotten, 5 miles SE. of Zu-

ICHTHAL, a town of Upper Sax- 300, 6 miles W. of Senftenberg.

ICHSWALDE, a town of Upper 300, on the Ilma, 3 miles NW.

ICIA, a strong sea port town of Den- 300, Jutland, seated on the Little Belt. 300, Synagogue, 1 Calvinist, 1 Popish, 300, eren churches; a custom house, a 300, dock, and a good arsenal. Lon. 7. 4. 300, 37. N.

FREDERICK, the name of 11 Euro- 300, pers, viz. 2 emperors of Germany, 3 300, Denmark, and 2 kings of Prussia; and 300, names of other 2 kings of Prussia, and 300, . See DENMARK, § 6-8; GERMANY, 300, and PRUSSIA. Amongst these we shall 300, be notice of the 3 following:

FREDERICK I., king of Prussia, the son of 300, William, the Great, elector of Bran- 300, as born in 1657; and succeeded his 300, electorate, A.D. 1688. In 1700. he 300, a negotiation with the emperor, Leo- 300, ger Prussia erected into a kingdom; 300, this obtained by a singular accident. 300, arances were rather unpromising, he 300, letter from his minister written in 300, ring him to use the interest of a cer- 300, tain, he mistaking the ciphers, ap- 300, e emperor's confessor; who, being a 300, so much struck with the *honour* done 300, *Protestant elector*, that he exerted his 300, est and that of his order, to procure 300, and object. Frederick was according- 300, king of Prussia, Jan. 18, 1701. He 300, with many virtues. He was magni- 300, fers, constant to his marriage vows, 300, the true interest of his subjects, by 300, his dominions in peace. He was three 300, ed: his 2d queen was sister to king 300, He founded the university of Halle, 300, al academy at Berlin. He died in 1713.

FREDERICK II. surnamed the GREAT, K. of 300, ie of the greatest warriors the present 300, duced, was the son of Frederick-Wil- 300, hereditary prince of Brandenburg, and 300, ophia Dorothea, daughter of king 300, He was born in 1712, the year before his 300, ated the throne, who was so far from 300, ation of literature, that he regarded 300, it what related to the military art; and 300, generals scarce knew how to sign their 300, his son was of a disposition the very re- 300, ing put from his birth under the care of 300, coule, a French lady of great merit and 300, ling, he early acquired a taste for liter- 300, a predilection for the French language, 300, re never obliterated. At 7 years of age, 300, derick was put under the military tuition 300, Count de Finkestein, and Col. de Kalk- 300, cer, renowned for courage and experi-

ence. He was taught mathematics and fortifica- 300, tion by Major Senning; Han de Jendun, a French- 300, man, instructed him in other branches of know- 300, ledge; and a cadet of the name of *Kenzel*, taught 300, him his exercise. At 8, he was furnished with a 300, small arsenal, stored with all sorts of arms pro- 300, portioned to his age and strength, of which his 300, father left him absolute master. Soon after he 300, was named captain and chief of the corps of 300, cadets; and he performed every day, in minia- 300, ture, with his little soldiers, all the evolutions 300, with which his father exercised his giants. At 300, last he received the command of a company in 300, his father's famous gigantic regiment composed 300, of men of whom scarce one was short of 7 French 300, feet. Endued however, with a taste for the arts, 300, he devoted to their cultivation every moment he 300, could escape the vigilance of his guardians. He 300, was particularly fond of poetry and music, and 300, when he could find a moment's leisure, read 300, French authors, or played on the flute; but his 300, father, as often as he surprised him playing or read- 300, ing, broke his flute and threw his books into the fire. 300, The prince, chagrined at this treatment, and 300, having a great desire to visit Germany, England, 300, France, and Italy, desired permission to travel. 300, This, however, his father refused, but permitted 300, him to accompany himself occasionally into Ger- 300, many; and, in 1728, took him to Dresden to see 300, the king of Poland. By these little expeditions the 300, prince's desire to travel was only the more inflam- 300, ed; so that at last he resolved to set out without 300, his father's knowledge. The design was imparted 300, to two of his young friends, named *Kat* and *Keit*; 300, money was borrowed, and the day of departure 300, fixed, when unluckily the whole project was dis- 300, covered. The old king, indignant in his retri- 300, but, and considering his son as a deserter, de- 300, termined to put him to death. He was shut up 300, in the fortress of Custrin; and it was with diffi- 300, culty that the count de Senkendorf, sent purposely 300, by the emperor Charles VI. was able to alter the 300, king's resolution. Certain vengeance, however, 300, was determined on both his intended assassins. 300, Keit escaped the danger by flying into Holland; 300, but Kat had not that good fortune. The king 300, first directed that he should be tried by a court- 300, martial; but as they only sentenced Kat to per- 300, petual imprisonment, the revengeful monarch, by 300, an unheard-of exercise of his prerogative, caused 300, him to be beheaded. The execution was per- 300, formed under the windows of the prince, whose 300, face being held towards the scaffold by 4 gren- 300, diers, he fainted away at the shocking sight; and 300, during the remainder of his life he considered 300, capital punishments with so great a degree of 300, horror, that they were rare throughout his domi- 300, nions while he reigned. When the emperor had 300, succeeded in preventing the execution of Frederick, 300, the old king remarked, that "Autumn would 300, one day see what a serpent she had nourished." 300, The prince remained prisoner a year at Custrin; 300, during which time his father wished that he should 300, learn the maxims of government and finance. 300, For this purpose M. de Munchow, president of 300, the chamber of domains and finances, was order- 300, ed to make him assist at all their assemblies, to 300, consider him as a simple counsellor and to treat 300, him

him as such. But though Frederick assisted at their meetings, he did not trouble himself with reading acts or copying decrees. Instead of this, he amused himself sometimes with reading French pamphlets, and at others with drawing caricatures of the president or members of the assembly. Munchow was also very favourable to the prince at this time, by furnishing him with books and other articles of amusement, notwithstanding the express prohibition of his father; though in this he certainly ran a great risk of his life. Frederick, after this, was recalled to Berlin, on pretence of being present at the celebration of his eldest sister's marriage with the hereditary prince of Bareith; but the true reason was, that the king had now prepared a match for the prince himself. This was the princess Elizabeth Christina of Brunswick, niece to the empress. Frederick, who was not only totally indifferent to the fair sex in general, but particularly prejudiced against this princess, made some objections; his father, however, overcame all obstacles with "his usual arguments (says the author of the life of Frederick), viz. his cane, and a few kicks." But the coldness which Frederick at this time showed for the fair sex was not natural; for as early as 1723, though then only in his 11th year, he fell in love with the princess Anne, daughter of K. George II. Even at this early period he vowed to refuse every other but her for his consort; nor was his vow ever broken, as far as depended on himself. This marriage might have taken place, had it not been for some differences, which arose between the courts of Prussia and Hanover about *a few acres* of meadow land, and two or three Hanoverians enlisted by the Prussian recruiters. The princess whom he espoused had a large share of beauty, and, what was still better, an excellent heart; but Frederick is said to have suffered so much in his former amours, that certain unsurmountable impediments remained to the completing of his marriage with any woman. Scarcely therefore was he in bed with his young spouse, when a cry of *Fire!* was raised by his friends. Frederick got up to see where the conflagration was, but finding it a false alarm, he sent messengers to compose the princess; but neither that night, nor any other, did he ever disturb her rest. On this occasion, Frederick received from his father the county of Rupin. He resided in Rupin, the capital, for some time; but afterwards preferred Rheinsberg, which then contained only 1000 inhabitants. Having inscribed over the great gate of the castle, FREDERICO TRANQUILLITATEM COLENTI, his father was displeased with it, and therefore hurried him into the noise and tumult of war. The succession to the crown of Poland had kindled a general war throughout Europe, and the king of Prussia was to send 10,000 auxiliaries to the imperial army, then commanded by prince Eugene. The king conducted his troops in person, and took this opportunity of giving his son an idea of war. At this time, however, he learnt but little, and only saw, as he expressed it, the shadow of the great Eugene. That consummate general, however, predicted that he would one day be a great captain. Frederick having gone to reconnoitre the lines at *Philipburg*, in his return through a very open

wood, was exposed to the cannon which thundered incessantly. The number of branches on every side of withstanding which, he never caused move quicker; nor altered the main hand which held the bridle; but conversed calmly with the generals with him. During this campaign the health of the king was so much impaired, that Frederick for some time intrusted with signing all orders in his name. On his recovery the prince returned to Stetten, under the prince of Dessau fortifications. He was afterwards sent to Rheinsberg to see king Stanislaus, who was remarkable for his philosophy and confidence for his misfortunes. With him Frederick resided for some weeks, and contracted a friendship which was not dissolved but by death. Frederick was allowed to return to his peaceful residence at Rheinsberg, where he remained till the death of his father. In this place his time was spent alternately by the study of the arts and sciences and the pleasures of friendship. Philosophy, history, politics, the military art, poetry, agreeably succeeded each other, and he spent his time in a stated period. The prince passed the greater part of the day in his library; and the remainder of the day in the society of a select company of learned men. In these meetings, gaiety generally prevailed, but the generals to speak of war, musicians to play to the ear, and excellent painters to decorate the apartments. The morning was usually spent in study; agreeable conversation prevailed in the afternoon; and every evening there was a concert. In this retreat Frederick contracted an ardent passion for military glory, for which he became at last so remarkable; and here he formed the most sublime and daring projects, fired with a desire of imitating the heroes of antiquity, of whom he read in the works of ancient authors. He never spoke but with the assurance of the great warriors of Greece and Rome, and when seated on the throne, though not distinguished as an able soldier in a military manner, than by conferring on his subjects the surname. Hence he distinguished by the name of *Quintus Icilius*. M. Guichard, who had written some treatises on the military art of the ancients, gave him at the same time a free battle. In his pursuit of glory Frederick cultivated the friendship of celebrated poets, philosophers, and men; and commended, complimented, flattered all the most celebrated literati of that time. "The philosophers (says the author of his life) answered him as a mad lover to his mistress. They wrote to him that he was a great poet, a great philosopher, the greatest man of the north. All these hyperboles were too much for him, and Solomon was not sorry for it, though he had too much understanding to believe in the Rollin, Graveland, Maupertuis, Algarotti, were honoured with his correspondence. The last especially, accustomed to offer sacrifices to the idol of the day, were it transported from the dunghill to the altar, did not fail to call the first man of the universe a prince in the expectancy of the throne, and who at that time he was the greatest philosopher of

the poet in the world." That Frederick set up his character with the literati, or on a real predilection for his principles, and the *Apology of Wolf*, (a philosopher rather had banished, for writing a work disharmonious,) and had his principal inflated into French. He even prevailed on his father to relax a little in favour of the philosopher. In 1736, a letter was sent to Frederick, inviting him to return; but he ventured to make his appearance till his protector was seated on the throne, his residence at Rheinsberg, composed his refutation of the principles of Machiavel, under the title of *Anti-Machiavel*; he sent the MS. to Voltaire to correct, and printed. The old king, now worn with infirmity, saw with regret the predilection retained for men of letters; and, in his old age, often threatened the whole society of men in the fortress of Spandau. His frequent occasions a violent alarm to his joyous company at Rheinsberg, which all the eloquence of Frederick to quiet. His passions, however, were removed, in the old monarch died on the 31st of May, and left the throne to his son. The possession of a kingdom did not abate Frederick's love of literature, though to this he was now superadded the qualities and labours of a

His transactions in this character will be under the article Prussia; and therefore it remains to be said here, than to relate the events by which we may be able to trace the progress of this great and singular monarch. After his accession, gone into Prussia, he went to receive the homage of the provinces, he formed a resolution of proceeding as far as Paris. Being discovered at Paris, however, he laid aside his design, and went to see his states in Lower Germany. He wrote the celebrated Voltaire, that he would be *inognito* to visit him at Brussels; but he died with an indisposition in the little town of Cleves, two leagues from Cleves, he went to that philosopher, requesting him to make his first advances. The following curious anecdote given by him of his reception, &c. My guard I found at the gate was one of the privy counsellor, Rambonet, was dressed in the court: he had large ruffles on his coat; a hat full of holes; and an old peruke, one end of which descended to his pockets, and the other scarcely reached his shoulder. I was conducted into his apartment, where there was nothing remarkable. I perceived in a cabinet, by the side of a taper, a truckle bed, two feet long and wide, on which lay a little man in a night-gown of coarse blue cloth. The king, in a strong perspiration, and lying under a wretched blanket, in a state of the ague. I bowed to him; and feeling his pulse, as if I had been his physician. The fit over, he dressed himself and went to table. Algarotti, Kayserling, and the king's minister to the states of Prussia, were of the party; where

PART I.

we conversed profoundly on the immortality of the soul, on liberty, and the androgynes of Plato." This rigid economy, and contempt of every luxury, was maintained by Frederick as long as he lived. The following account, likewise from Voltaire, will give an idea of his manner of living. "He rose at 5 A. M. in summer, and 6 in winter. A lacquey came to light his fire, and dress and shave him; though indeed he almost wholly dressed himself. His room was not inelegant. A rich balustrade of silver, ornamented with little cupids, seemed to enclose an alcove bed, the curtains of which were visible; but behind them, instead of a bed, there was a library: the king slept on a truckle bed with a slight mattress concealed behind a screen. Marcus Aurelius and Julian, those apostles of Stoicism, did not sleep in a more homely manner. At 7 his prime minister arrived with a great bundle of papers under his arm. This prime minister was no other than a clerk, who had formerly been a soldier and valet-de-chambre. To him the secretaries sent all their dispatches, and he brought extracts of them, to which the king wrote answers in two words on the margin: and thus the affairs of the whole kingdom were expedited in an hour. At 11 the king put on his boots, reviewed his regiment of guards in the garden, and at the same hour the colonels were following his example in their respective provinces. The princes his brothers, the general officers, and one or two chamberlains, dined at his table; which was as good as it could be in a country where there is neither game, tolerable butcher's meat, nor a pullet, and where the very wheat is brought from Magdebourg. After the repast he retired alone into his cabinet where he made verses till 5 or 6 o'clock. Then came a young man named D'Arget, who read to him. A little concert began at 7, in which the king played on the flute with as much skill as the first performer; and pieces of his composition were frequently executed. Supper was served in a little hall, the most singular and striking ornament of which was a fine picture of Priapus. These repasts were not in general the less philosophic on that account. Never did men converse in any part of the world with so much liberty respecting all the superstitions of mankind, and never were they treated with more pleasantry and contempt. God was respected: but none of those who had deceived men in his name were spared. Neither women nor priests ever entered the palace. In a word, Frederick lived without a court, without counsel, and without religious worship." As Frederick had espoused his princess contrary to his inclination, it was imagined that on his accession, he would set himself free from engagements so disagreeable to himself. The queen impressed with suspicions of this kind, was on the point of fainting away when he made his first visit to her. To the surprise of all parties, however, he made her a very affectionate speech, apologizing for his indifference, and inviting her to participate with him the throne of which she was so worthy. In the 1st year of his reign, he restored the academy of sciences at Berlin; See ACADEMY, § XIII, N° 15. His war with the queen of Hungary, however, which took place almost immediately after his accession.

for some time prevented him from taking such an active part in literary matters as he was inclined to do. After the peace, he gave full scope to his passion for literature; and in the interval betwixt the conclusion of the first war and beginning of that of 1756, he composed most of his works; particularly his *History of my own Time*. Voltaire was his principal literary correspondent, whom he invited to reside with him. Afraid of losing his liberty, that philosopher hesitated, excused himself, and entered into pecuniary treaties. At last he was determined by seeing a poem from Frederick to M. D'Arnaud, in which the latter was compared to the rising, and Voltaire to the setting, sun. By this Voltaire was so much piqued, that he set out for Berlin without delay, and arrived there in June 1750. He was received in the most magnificent and affectionate manner, and for some time his situation was very agreeable; but the disputes and rivalry which took place betwixt him and Maupertuis soon threw every thing into confusion. In these the king interfered in such a manner as was certainly below his dignity; and he often exercised himself in making a jest of the other men of letters, in a way which induced many of them to leave him. The squabbles with Voltaire were sometimes very diverting; See VOLTAIRE. They ended at last in a final quarrel with that wit, and his departure from the kingdom. The restless disposition of Frederick showed itself after his departure, by his attempts to provoke the literati who remained at his court, to quarrel with him as Voltaire had done. But they were of too passive a disposition to gratify him in this respect, choosing rather to suffer the most mortifying strokes of raillery, or to leave the kingdom, than to contend with him. This proved so uneasy to the king, that he one day exclaimed, "Shall we have no more quarrels then?" The breaking out of the war in 1756, however, put a stop to this diversion, and afforded him as many enemies as he could wish. The exploits he performed, during the 7 years which this unequal contest lasted, are almost incredible; (See PRUSSIA;) and it is amazing how the fortitude and resolution of any man could enable him to sustain the difficulties which during this period he encountered. Once however even the resolution of Frederick was on the point of giving way. After the battle of Colin, when his affairs seemed altogether desperate, he wrote to his sister at Bareith, that he was on the point of putting an end to his own life. And as he wished to have it said that he made verses even on the brink of the grave, he wrote a long poetical epistle to the marquis d'Argens, in which he communicated to him his design, and bade him farewell. His affairs, however, took a better turn, and such desperate thoughts were laid aside. But his constitution was irreparably injured by the excessive fatigues he had sustained. Soon after the peace, his body began to bend, and his head to incline to the right side: by degrees he became very infirm; he was tormented with the gout, and subject to frequent indigestions. All his distempers, however, were born with invincible patience; and, till a very short time before his death, he never ceased to attend his reviews, or visit the provinces. He has

been known to review his troops, and go through all the ranks, as if he felt no pain, with an abscess, which approached to a suppuration, touched the saddle. In Aug. 1785, he improved his health still farther by assisting at a review, where he was exposed without a cloak to a heavy rain for 4 or 5 hours. On his return to Potsdam he was seized with a fever; and, for the first time, became unable to assist at the military exercises. His malady, however, did not prevent him from dictating the disposition of these exercises during the 3 days they lasted. About the end of August the fever left him, but was succeeded by a violent cough; by which he was greatly weakened, and prevented from sleeping; but this did not interrupt either the execution of business, or the routine of his literary exertions; wherein he continued to employ himself till the day he died. On the 17th and 18th of May 1786, he was unable to assist at the ordinary reviews. At last his disorder terminated in a dropsy. He was now no longer able to remain in bed, he sat up day and night in an arm-chair with springs, which could be moved at pleasure. For near a month before his death the swelling of his feet gave him violent pain, so that he wished an incision to be made; but the surgeon refused to perform the operation, suspecting that it might hasten his death. Nature, however, accomplished his cure: his right leg opened, and discharged such a quantity of matter, that he was greatly relieved. On the 16th Aug. 1786, his throat began to swell violently; and he soon after fell into a coma, though from this he recovered so far as to be able to speak. His respiration and voice became gradually more feeble; and he expired on the evening of the 17th, at 19 minutes after 2, in the 75th year of his age, and 47th of his reign. This great monarch was of the middle size, with large blue eyes and a piercing look. He spoke German incorrectly, and in a very rough manner, but talked French very fluently and agreeably. His constitution was naturally feeble, but he greatly improved it by his laborious life. He was the art of relieving every one from that embarrasment, which is apt to occur in accosting a monarch. His universal knowledge enabled him to converse on all subjects. He talked of war with the soldier, of verses with the poet, of agriculture with the farmer, of jurisprudence with the lawyer, of commerce with the merchant, and of politics with the Englishman. He had a very retentive memory; was fond of solitude and gardening, and took great pleasure in dogs, of which animals he constantly kept a number about him, giving them little balls to play with. In company, he was fond of asking questions and jesting; in which at last proceeded such lengths as undoubtably were unbecoming in a superior towards his subjects. In military affairs he was excessively severe, not to say cruel; of which the following anecdote may serve as an instance. In the first war of Frederick with Russia, wishing to make some alteration in his army during the night, he forbade every person, under pain of death, to keep, after a certain hour, any light in his tent. He himself was in the rounds; and in passing the tent of a captain, he perceived a light. Entering the tent,

tain sealing a letter to his wife, for a great affection. "What are you (says he ;) Do you know the order?" fell on his knees and asked pardon. (says Frederick), and add a few words to dictate to you." Zittern obeyed; dictated, "To morrow I shall die." The unfortunate man wrote them, was executed. His cruel treatment ENCK is well known. In matters of justice, he was more arbitrary than we have a notable example in the of Arnold the miller. This man had by the rent of his mill, on pretence in which turned it had been diverted and. But as the water which ran in also ran out of it into the same channel, the miller evidently suffered no damage, judges therefore gave sentence against him, not only reversed their sentence of them. For this he was celebrated in the newspapers in Europe; and yet he was wrong, and afterwards even acknowledged to have been so: but notwithstanding he not only made no reparation to the king, but allowed them to lie in prison. He entertained most unaccountable prejudices against certain places and persons, and his conduct nor merit could eradicate. One of the most unfortunate places was Westphalia, never conferred any bounty; and one of that country, a man of great merit, proposed to him for a place, he refused, because he is a Westphalian; he is good for nothing. Voltaire justly accuses him of ingratitude. Count de Seckendorf; who saved his life, whom he conceived the most indebted. His neglect of others who afforded him the most essential service, was shameful. A robust butcher prevented him from falling, and all, over a precipice, where both undoubtedly have been killed, the king on the spot and saying, *Thank you friend*, rode away, never enquiring farther about his preceptor. With regard to his literary merits, he was not without having corrected his works, and having furnished him with materials for writing. He has been accused of stealing scraps of poetry from Voltaire, Boileau, and others; nor does the charge seem well founded. Such of his verses, as have undergone correction, are very indifferent. But let us mention the foibles of Frederick, it will record his acts of virtue. Upon his death he created his mother with great respect, she should bear the title of *Queen Mother* instead of addressing him as *His Majesty*. He should call him *son*. As he was passing between Berlin and Potsdam, a thousand men had been marked out for military service surrounded his coach, and cried out "deliver us from our slavery." He granted them their liberty, and next day ordered the soldiers to be taken off. He granted a general pardon of religion, and among other things he con- veyed the profession of free masonry. This monarch was illustrious, as well

for the variety of characters he sustained, as for the important vicissitudes he experienced. But the pacification of Dresden, in 1745, enabled him to appear in a character far more glorious than that of the conqueror of Silesia. He was now entitled to the noblest eulogy, as the wise legislator of his country. Exclusive of his general attention to agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, he peopled, in particular, the deserts of Pomerania, by encouraging, with royal bounties, a great number of industrious emigrants to settle in that province; the face of which, in a very few years, underwent the most agreeable alteration. Above 60 new villages arose amidst a barren waste; and every part of the country exhibited marks of successful cultivation. Those desolate plains, where not a footstep had been seen for ages, were now converted into fields of corn; and the happy peasants, under the protection of a patriot king, sowed their grounds in peace, and reaped their harvests in security.

iii. FREDERICK V. king of Denmark, reigned 20 years, and on his death bed, expressed his satisfaction to his son Christian VII, in a circumstance, which few monarchs can boast who have reigned so long. "It is a great consolation to me my son, (said he) in my last moments, that I have not injured any person, and that my hands are not stained with one drop of blood." See DENMARK.

(XII.) FREDERICK, Colonel, the son of Theobald, king of Corsica, by an Irish lady of the noble family of Lucan, was born in Spain, and had a liberal education, and was also well qualified for the military line. He came to England in 1754, and taught the Italian language for some years. He afterwards went to the continent where he obtained the rank of Colonel, and the cross of merit, from the late duke of Wurtemberg: for whom he acted as agent, upon his return, and disposed of a regiment to the E. India Company. He married a German lady, while abroad, by whom he had a son, who fell in the American war, and a daughter. His finances falling low at last, he shot himself, at Westminster Abbey, on the 1st Feb. 1796. He was a man of general knowledge, and considerable talents. He wrote, 1. *Memoires pour servir l'histoire de Corse*, 8vo, 1768. 2. The description of Corsica; with an account of its union to the crown of Great Britain, 8vo, &c. 1796.

(XIII.) FREDERICK, in geography, the name of two counties, 2 towns, and a fort, in the United States; viz.

1. FREDERICK, a county of Maryland, bounded on the N. by Pennsylvania, E. by Baltimore, SW. by the Potomac, and W. by Washington; extending 30 miles every way. There are 37 mills, an iron and glass manufactory in it. It had 27,159 citizens, and 3,641 slaves in 1795. Fredericktown is the capital.

2. FREDERICK, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by Berkley, E. and S. by the Shannandoah, and W. by Hampshire; 30 miles long, and 20 broad. It contained 15,431 citizens, and 4,230 slaves, in 1795. It abounds with lime-stones and iron ore; iron works have been erected which produce from 800 to 1000 tons of iron annually. Winchester is the chief town.

3. **FREDERICK**, a fort of Maryland, in Washington county, on the Potomac, near Pennsylvania.

4. **FREDERICK**, a town of Maryland, in Cecil county, on the Sassafras, 6 miles SW. of Warwick. Lat. 39. 22. 30. N.

5. **FREDERICK**, a township of Pennsylvania, in Montgomery county.

6. **FREDERICK**, a town of New Brunswick, on the N. side of St John's river. Lon. 66. 45. W. Lat. 46. 3. N.

FREDERICK-AUGUSTUS I, king of Poland, the son of John George III. elector of Saxony, was born at Dresden in 1670, and succeeded his father in 1694. He made several campaigns against the French and Turks; and having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, he was elected king of Poland, in 1697. But having joined with Peter the Great, and Frederick IV, of Denmark, against Charles XII. of Sweden, tho' at first very successful, he was at last constrained to sign a treaty in 1706, resigning his crown to Stanislaus Leczinski. See SWEDEN. After the battle of Pultowa, however, he was restored to his throne. See POLAND. He died in 1733. He was endued with great personal strength, and undaunted courage.

FREDERICK-AUGUSTUS II, king of Poland, the son of the preceding monarch, was born in 1696, and elected in 1734. The latter years of his reign were very unfortunate. In 1756, the king of Prussia invaded Saxony, and retained it till the peace of 1763. Frederick Augustus died Oct. 5th 1763. See POLAND.

FREDERICKENBURG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt Zerbst, 1 mile SW. of Zerbst.

FREDERICK-LEWIS, Prince of Wales, the eldest son of K. George II, and father of his present Majesty, was born, Jan. 31st, 1707. He came over to England in Dec. 1728; married Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, May 1736, by whom he had 9 children; and died March 31st, 1751, very much regretted, being a prince of an excellent character and disposition. See ENGLAND, § 81.

FREDERICK-NAGORE, a town of Bengal, belonging to Denmark, 18 miles above Calcutta, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ below Chandernagore. See BENGAL, N° 1, § 10.

(1.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a castle and palace of the king of Denmark, in the isle of Zealand, 15 miles NW. of Copenhagen. Lon. 12. 25. E. Lat. 55. 52. N.

(2.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a fort on the Gold Coast of Guinea, in Africa, near Cape Threepoints, 62 miles from Cape Coast Castle. It is subject to Denmark. Lon. 1. 5. W. Lat. 4. 30. N.

(3.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Pomerania, formerly called Quarckenburg, 30 miles SSW. of Colberg.

(4.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a town of Virginia, in Spotsylvania county, on the SW. bank of the Rappahannock, 110 miles from its mouth. It contains about 200 houses; the chief street runs parallel with the river. It had 1413 citizens and 587 slaves in 1790. It is 50 miles SSW. of Alexandria. Lon. 77. 16. W. Lat. 38. 22. N.

FREDERICKSHALL, a town of Norway in the province of Aggerhuys, on the frontiers of Sweden, and on the extremity of the Swinesund,

at the mouth of the Tiste. The harb and commodious; but the saw-dust bro the river from the mills occasions an pence to clear it. It contains 3000 in and lies 31 miles SE. of Christiania, and Uddevalla. Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 59. 2

FREDERICKSHOLM, a fort of 10 miles S. of Christiansand.

FREDERICKSODE, a town of De Jutland, taken by the Swedes in 1657, subject to Denmark. It is seated near 1 m. N. of Sleswick. Lon. 10. 0. E. Lat.

FREDERICKS-SUND, a sea port of in the isle of Zealand, 10 miles NW. hagen. Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 55. 50. N.

(1.) **FREDERICKSTADT**, a town mark, in S. Jutland, built in 1621. It on the river Eyder, 17 miles WSW. of Lon. 9. 10. E. Lat. 54. 26. N.

(2.) **FREDERICKSTADT**, a town of N the prov. of Aggerhuys, seated on the 26 miles W. of Frederickshall. Lon. Lat. 59. 2. N.

FREDERICKSTEIN, a strong fort way, on the summit of a rock, which **FREDERICKSHALL**; famous for the Charles XII. killed while besieging it, i

(1.) **FREDERICKSTOWN**, a town of York, in Dutchess county; which contains 63 slaves in 1795.

(2.) **FREDERICKSTOWN**, a town of the county of Tyrone, and province of

FREDERICKSVORN, a town of N the prov. of Aggerhuys 3 miles S. of L

FREDERICKSWERK, a seaport of on the N. coast of Zealand, where foundery for cannons, &c.

FREDERICKTON, a township of N wick, 90 miles up St John's river.

FREDERICKTOWN, a flourishing Maryland, capital of Frederick county, Carroll's creek, containing 700 houses for Presbyterians, German Lutherans, and Baptists, a court-house, &c. It is by N. of Baltimore, and 148 SW. of Pl Lon. 77. 30. W. Lat. 39. 24. N.

(1.) **FREDERICK WILLIAM**, the Gr tor of Brandenburg, was born Feb. 6th. succeeded his father William George, it was declared the first sovereign duke of 1658, and died in 1688. See PRUSSIA.

(2.) **FREDERICK WILLIAM I**, K. the son of Frederick I. and grandson t ceding, was born Aug. 4th, 1688, and su father in 1713. He was a man of nar violent passions, and of an arbitrary His chief pride was to be master of th giment in Europe. See PRUSSIA. 1740, and was succeeded by his son Fr Great.

(3.) **FREDERICK-WILLIAM II**, late sia, and grandson to the preceding mo born Sept. 25th 1744, and succeeded hi derick the Great, in 1786. He was first promoters of the present war w and the first who deserted the coalition peace with the French republic. Se

tion. He died in 1797, and was his son Frederick-William III.

EE. adj. [*fresh*, Sax. *vy*, Dutch.] ; not a vassal ; not enslaved ; not a dependant.—A *free* nation is that never been conquered, or thereby any conditions of subjection. *Temple*.—What? and fetter'd with so many chains?

Dryden.
We think any one *freer* than to have do what he will? *Locke*.—

etch'd body trembles at your power : could fortune ; but she can no more : feel my potent mind remains, the victor's rage, nor feels his chains.

Prior.
Unhappy pris'ner *free*, intended harm to thee. *Prior*.

ed ; unrestrained.—Their use of it like unto our ceremonies, that be of private action in common life, man was *free* to order that which him—this is a publick constitution for the church. *Hooker*.—

ful homage, and receive *free* honours, we pine for now. *Shak. Macbeth*.
; and in my choice whether or no I in these discourses : yet the publick ice resolved, the dedication was not. *South*. 3. Not bound by fate ; not

hey stood who stood, and fell who fell : that proof could they have giv'n sincere legiance, constant faith, or love, y what they needs must do, appear'd ; they would ? *Milt. Par. Lost*.
; allowed.—

ir, I pray, are not the streets as *free* for you ? *Shak. Taming of the Shrew*.
ing as impure what God declares commands to some, leaves *free* to all.

Milton.
my cares my thoughts alone are *free*. sports with troubled thoughts agree, *Pope*.

s ; unrestrained.—
O conspiracy !

ou to shew thy dang'rous brow by
s are most *free* ? *Shak. Julius Caesar*.

are too *free* upon the subject, in the of their friends. *Temple*.—The cri-

ten very *free* in their censures. *Felton*.
there are to whose presumptuous ghts
r beauties, ev'n in them seem faults.

Pope.
ingenuous ; frank.—

, I have doubts within my heart ;
be *free* and candid to your friend ?
Otway's Orphan.

ed ; conversing without reserve.—
'Tis not to make me jealous ;
wife is fair, feeds well, loves company,
peech, sings, plays, and dances well,
tue is, these make more virtuous.

Shak. Othello.

—Being one day very *free* at a great-feast, he suddenly broke forth into a great laughter. *Hakewill*.

Free and familiar with misfortune grow,
Be us'd to sorrow, and inur'd to woe. *Prior*.
8. Liberal ; not parsimonious : with *of*.—

Glo'ster too, a foe to citizens,
O'ercharging your *free* purses with large fines,
That seeks to overthrow religion. *Henry IV*.

No statute in his favour says,
How *free* or frugal I shall pass my days ;
I, who at sometimes spend as others spare. *Hor*.

—Alexandrian verses, of twelve syllables, should never be allowed but when some remarkable beauty or propriety in them atones for the liberty : Mr Dryden has been too *free* of these in his latter works. *Pope*.

9. Frank ; not gained by importunity ; not purchased.—We wanted words to express our thanks : his noble *free* offers left us nothing to ask. *Bacon's New Atlantis*. 10. Clear from distress.—

Who alone suffers, suffers most i' th' mind,
Leaving *free* things and happy shows behind,
Shak. King Lear.

11. Guiltless ; innocent.—
Make mad the guilty and appal the *free*,
Confound the ignorant. *Shak. Hamlet*.

My hands are guilty, but my heart is *free*.
Dryden.

12. Exempt ; with *of* anciently ; more properly *from*.

These
Are such allow'd infirmities, that honesty
Is never *free* *of*. *Shak. Winter's Tale*.

Who fears not to do ill, yet fears the name ;
And *free* from conscience, is a slave to fame.
Denham.

Let envy, then, those crimes within you see,
From which the happy never must be *free*.
Dryden.

Their steeds around,
Free from the harness, graze the flow'ry ground.
Dryden.

—The will, *free* from the determination of such desires, is let to the pursuit of nearer satisfactions. *Locke*. 13. Invested with franchises ; possessing any thing without vassalage ; admitted to the privileges of any body : with *of*.—

He therefore makes all birds of every sect
Free of his farm, with promise to respect
Their several kinds alike, and equally protect.
Dryden.

What do'st thou make a shipboard ? To what end
Art thou *of* Bethlem's noble college *free* ?
Stark-staring mad, that thou should'st tempt the sea ?
Dryden.

14. Without expence ; by charity, as a *free-school*.
(2.) **FREE OR IMPERIAL CITIES** in Germany, are those not subject to any particular prince ; but governed, like republics, by their own magistrates. There were free cities (*liberae civitates*) even under the ancient Roman empire : such were those to whom the emperor, by the advice or consent of the senate, gave the privilege of appointing their own magistrates, and governing themselves by their own laws. See **CITY**, § 2.

(3.) **FREE FISHERY**. See **FISHERY**, § 4.

(4.) **FREE**

(4.) **FREE MASON.** See **MASON.**

(5.) **FREE WARREN.** See **WARREN**, § 2.

* **To FREE.** *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To set at liberty; to rescue from slavery or captivity; to manumit; to loose.—

The child was prisoner to the womb, and is
By law and process of great nature thence
Free'd and enfranchis'd; not a party to
The anger of the king, nor guilty of,
If any be, the trespass of the queen. *Shak.*
—He recovered the temple, *free'd* the city, and
upheld the laws which were going down. 2 *Mac.*
ii. 22.—

Can'st thou no other master understand,
Than him that *free'd* thee by the pretor's wand?
Dryden.

Should thy coward tongue
Spread its cold poison through the martial throng,
My jav'lin shall revenge so base a part,
And *free* the soul that quivers in thy heart. *Pope.*
2. To rid from; to clear from any thing ill: with
of or *from*.—It is no marvel, that he could think
of no better way to be *free'd of* these inconveni-
encies the passions of those meetings gave him, than
to dissolve them. *Clarendon.*—

Hercules

Free'd Erymanthus from the foaming boar. *Dryd.*
Our land is from the rage of tygers *free'd*.
Dryden.

3. To clear from impediments or obstructions.—
The chaste Sibylla shall your steps convey,
And blood of offer'd victims *free* the way.
Dryden.

Fierce was the fight; but hastening to his prey,
By force the furious lover *free'd* his way. *Dryd.*
This master-key

Frees every lock, and leads us to his person.
Dryden.

4. To banish; to send away; to rid. Not in use.
We may again

Give to our tables meat, sleep to our nights,
Free from our feasts and banquets bloody knives.
Shak.

Never any sabbath of release
Could *free* his travels and afflictions deep. *Daniel.*
5. To exempt.—For he that is dead is *free'd* from
sin. *Rom.* vi. 7.

FREE-BENCH, signifies that estate in copyhold
which the wife, being espoused a virgin, has af-
ter the decease of her husband for her dower, ac-
cording to the custom of the manor. In regard to
this free-bench, different manors have different
customs. In the manor of E. and W. Enbourne
in Berkshire, and other parts of England, there is
a custom, that when a copyhold tenant dies, the
widow shall have her free-bench in all the decea-
sed husband's lands, *dum sola & casta fuerit*,
“whilst she lives single and chaste;” but if she
shall be guilty of incontinency, she shall forfeit her
estate. Nevertheless, upon her coming into the
court of the manor riding backwards on a black
ram, with his tail in her hand, rehearsing a ridi-
culous and indelicate form of words in doggerel
rhymes, characteristic of the times in which they
were composed, the steward is bound by custom
to restore her to her free-bench.

(1.) * **FREEBOOTER.** *n. f.* [*free* and *booty*.]
A robber; a plunderer; a pillager.—Perkin was

not followed by any English of name, his
consisted mostly of base people and *free*
fitter to spoil a coast than to recover a k
Bacon.—The earl of Warwick had, as oft
met with any Irish frigates, or such *freebo*
sailed under their commission, taken all
open. *Clarendon.*

(2.) **FREEBOOTER**, or **FLIBUSTER**, was
nally a name given to the pirates who sco
American Seas, and made war against t
niards. See **BUCCANIER**.

* **FREEBOOTING.** *n. f.* Robbery; plun-
act of pillaging.—Under it he may cleanly
any fit pillage, that cometh handsomely in
and when he goeth abroad in the night
booting, it is his best and surest friend. *Sp*

* **FREEBORN.** *n. f.* [*free* and *born*.] Not
inheriting liberty.—

O baseness, to support a tyrant's th
And crush your *freeborn* brethren of th

—I shall speak my thoughts like a *freeb*
ject, such things perhaps as no Dutch co
tor could, and I am sure no Frenchma
Dryden's Æn. Ded.—

Shall *freeborn* men, in humble awe,
Submit to servile shame,

Who from consent and custom draw
The same right to be rul'd by law,
Which kings pretend to reign?

FREEBURG, a town in Yorkshire.

* **FREECHAPEL.** *n. f.* [*free* and *chape*
chapels as are of the king's foundation,
him exempted from the jurisdiction of th
ry. The king may also license a subject
such a chapel, and by his charter exempt
the ordinary's visitation. *Cowel.*

* **FREECOST.** *n. f.* [*free* and *cost*.]
expence; free from charges.—We must n
any man for an exact master in the rule
modern policy, but such a one as has
himself so far to hate and despise the ab
being kind upon *freecost*, as not so much
a friend what it is o'clock for nothing. *S*

(1.) * **FREEDMAN.** *n. f.* [*free* and
slave manumitted. *Libertus*.—

The *freedman* jostles, and will be p
First come, first serv'd, he cries. *D*

(2.) **FREEDMAN.** See **LIBERTUS**.

(1.) * **FREEDOM.** *n. f.* [from *free*.]
ty; exemption from servitude; indepen
The laws themselves they do specially
as most repugnant to their liberty and
freedom. *Spenser on Ireland.*—

O *freedom*! first delight of human
Not that which bondmen from their ma
The privilege of doles; nor yet t' inf
Their names in this or t'other Roman
That false enfranchisement with ease i
Slaves are made citizens by turning re
Dryd

2. Privileges; franchises; immunities.—

By our holy sabbath have I sworn
To have the due and forfeit of my bo
If you deny it, let the danger light
Upon your charter, and your city's f

3. Power of enjoying franchises.—This p

as to servants, so as to become citizens
privileges with the rest, which very much
the power of the people. *Swift*. 4. Ex-
rom fate, necessity or predetermination.

I else must change
ature, and revoke the high decree
geable, eternal, which ordain'd
freedom; they themselves ordain'd their
Milton.

fin, by how much the more free will
oice, by so much is the act the more
d where there is nothing to importune,
rove the will to any act, there is so
higher and perfecter degree of freedom
act. *South*. 5. Unrestraint.—I will that
its and sabbaths shall be all days of free-
e Jews in my realm. 1 *Mac*. 2. 6. The
ring without any particular evil or in-
ce.—The freedom of their state lays them
reater necessity of always chusing and
best things. *Law*. 7. Ease or facility
or showing any thing.

EDOM, (§ 1. *def*. 1.) See LIBERTY.

EDOM OF A CORPORATION, (§ 1. *def*.
CORPORATION, § III, VII. The free-
ties, and other corporations, is regularly
by serving an apprenticeship; but it is
hased with money, and sometimes con-
way of compliment.

EDOM OF CONSCIENCE. See TOL-

EDOM OF THE WILL, (§ 1. *def*. 4.)
or faculty of the mind, whereby it is
acting or not acting, choosng or reject-
ing it judges proper. Of this every man
is sensible, who finds in himself a power to
forbear, continue or end several actions,
as a thought or preference of the mind.
APHYSICS.

FREEFOOTED. *adj*. [*free* and *foot*.] Not
in the march.—

We will fetters put upon this fear,
now goes too freefooted. *Shak*. *Hamlet*.
FREEHEARTED. *adj*. [*free* and *heart*.] Li-
unrestrained.—

must freehearted be, and voluntary;
not enchanted, or by fate constrain'd.

Davies.
FREEHOLD. *n. f*. [*free* and *bold*.] That
tenement which a man holdeth in fee,
or for term of life. *Freehold* indeed is the
possession of lands or tenements in fee, fee-
or life. *Freehold* in law is the right that
is to such land or tenements before his
seizure. *Freehold* is sometimes taken in
as to villenage. Land, in the time of the
was called either blockland, that is, holden
or writing, or foreland, that is, holden
writing. The former was held by far
conditions, and by the better sort of ten-
noble men and gentlemen, being such as
call *freehold*. The latter was commonly
possession of clowns, being that which we
at the will of the lord. *Cowel*.—No alie-
lands holden in chief should be available,
the *freehold* or inheritance thereof, but
ere it were made by matter of record.
Office of Alienation.—There is an unspeak-

able pleasure in calling any thing one's own: a
freehold, though it be but in ice and snow, will
make the owner pleased in the possession, and
stout in the defence of it. *Addison*.—My friends
here are very few, and fixed to the *freehold*, from
whence nothing but death will remove them. *Swift*.
—I should be glad to possess a *freehold* that could
not be taken from me by any law to which I did
not give consent. *Swift*.

(2.) FREEHOLD, or FRANK TENEMENT; *liberum
tenementum*. See FEE and TAIL.

(3.) A FREEHOLD, by the common law, cannot
commence *in futuro*; but it must take effect pre-
sently, either in possession, reversion, or remain-
der. Whatever is part of the freehold goes to the
heir; and things fixed thereto may not be taken
in distress for rent, or in execution, &c. No man
shall be disseised of his freehold by stat. *Magna
Charta*, cap. 29. but by judgment of his peers, or
according to the laws of the land: nor shall any
distrain freeholders to answer for their freehold, in
any thing concerning the same, without the king's
writ. Freehold estates, of certain value, are re-
quired by statutes to qualify jurors, electors of the
knights of the shire in parliament, &c.

(4.) FREEHOLD, in geography, a town of New
Jersey, in Monmouth county, 15 miles W. of
Shrewsbury, 20 SE. by S. of New Brunswick,
and 44 NE. of Philadelphia. It has an academy,
and contained 3,158 citizens, and 627 slaves in
1795. A bloody battle was fought here between
the British under Sir H. Clinton, and the Ameri-
cans under Gen. Washington on the 28th June,
1778. See AMERICA, § 30.

(5.) FREEHOLD, a township of New York, in
Albany county, containing 1817 citizens, of whom
562 were electors; and 5 slaves, in 1795.

(1.) * FREEHOLDER. *n. f*. [from *freehold*.]
One who has a freehold.—As extortion did banish
the old English *freeholder*, who could not live but
under the law; so the law did banish the Irish
lord, who could not live but by extortion. *Davies*.

(2.) FREEHOLDERS, in the ancient laws of Scot-
land, are called *milites*, knights. In *Reg. Judicia*.
it is expressed, that he who holds land upon an
execution of a statute merchant, until he hath sa-
tisfied the debt, *tenet ut liberum tenementum sibi et
assignatis suis*; and the same of a tenant *per elegit*:
the meaning of which seems to be, not that such
tenants are freeholders, but as freeholders for the
time, till they have received profits to the value
of their debt.

* FREELY. *adv*. [from *free*.] 1. At liberty;
without vassalage; without slavery; without de-
pendance. 2. Without restraint; heartily; with
full gust.—If my son were my husband, I would
freelier rejoice in that absence wherein he won
honour, than in the embracements of his bed,
where he would shew most love. *Shakesp*. *Coriol*.
3. Plentifully; lavishly.—

I pledge your grace; and if you knew what
pains

I have bestow'd to breed this present peace,
You would drink *freely*. *Shak*. *Henry IV*.

4. Without scruple; without reserve.—

Let such teach others who themselves excel,
And censure *freely* who have written well. *Pope*.

5. Without impediment.—I'll follow rather the
Clothes

Goths in rhyming, than the Greeks in true versifying, were even to eat acorns with swine, when we may *freely* eat wheat-bread among men. *Ascham*.

The path to peace is virtue: what I show,
Thyself may *freely* on thyself bestow:
Fortune was never worshipp'd by the wise;
But set aloft by fools, usurps the skies. *Juv.*
6. Without necessity; without predetermination.
Freely they stood who stood, and fell who fell.
Milton.

—He leaves us to chuse with the liberty of reasonable beings; they who comply with his grace, comply with it *freely*; and they who reject it, do also *freely* reject it. *Rogers*. 7. Frankly; liberally; without cost.—By nature all things have an equally common use: nature *freely* and indifferently opens the bosoms of the universe to all mankind. *South*. 8. Spontaneously; of its own accord.

(1.) * FREEMAN. *n. s.* [*free* and *man*.] 1. One not a slave; not a vassal.—Had you rather Cæsar were living, and die all slaves, than that Cæsar were dead, to live all *freemen*? *Shakesp.*—If to break loose from the conduct of reason, and to want that restraint of examination and judgment which keeps us from chusing or doing the worst, be liberty, true liberty, madmen and fools are only the *freemen*. *Locke*. 2. One partaking of rights, privileges, or immunities.—

He made us *freemen* of the continent,
What nature did like captives treat before.

Dryden.

—What this union was is expressed in the preceding verse, by their both having been made *freemen* on the same day. *Addison on Italy*.

(2.) FREEMAN, Susannah, afterwards Mrs CARROL and Mrs CENTLIVRE, a celebrated comic writer, daughter of Mr Freeman of Holbeach, in Lincolnshire. She had such an early turn for poetry, that it is said she wrote a song before she was 7 years old. Before she was 12, she could not only read Moliere in French, but enter into the spirit of all the characters. Her father dying, left her to the care of a step-mother, whose treatment being harsh, she determined, though almost destitute of every necessary, to go up to London to seek a better fortune. As she was proceeding on foot, she was met by the noted libertine, Anthony Hammond, Esq. who was so struck with her beauty, that he instantly fell in love with her; and inquiring into her story, soon prevailed upon her unexperienced innocence to go with him to Cambridge. After some months cohabitation, he persuaded her to come to London; where, in a short time, she was married to a nephew of Sir Stephen Fox. But he dying about a year after, her wit and beauty soon procured her a 2d husband, one Carrol, an officer in the army; but he being killed in a duel about 18 months after, she became a votary of the Muses, and under this name of Carrol, some of her earlier pieces were published. Her first attempt was a tragedy, the *Perjured Husband*; but her natural vivacity leading her to comedy, we find but one more attempt in the buskin, among 18 dramatic pieces which she afterwards wrote. In 1706, Mr Joseph Centlivre, principal cook to Q. Anne, married her; and, after passing several years happily together, she died at his house in Spring Garden, in Dec. 1723. She for

many years enjoyed the intimacy and the most eminent wits of the times, viz. and Steele, Rowe, Budgell, Farquhar, &c. and few authors received more esteem and patronage from the great. She does not abound with wit, and the language is times poor; but her plots are well conceived, and her characters natural.

FREE-MARTIN. See HERMAPHRODITE.
* FREEMINDED. *adj.* [*free* and *mind*.] perplexed; without load of care.—*I am freeminded*, and cheerfully disposed at home, sleep, and exercise, is one of the best long lasting. *Bacon*.

* FREENESS. *n. s.* [*from free*.] 1. Freedom or quality of being free.—2. Openness; candour; ingenuousness; candour.—*I may pardon it, if he please, for the freeness of his confession*. *Dryden*. 3. Generosity; liberality.—*I hope it will never be said that the laity or the clergy are taught to be charitable, if the corporations exceed the clergy itself, in freeness of giving*. *Spratt*.

FREEPORT, a township of the Union in Maine district, and Cumberland county, situated at the head of Casco Bay, 10 miles from Portland, and 140 of Boston. It contained 1795 citizens in 1795.

* FREESCHOOL. *n. s.* [*free* and *school*.] a school in which learning is given without fee.—*To give a civil education to the youth in the time to come, provision was made by law, that there should be one school at least erected in every diocese*. *Davies*.—*Some gentlemen stood candidates for a small fellowship, who happened to have a better standing than his neighbours, procured for him who was the better scholar*. *Spratt*.

* FREESPOKEN. *adj.* [*free* and *spoken*.] accustomed to speak without reserve.—*I might have supped privately with some six or seven amongst whom there was one that was a very serious man, and began to take the liberty of Marcellus and Regulus had done: he fell into discourse of the injustice and the folly of the former time, and, by name, of the fathers; and said, what should we do with them if we had them now? One of them, who was a freespoken senator, said, they should sup with us*. *Bacon*.

(1.) * FREESTONE. *n. s.* [*free* and *stone*.] commonly used in building.—*Freestone* is a stone of such a constitution as is wrought and cut freely in any direction.—*I saw her hand; she has a leathern hand, like stone coloured hand*. *Shakesp.* *As you lie*—*streets are generally paved with brick, and always kept very neat*. *Addison on*

(2.) FREE-STONE is a whitish stone, which is many parts of Britain, that works like marble, but is more hard and durable; being used in building, &c. It is a species of limestone, but finer grained and smoother. The qualities of the several kinds of free-stones are different, and in different parts of Europe vary much. They all agree in this general property, indeed, that they are softer while in the quarry, than after they have been some time exposed to the air.

nal property differs greatly in degree. A sort of grey freestone in use at Paris we have not yet met with any in this which has the above-mentioned quality to a degree, that the expence of working great measure saved. This stone lies on the southside of the river Seine, and is of a fine and large grit. It is so soft when taken out of the strata, that they fashion it readily with a sort of broad axe, and many stones for building in this manner, as an equal number of our people do or two. Though this stone is as soft as when first taken up, it is found to harden rapidly in the air, that it becomes more so to our ordinary free-stone. The Portland is of the finest kind, which is white, and of a fine grit, is very fit for hewing and carving; it neither resist water nor fire, which is a rare instance in so dense a stone; while one of Kent, which is less beautiful to the eye, and is of a greyish colour, and coarser, though of a larger grain, resists the air very well. The free-stone of Derby, on the other hand, is so brittle as to be unfit for working; and so coarse and open, that it lets water through: yet it is extremely well, and is fit for ovens, &c.

FREETHINKER. *n. s.* [*free* and *think*.] One who is a contemner of religion.—Atheist is a more proper word: I'm a *freethinker*, child.—Of what use is freedom of thought, if it does not produce freedom of action, which is now remote forever in appearance, of what use is Christianity? And therefore we should consider it as an edifice, wherein we have such a mutual dependance on each other, that if you pull out one single stone, the whole must fall to the ground. See *DEISM*.

FRETHAM. See *DEISM*, and *DEISM*. **FRETHAM,** a village S.W. of Yarmouth. **FRIDWYN,** a town of Massachusetts, in New England, 30 miles S. of Boston, containing 1000, in 1795.

FRIDWYN. *n. s.* [*free* and *will*.] 1. The directing our own actions without necessity or fate.—We have a power to be the execution of this or that desire: we are the source of all liberty; in this consists that which is improperly called *Liberty*. 2. Voluntariness; spontaneity. A desire, that all they of the people of Jerusalem, which are minded of their hearts to go up to Jerusalem, go with thee. *Acts* 13.

FRIDWYN ISLAND, an island in the East India Sea. Long. 137. 52. E. Lat. 6. 50. N.

FRIDWOMAN. *n. s.* [*free* and *woman*.] A woman who is free.—All her ornaments are taken from her; she is become a bondswoman. *Lev* 19. 20.

FRIEZE, *n. s.* in architecture, that part which is of columns, between the architrave and the frieze. It is properly a large flat surface, separating the architrave from the frieze. See *ARCHITECTURE*, *Index*.

FRIDWYN.

(2.) **FREEZE, FRIEZE, or Frize,** in commerce. See *FRIEZE*, N° 1.

(1.) * **To FREEZE.** *v. a.* pret. *froze*: part. *frozen* or *froze*. [*origen*, Dutch.] 1. To congeal with cold. 2. To kill by cold.—

When we both lay in the field,
Frozen almost to death, how did he lap me,
Ev'n in his garments! *Shak. Rich. III.*
—My master and mistress are almost frozen to death.
Shak. 3. To chill by the loss of power or motion.
I have a faint cold fear thrills through my veins,
That almost freezes up the heat of life. *Shak.*
Death came on again,
And exercis'd below his iron reign;
Then upward to the seat of life he goes:
Sense fled before him, what he touch'd he froze.

(2.) * **To FREEZE.** *v. a.* preter. *froze*. 1. To be congealed with cold.—The aqueous humour of the eye will not freeze, which is very admirable, seeing it hath the perspicuity and fluidity of common water. *Ray on the Creation*.—The freezing of water, or the blowing of a plant, forming an equidistant period in all parts of the earth, would as well serve men to reckon their years by as the motions of the sun. *Locke*. 2. To be of that degree of cold by which water is congealed.—

Ophiens with his lute made trees
And mountain tops, that freeze,
Bow themselves when he did sing.

Shak. Henry VIII.
Thou art all ice, thy kindness freeze.
Heav'n freeze above severe, the clouds congeal,
And thro' the chrystal vault appear'd the standing hail.

(1.) **FREEZING,** *n. s.* in philosophy, the same with congelation. See *COLD*, *CONGELATION*, *FROST*, and *ICE*. Freezing may be defined the fixing of a fluid body into a solid mass, by the action of cold. Water and some other fluids suddenly dilate and expand in the act of freezing, so as to occupy a greater space in the solid than in the liquid state: in consequence of which ice is specifically lighter than water and floats upon it. Water also loses of its weight by freezing, being found lighter after it is thawed, than before it was frozen. And it even evaporates nearly as fast while frozen, as while it is fluid. Water which has been boiled freezes more readily than that which has not been boiled; and a slight disturbance of the fluid disposes it to freeze more speedily; having sometimes been cooled several degrees below the freezing point, without coming to ice when kept quite still, but suddenly freezing on the least motion or disturbance. Water covered over with a surface of oil of olives, does not freeze so readily as without it; and melted absolutely preserves it under a strong frost, where olive oil would not. Rectified spirit of wine, nut oil, and oil of turpentine, seldom freeze. The surface of water, in freezing, appears all wrinkled; the wrinkles being sometimes in parallel lines, and sometimes like rays, proceeding from a centre to the circumference. Fluids standing in a current of air grow much colder than before. Fahrenheit had long ago observed, that a pond, which stands quite calm, often acquires a degree

of cold much beyond what is sufficient for freezing, and yet no congelation ensued: but if a slight breath of air happens in such a case to brush over the surface of the water, it freezes the whole in an instant. It has also been discovered, that all substances grow colder by the evaporation of the fluids which they contain, or with which they are mixed. If both these methods, therefore, be practised upon the same body at the same time, they will increase the cold to almost any degree of intenseness we please.

(2.) FREEZING, ASTONISHING EXPANSIVE FORCE OF. Although cold, in general, contracts most bodies, and heat expands them, yet there are some instances to the contrary, especially in the extreme cases or states of these qualities of bodies. Thus, though iron, in common with other bodies, expands with heat, yet, when melted, it is always found to expand in cooling again. Thus also, though water expands gradually as it is heated, and contracts as it cools, yet in the act of freezing it suddenly expands again, and that with an enormous force, capable of rending rocks, or bursting the very thick shells of metal, &c. A computation of the force of freezing water has been made by the Florentine Academicians, from the bursting of a very strong brass globe or shell, by freezing water in it; when, from the known thickness and tenacity of the metal, it was found that the expansive power of a spherule of water only one inch in diameter was sufficient to overcome a resistance of more than 27,000 pounds, or 13 tons and a half. See the experiments on bursting thick bomb-shells, by freezing water in them, by Major Edward Williams of the Royal Artillery, in the *Edin. Philos. Transf.* vol. 2. Such a prodigious power of expansion, almost double that of the most powerful steam-engines, and exerted in so small a mass, seemingly by the force of cold, was thought a very material argument in favour of those who supposed that cold, like heat, is a positive substance. Dr Black's discovery of latent heat, however, has afforded a very easy and natural explication of this phenomenon. He has shewn, that, in the act of congelation, water is not cooled more than it was before, but rather grows warmer: that as much heat is discharged, and passes from a latent to a sensible state, as had it been applied to water in its fluid state, would have heated it to 135° . In this process, the expansion is occasioned by a great number of minute bubbles suddenly produced. Formerly these were supposed to be cold in the abstract; and to be so subtle, that, insinuating themselves into the substances of the fluid, they augmented its bulk, at the same time that, by impeding the motion of its particles upon each other, they changed it from a fluid to a solid. But Dr Black shews, that these are only air extricated during the congelation; and to the extrication of this air he ascribes the prodigious expansive force exerted by freezing water. The only question, therefore, is, By what means this air comes to be extricated, and to take up more room than it naturally does in the fluid? To this it may be answered, that perhaps part of the heat, which is discharged from the freezing water, combines with the air in its

latic state, and, by restoring its elasticity, gives

it that extraordinary force; as is seen in the case of air suddenly extricated in the explosion of gun-powder.—The degree of expansion in the state of ice, is by some authors at about $\frac{1}{10}$ of its volume. Oil and wax shrink and contract after freezing. Malton relates several experiments of vessels made very thick and strong; in which, when water, close stopped, and exposed to the water being expanded in freezing, finding either room or vent, burst the strong barrel of a gun, with water in it, and when frozen, was rent the whole length, to try the force with which it expanded a cannon with it, whose sides were annealed and then closed up the mouth and vent, so that none could escape; the whole being exposed to strong freezing air, the water froze in a few hours, and burst the piece in two places. Mathematicians have computed the force of this expansion on this occasion; and they say, that such a force will raise a weight of 27720 pounds. Mr Williams, of the Royal Artillery, made several experiments on the force of it, at Quebec, in 1785. He filled all sizes of iron bomb-shells with water, then plugged the fuze hole close, and exposed them to the strong freezing air of that climate; sometimes driving the plugs as hard as possible with a sledge-hammer, and yet they were always thrown out by the sudden expansion of the water in the act of freezing, like a ball shot by gunpowder, sometimes at a distance of between 400 and 500 feet. They weighed near 3 pounds; and when they were screwed in, or furnished with hooks to lay hold of the inside of the shell, they could not possibly be forced out, unless the shell was always split in two, the thickness of the metal of the shell was from 1 to 2 inches. Through the circular crack, round the shells, where they burst, there issued a thin film or sheet of ice, like a fan; in cases where the plugs were projected by the water, there suddenly issued out from the hole a bolt of ice of the same diameter, and over it to the height sometimes of $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

(3.) FREEZING MIXTURES, preparatory to the artificial congelation of water, and ice. See COLD, § 8, 9; and ICE.

(4.) FREEZING, MR CAVENDISH'S EXPERIMENT. "If a vessel of water, (says Mr Cavendish) with a thermometer in it, be exposed to the freezing point, the thermometer will sink several degrees below the freezing point, especially if the water be covered up so as to be defended from the wind, and care taken not to agitate it; and then, by dipping in a bit of ice, or on mere agitation of ice shoot suddenly through the water, the inclosed thermometer rises quickly to the freezing point, where it remains stationary." Mr Cavendish adds, that though, in conformity to the common opinion, he has allowed that "mercury may set the water a freezing, yet some experiments lately made by Dr Blagden seem to shew that it has not much, if any, effect of freezing, otherwise than by bringing the water into contact with some substance colder than itself. In general also the ice shoots rapidly, and

thermometer rises very quick; yet he once d it to rise very slowly, taking up not less alf a minute, before it ascended to the ; point; but in this experiment the water led not more than one or two degrees be- ezing; and it should seem, that the more er is cooled below the freezing point, the idly the ice shoots and the inclosed ther- er rises." Mr Cavendish then observes, from the foregoing experiments we learn at is capable of being cooled considerab- e the freezing point, without any conge- taking place; and that, as soon as by any a small part of it is made to freeze, the ice rapidly through the whole of the water. use of this rise of the thermometer is, that almost all bodies, by changing from a flu- id state, or from the state of an elastic of an unelastic fluid, generate heat; and ld is produced by the contrary process. ll the circumstances of the phenomenon : perfectly well explained; for, as soon as e of the water freezes, heat will be gene- hereby in consequence of the above-men- law, so that the new formed ice and re- g water will be warmed, and must conti- receive heat by the freezing of fresh por- of water, till it is heated exactly to the e point, unless the water could become solid before a sufficient quantity of heat was ed to raise it to that point, which is not e: and it is eviden, that it cannot be heat- low the freezing point; for as soon as it e thereto, no more water will freeze, and quently no more heat will be generated.— eason why the ice spreads all over the wa- instead of forming a solid lump in one part, e, as soon as any small portion of ice is e, the water in contact with it will be so warmed as to be prevented from freezing, e water at a little distance from it will still ow the freezing point, and will consequen- to freeze. Were it not for this genera- f heat, the whole of any quantity of water freeze as soon as the process of congelation ; and in like manner the cold is generated : melting of ice; which is the cause of the ice required to thaw ice and snow. It was ly found that, by adding snow to warm e, and stirring it about until all was melted, e was as much cooled as it would have by the addition of the same quantity of wa- er more than 150° degrees colder than ow; or, in other words, somewhat more 150° of cold are generated by the thawing : snow; and there is great reason to believe ut as much heat is produced by the freezing er. The cold generated in the experiment entioned was the same whether ice or snow ed."

FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER. The con- on of quicksilver was first ascertained by M. h Adam Braun professor of philosophy at burg. He had been employed in making ometrical experiments, not with a view to the discovery he actually did, but to see how degrees of cold he could produce. An ex-

cellent opportunity for this occurred on the 14th of December 1759, when the mercury stood na- turally at 34°, which is now known to be only ; or 6° above its point of freezing. Mr Braun, to increase this great degree of natural cold, pre- pared a freezing mixture of aquafortis and pound- ed ice, by which his thermometer was sunk to 69°. Part of the quicksilver had now really con- gealed; yet so far was Mr Braun from entertain- ing any suspicion of the fact, that he had almost desisted from further attempts, being satisfied with having so far exceeded all former philosophers. But in the hopes of producing a still greater de- gree of cold, he renewed the experiment; but having expended all his pounded ice, he was ob- liged to substitute snow in its place. With this fresh mixture the mercury sunk to —100, 240, and 352°. He then supposed that the thermometer was broken; but on taking it out, he found the quicksilver fixed, and continuing so for 12 minutes. On repeating the experiment with another ther- mometer which had been graduated no lower than 220°, all the mercury sunk into the ball, and became solid as before, not beginning to re- ascend till after a still longer interval of time. He now concluded that the quicksilver was really frozen, and prepared for making a decisive expe- riment. This was accomplished on the 25th, and the bulb of the thermometer broken as soon as the metal was congealed. The mercury was now converted into a solid and shining metallic mass, which flattened and extended under the strokes of a pestle, in hardness rather inferior to lead, and yielding a dull sound like that metal. Pro- fessor Æpinus made similar experiments at the same time, employing both thermometers and tubes of a large bore; in which last he remarked, that the quicksilver fell sensibly on being frozen, assuming a concave surface, and likewise that the congealed pieces sunk in fluid mercury. The fact being thus established, and fluidity no longer to be considered as an essential property of quicksil- ver, Mr Braun communicated an account of his experiments to the Petersburg Academy, on the 6th of September 1760; of which a large extract was inserted in the *Philos. Trans.* vol. lxx. p. 156. After this he never suffered a winter to elapse, without repeating the experiment of freezing quicksilver, and never failed of success when the natural cold was of a sufficient strength for the purpose. This degree of natural cold he supposes to be 10° of Fahrenheit, though some commence- ment of the congelation might be perceived when the temperature of the air was as high as +2. The results of all his experiments were, that with the abovementioned frigorific mixtures, and once with rectified spirits and snow, when the natural cold was at 28°, he congealed the quicksilver, and discovered that it is a real metal which melts with a very small degree of heat. Not perceiving, however, the necessary consequence of its great contraction in freezing, he confounded its point of congelation with that of its greatest contrac- tion in freezing, and thus marked the former a great deal too low. The experiments of Mr Braun were successfully repeated at Gottingen, in 1774, by Mr John Frederick Blumebach;

who was encouraged to this attempt by the excessive cold of the winter that year, especially the night of Jan. 12th. when he made the experiment, the thermometer standing at 10° in the open air. At 5 P. M. put 3 drams of quicksilver into a small sugar glass, and covered it with a mixture of snow and Egyptian sal ammoniac, setting the glass out in the air upon a mixture also of sal ammoniac. At one the next morning, the mercury was found frozen quite solid, and fast to the glass; and did not melt till 7 or 8 A. M. The colour of the frozen mercury was a dull pale white with a blueish cast, like zinc, very different from the natural appearance of quicksilver. In Jan. and Feb. 1755, by similar means, quicksilver was twice frozen by Mr Hutchins, governor of Albany fort, in Hudson's bay. And the same was done on the 28th of Jan. 1776, by Dr Lambert Becker, secretary of Rotterdam. The temperature of the atmosphere was then at $+2^{\circ}$; and the lowest it could reduce the thermometer by artificial cold was 94° ; when, on breaking the glass, the mercury was found frozen. In the beginning of 1780, M. Ven Elterlein of Vytegra, a town of Russia, in lat. 61° north, and long. 36° east, froze quicksilver by natural cold. On the 4th January 1789, the cold being increased to 34° that evening at Vytegra, he exposed to the open air 3 oz. of very pure quicksilver in a china tea cup, covered with paper pierced full of holes. Next day, at 8 A. M. he found it solid, and looking like a piece of cast lead, with a considerable depression in the middle. On attempting to break it in the cup, his knife raised shavings from it as if it had been lead, which remained sticking up; and it length the metal separated from the bottom of the cup in one mass. He then took it in his hand to try if it would bend: it was stiff like glass, and broke in two pieces; but his fingers immediately lost all feeling, and could scarcely be restored in an hour and a half by rubbing with snow. At 8 o'clock the thermometer stood at 27° ; but by half past 9 it was risen to 40° ; and then the two pieces of mercury which lay in the cup had lost so much of their hardness, that they could no longer be broken, or cut into shavings, but resembled a thick mass, which though it became fluid when pressed by the fingers, immediately afterwards resumed the consistence of paper. With the thermometer at 39° , the quicksilver became fluid. The cold was never less on the 4th than 27° , and at 6 P. M. it had increased again to 35° . This experiment forms to fix the freezing point of mercury at 40° . Fahrenheit's thermometer, or 20 below 0; which is 72° below the freezing point of water. In the winter of 1791 and 1792, Mr Hutchins, repeated the experiment of freezing quicksilver by natural cold, with such success, that from his experiments and those of M. Ven Elterlein, the freezing point of mercury was ascertained as well settled, and that the freezing point of water is at $+32$. Other persons, however, had not been altogether so fortunate in this respect. Professor Lavoisier, for instance, exposed his mercury to the difference between the temperature of the fluid mercury, by which that of the surrounding metal by 10° ; he could not determine any thing

certain concerning it. On this subject of other curious facts may be found in *Transf.* vol. 51, p. 672; vol. 52, p. 156; 174; vol. 73, p. 303 and 325; vol. 70 vol. 77, p. 285; vol. 78, p. 43; vol. 7 &c.; being experiments on the congelation of quicksilver in England, by Mr Richard where he proves that mercury may be only in England in summer, but even in the coldest climate, at any season of the year, without the use of ice or snow.

(6.) FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER BY COLD. The most remarkable congelation of quicksilver, by natural cold, that has ever been observed, was that related by Dr Peter Simon who had been sent by the empress of Russia with some other gentlemen, on an expedition to that of Dr Gmelin. Being at Kratoich, 1772, in N. lat. $56^{\circ} 30'$, and E. long. 92° an opportunity of observing this phenomenon. On the 6th and 7th of Dec. (1772) he observed the greatest cold I have ever known in Siberia: the air was calm at the time, and the sun was very thickly thickened; so that, though the sky was in some respects clear, the sun appeared as a fog. I had only one thermometer left, the scale went no lower than 7° ; and in the morning, I remarked, that the mercury in it sunk into the ball, except some that which stuck fast in the tube. When I touched the thermometer, as it hung in the open air, it could plainly be seen, that the solid mercury stuck and resisted a good while, and when I pushed upward with a sort of violence, it came up a little time I placed upon the gallery, on the way to my house, some quicksilver in an open glass. Within an hour I found the edges and the middle of it frozen solid; and some minutes after it was condensed by the natural cold into a very much like tin. While the interior was still fluid, the frozen surface exhibited a variety of branched wrinkles; but in general remained pretty smooth in freezing. The unfrozen mercury was more flexible than lead, and being bent short, it was found more brittle; and when hammered out thin, it was somewhat granulated. If the hammer been perfectly cooled, the quicksilver was under it in drops; and the same happened when the metal was touched with a cold iron by which also the hammer was immediately cooled. When the frozen mass was broken in the cold, the fragments adhered to each other, and to the bowl in which they lay. In the morning it thawed on its surface gradually, like wax on the fire, and did not melt all at once. Although the most favourable weather could not yet be expected, yet the experiment was altered, and the experiment was repeated. On the 7th of Dec. I had an opportunity of making the same experiment all day; but, some hours after sunset, wind sprang up, which raised the thermometer to 20° , when the melted quicksilver began to rise. An instance of the natural congelation of quicksilver also occurred in Jan. 1782, at Upsala, Sweden, on the 11th Jan. 1782; and on

is observed the same effect of the cold : Bay ; when he found that at the point ing a mercurial thermometer stood at spirit thermometer at 30°.

FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, DR BLACK'S
S FOR. Mr Cavendish and Dr Black
ed the proper method of obviating the
in this subject, which had not been clear-
of. Braun. (See § 5.) Dr Black, in a
r Hutchins, dated Oct. 5, 1779, gave
ng directions for making the experi-
accuracy: Provide a few wide and
of thin glass, sealed at one end and
: other; the wideness of these tubes
m one half to 3 quarters of an inch,
gth of them about three inches. Put
an inch and a half depth of mercury
these tubes, and plunging the bulb of
meter into the mercury, set the tube
mercury and the thermometer in it into
mixture, which should be made for
e in a common tumbler or water glass:

in making a freezing mixture with
pirit of nitre, the quantity of the acid
r be so great as to dissolve the whole
, but only enough to reduce it to the
of panada. When the mercury in the
is thus set in the freezing mixture, it
irred gently and frequently with the
thermometer; and if the cold be suf-
ong, it will congeal by becoming thick
like an amalgam. As soon as this is
he thermometer should be examined
ing it out of the congealing mercury;
; no doubt that in every experiment
; with the same mercury, the instru-
always point to the same degree, provi-
an made and graduated with accuracy."

FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR ÆPI-
SECTION FOR. Mr Æpinus gives the
irection for using the tuming spirit of
ake some of this spirit, cooled as much
and put it into a wine glass till it be
full, filling it up with snow, and stir-
til the mixture become of the consis-
p; by which means you obtain, almost
nt, the necessary degree of cold for
g of quicksilver."

FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR BRAUN'S
ONS FROM. In the course of his obser-
r Braun found, that double aquafortis
effectual than spirit of nitre; but with
spirit, which seldom brings the mer-
than 148°, this metal may be frozen
wing manner: Six glasses being filled
as usual, and the thermometer put in
m, the spirit of nitre was poured upon
the mercury would fall no lower in this,
meter was removed to the second, and
e third and fourth, in which fourth im-
he mercury was usually congealed. Mr
arks, that by the mixture of snow and
ich froze the mercury, he never was
ng thermometers, filled with the most
ified spirit of wine, lower than 148°:
cold which will freeze mercury, will
spirit of wine; and therefore spirit ther-
are the most fit to determine the de-

gree of coldness in the frigorific mixtures, till we
can construct solid metallic thermometers with
sufficient accuracy. Mr Braun tried the effects
of different fluids in his frigorific mixtures: he al-
ways found that Glauber's spirit of nitre and
double aquafortis were the most powerful; and
from a number of experiments made when the
temperature of the air was between 21° and 28°
of Fahrenheit, he concludes, that spirit of salt
pounded upon snow increased the natural cold
36°; spirit of sal ammoniac, 12; oil of vitriol, 42;
Glauber's spirit of nitre, 70; aquafortis, 48; simple
spirit of nitre, 35; dulcified spirit of vitriol, 24;
Hoffman's anodyne liquor, 38; spirit of hartshorn,
12; spirit of sulphur 12; spirit of wine rectified,
24; camphorated spirit, 18; French brandy, 14;
and that several kinds of wine increased the na-
tural cold to 7, 8, or 9 degrees.

(10.) **FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR CA-**
VENDISH'S APPARATUS FOR, AND MR HUT-
CHINS'S EXPERIMENTS ON. The apparatus
recommended by Mr Cavendish, and which
Mr Hutchins made use of (§ 11.) consisted of a
small mercurial thermometer, the bulb of which
reached about 2½ inches below the scale, and was
inclosed in a glass cylinder swelled at the bottom
into a ball, which, when used was filled with quick-
silver, so that the bulb of the thermometer was
entirely covered with it. If this cylinder be im-
mersed in a freezing mixture till great part of the
quicksilver in it is frozen, it is evident that the
degree shown at that time by the inclosed ther-
mometer is the precise point at which mer-
cury freezes; for as in this case the ball of the
thermometer must be surrounded for some time
with quicksilver, part of which is actually frozen,
it seems impossible that the thermometer should
be sensibly above that point; and while any of
the quicksilver in the cylinder remains fluid, it is
impossible that it should sink sensibly below it.
The diameter of the bulb of the thermometer was
rather less than a quarter of an inch; that of the
swelled part of the cylinder two thirds; and as it
was easy to keep the thermometer constantly in
the middle of the cylinder, the thickness of quick-
silver betwixt it and the glass could never be much
less than the other sixth part of an inch. The
bulb of the thermometer was purposely made as
small as it conveniently could, to leave a sufficient
space between it and the cylinder, without ma-
king the swelled part larger than necessary, which
would have caused more difficulty in freezing the
mercury in it. The first experiment with this
apparatus was made on the 15th Dec. 1781;
the thermometer had stood the evening before at
18°. A bottle of spiritus nitri fortis was put on
the house-top, to cool it to the same temperature.
The thermometers made use of had been hung
up in the open air for three weeks, to compare
their scales. On the morning of the experiment
they were about 23° below 0.—In making it, the
thermometer of the apparatus was suspended in
the bulb of the cylinder by some red worsted
wound about the upper part of its stem, to a suffi-
cient thickness, to fill the upper part of its orifice;
and a space of near half an inch was left empty
between the quicksilver and the worsted. The
apparatus was placed in the open air, on the top

of the fort, with only a few deer skins sewed together for a shelter; the snow lay 18 inches deep on the works, and the apparatus was stuck into the snow, to bring it to the temperature of the air. The instruments were afterward placed in three fresh freezing mixtures, in hopes of being able by their means to produce a greater degree of cold, but without effect; nor was any greater cold produced by adding more spirit of nitre. The mercury, however, was very completely frozen, that in the thermometer descending to 448° . On plunging the mercury into the freezing mixture, it descended in less than one minute to 40° below 0. Mr Hutchins made other 7 experiments with various proportions of the mixture, of which we shall only describe the last. His 8th experiment was made with a view to try whether quicksilver would congeal when in contact with the freezing mixture. For this purpose, he did not use the apparatus provided for other experiments, but filled a gallipot made of flint stone (as being thinner than the common sort), containing about an ounce, half full of quicksilver, into which he inserted a mercurial thermometer, employing another as an index. Thus he hoped to determine exactly when the quicksilver was congealed, as he had free access to it at all times, which was not the case when it was inclosed in the cylindrical glass, the worsted wound round the tube of the thermometer to exclude the air being equally effectual in excluding any instrument from being introduced to touch the quicksilver. He then made a kind of skewer, with a flat blunt point, of dried cedar wood, on account of its lightness, which he found would remain in the gelatinous freezing mixture at any depth he chose; but, when inserted into the quicksilver, the great difference betwixt the specific gravity of it and that ponderous fluid, made it always rebound upwards; and by the degree of resistance, he could always know whether it proceeded from fluid or solid metal. At this time, however, the experiment did not succeed; but, at another trial, having employed about $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of a pound of metal, and let it remain a considerable time immersed in the same mixture which had just now been supposed to fail, he found that part of it was congealed; and on pouring off the fluid part, no less than two thirds remained fixed at the bottom.

(II.) FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, Mr CAVENDISH'S EXPERIMENT ON. An experiment was at last made by Mr Cavendish himself, of which he gives the following account in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxxiii. p. 325. Here, speaking of the cold of freezing mixtures, he says, "There is the utmost reason to think that Mr Hutchins would have obtained a greater degree of cold by using a weaker nitrous acid than he did. I found (says he) by adding snow gradually to some of this acid, that the addition of a small quantity produced heat instead of cold; and it was not until so much was added as to increase the heat from 28 to 51° , that the addition of more snow began to produce cold; the quantity of snow required

for this purpose being pretty exactly one quarter of the weight of the spirit of nitre, and the heat of the snow, and air of the room, as well as the acid, being 28° . The reason of this is, a great deal of heat is produced by mixing snow with spirit of nitre; and the stronger the spirit, the greater is the heat produced. Now it appears from this experiment, that before the acid was diluted, the heat produced by its union with the water formed from the melting snow, was greater than the cold produced by the same; it was not until it was diluted by the addition of one quarter of its weight of that substance, that the cold, generated by the latter cause, began to exceed the heat generated by the former. By what has been said, it is evident, that a freezing mixture made with undiluted acid will not generate cold until so much snow is dissolved as to increase its heat from 28 to 51° ; so that a greater cold will be produced than would be obtained by mixing the diluted acid heated with snow of the heat of 28° . This method of adding snow gradually is much the best I know, of finding what strength it ought to be in order to produce the greatest effect possible. By means of this acid diluted in the above mentioned proportion, I froze quicksilver in the thermometer called G \dagger by Mr Hutchins, on the Feb. 1781. I did not indeed break the thermometer to examine the state of the quicksilver in; for as it sunk to 110° , it certainly must have been in part frozen; but immediately took it out and put the spirit thermometer in its room, in order to find the cold of the mixture. It sunk to 30° ; but by making allowance of the spirit, the tube being not so cold as that in the former experiment, appears, that if it had not been for this cause, it would have sunk to 35° \ddagger ; which is 6° below the point of freezing, and is within one degree of the great cold as that produced by Mr Hutchins. In this experiment the thermometer G sunk rapidly; and, as far as I could perceive, without stopping at any intermediate point till it came to the above mentioned degree of 110° , where it stuck. The materials used in making the mixture were previously cooled, by means of salt and snow to near 0; the temperature of the air was between 20° and 25° ; the quantity of acid was $4\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; and the glass in which the mixture was made, was surrounded with wool, and placed in a wooden box, to prevent its losing its cold as it would otherwise have done. Some weeks before this, I made a freezing mixture with spirit of nitre, much stronger than that used in the foregoing experiment, though not quite so strong as the undiluted acid, in which the cold was less intense by $4\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. It is true, the temperature of the air was much less cold, namely 35° , but the spirit of nitre was at least as cold, and the snow was much less so. The cold produced by mixing of vitriol, properly diluted with snow, is not so great as that produced by spirit of nitre, though it does not differ from it by so much as 8° . A freezing mixture, prepared with diluted acid

\dagger This was a small mercurial thermometer, made by Nairne and Blount, on an ivory scale, divided at every five degrees, and reaching from 215° above, to 250° below the cypher.

\ddagger This is to be understood of a spirit thermometer, whose $29^{\circ} = 40^{\circ}$ of Fahrenheit's mercurial.

whose specific gravity, at 60° of heat, 642, sunk in the thermometer C to 37°, criment being tried at the same time, and the same precautions, as the foregoing. It was found, by adding snow gradually to this acid, as was done by the nitrous acid, that it was a little, but not much stronger, ought to be, in order to produce the greatest.

FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, Mr WALLER'S EXPERIMENTS ON. See COLD, § 9.

FREEZING OF VITRIOLIC ACID. Acids, of those of the mineral kind, powerfully resist congelation. There is, however, a peculiarity with regard to that of vitriol. M. Chaptal found, that it condensed by the cold of the ice, and the crystals began to melt only 2° of his thermometer; which, if Reaumur's, would be about 47° of Fahrenheit. The crystals were unctuous from the melting acid, and were warmer than the neighbouring bodies: the former was that of a prism of six sides, flattened by a pyramid of six sides; but the latter appeared on one end only; on the other, it was lost in the general mass. The pyramid resulted from an assemblage of six isosceles triangles: the oil when the crystal was melted was brownish black; on redistilling it in a proper apparatus, no peculiar gas came over. M. Chaptal repeated his experiments with the highly concentrated acid, but found that it did not freeze; the density of the acid which he thought froze was to the oil, of the usual strength, as from 63 to 65; and the necessary degree of cold about 19° of Fahrenheit. Vitriol once melted will not crystallize again at the same degree of cold. M. Moré, a concentrate manufacturer of oil of vitriol at Hadamar Vervier, in Limbourg, attributes this property to the addition of nitrous air. The

oil of vitriol is usually separated from sulphur by distilling it in close vessels; and the air is supplied by adding to the sulphur a little nitre. He found that by mixing the acid, capable of being mixed, with water, or employing it for other purposes, orange-coloured fumes, and the smell of true nitrous acid, were very evident. His gas was destroyed, no degree of cold could congelate the acid, whatever was its degree of concentration; and the congelation was generated immediately after the process by which the acid was obtained. Mr Macquer repeats in the 2d edition of his *Chemical Dictionary*, **VITRIOLIC ACID**, that the duke d'Ayen observed the congelation of concentrated vitriol, which had been exposed to a cold expressed by 13° or 14° below 0 on Reaumur's thermometer; but that mixtures, consisting of one part of the above mentioned concentrated acid, to 10 or more parts of water, could not be frozen by the cold to which he exposed them, till he diluted the acid so much that its density was that of water as 104½ to 96; in which latter case it is probable that the water was only frozen, as in diluted solutions of salts. Similar experiments were made by M. de Morveau, with equal success. Having produced an insoluble salt by pouring spirit of nitre on pounded

ice, he congealed a part of some vitriolic acid which had been previously concentrated; but he observed, that though a very intense cold had been made use of to congelate the acid at first, it nevertheless remained congelated in much smaller degrees of cold, and that it thawed very slowly. This coincides with the observations of M. Chaptal; though the latter observes, that there is some difference between strong oil of vitriol lowered with water, and that produced by a given strength by rectification. The latter always has some colour; and it will not dissolve indigo in such a manner as to carry the colour into stuff, though the stronger oil, diluted to the same degree, succeeds very well. Some observations were also made by Mr M'Nab at Hudson's Bay, an account of which is given in the *Phil. Transf.* for 1786, by Mr Cavendish. From them it appears, that a vitriolic acid, whose specific gravity was to that of water as 1843 to 1000, froze when exposed to a cold of 15° of Fahrenheit's scale; that another more diluted vitriolic acid, consisting of 629 parts of the former concentrated acid, and 351 parts of water, congelated in a temperature of 36°; and that, when farther diluted, it was capable of sustaining a much greater degree of cold without freezing at all. In these experiments, as well as in those of Mr Morveau, it appeared that the whole of the acid did not congelate, but that part of it retained its fluidity; and on examining the strength of that which remained fluid, Mr Cavendish found that there was very little difference between it and the other; whence he was led to suppose, that the reason of this congelation does not arise from any difference in strength, but on some less obvious quality, and such as constitutes the difference between common and icy oil of vitriol. In all the experiments hitherto made, however, Mr Cavendish had found some uncertainty in determining the point of easiest freezing; neither could he determine whether the cold necessary for congelation does not increase without any limitation in proportion to the strength of the acid. A new set of experiments were therefore made by Mr Keir to determine this point, which our room permits us not to quote; but from which Mr Keir draws the following inferences: "1. That the vitriolic acid has a point of easiest freezing, and that this is when its specific gravity is to that of water as 1780 to 1000. 2. That the greater or less disposition to congelation does not depend on any other circumstance than the strength of the acid. 3. That the freezing and thawing degree of the most congelable acid is about 45° of Fahrenheit's scale. It is, however, to be observed, that this degree is inferred from the temperature indicated by the thermometers immersed in the freezing and thawing acids; but the congelation of the fluid acid could never be accomplished without exposing it to a greater degree of cold, either by exposing it to the air in frosty weather, or to the cold of melting snow. 4. Like water, this acid possesses the property of retaining its fluidity when cooled several degrees below the freezing point; and of rising suddenly to it when its congelation is promoted by agitation, or by contact even with a warmer thermometer. 5. That, like water and other congelable fluids, the vitriolic

the quantity of the aqua-fortis, and heat of the fire, &c. &c. though the quantity of the acid which remains to be determined by the quantity of the aqua-fortis. That the acid, by congelation, assumes a regular crystalline form, and acquires a greater facility and hardness, than it possessed in its fluid state. Besides the species of congelation, the acid is subject to another; probably first discovered by Basil Valentine and some other alchemists. This is effected in the ordinary temperature of the air, even in summer; and, according to Mr Keir, is peculiar to that species of oil of vitriol which is distilled from green vitriol, and which is possessed of a smoking quality in a high degree: "for not only the authors (says he) who in this congelation has been observed, have given this description of the acid employed, but also the late experiments of Mr Dollfus, seem to show that this smoking quality is essential to the phenomenon: for neither the acid obtained from the vitriol, when deprived by rectification of its smoking quality, nor the English oil of vitriol, which is known to be obtained by burning sulphur, and which does not smoke, were found by his trials to be susceptible of this species of congelation. It may, however, be worth the attention of those chemists who have an opportunity of seeing this *icy oil of vitriol*, as it is called, to observe more accurately than has yet been done, the freezing temperature and the density of the congelable acids; and to examine whether the density of this smoking acid also is connected with the glacial property. It seems also further deserving of investigation, whether there be not some analogy between the congelation of the smoking oil of vitriol, and the very curious crystallization which Dr Priestley observed in a concentrated vitriolic acid, furnished with nitrous acid vapours; and whether this smoking quality does not proceed from some marine or other volatile acid, which may be contained in the natural vitriol whence the vitriolic acid is obtained."

Freezing point. Denotes the point or degree of cold, by a mercurial thermometer, at which certain fluids begin to freeze, or when frozen, at which they begin to thaw again. On Fahrenheit's thermometer, it is placed at 32 degrees below, and at 17 for quinquely, the latter is reckoned in those two points respectively. It would be useful to the freezing points for other fluids were ascertained, and the whole arranged in a table.

Freezing River. or **Freezing Lake.** A very common kind of thaw, when the water of England, in Dec. 1672, was frozen to the depth of 10000 fathoms in the *Plumbeous* (the river).

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weighed the sprig of an ash tree, 6 quarters of a pound, the ice on which 16 pounds. Some were frightened with in the air; till they discerned it was the icy boughs, dashed against each other. observes, that there was no considerable served on the ground during the whole he concludes, that a frost may be very dangerous on the tops of some hills a while in other places it keeps at feet distant above the ground, rivers, and may wander about very furious inces, and remits in others not far off. was followed by glowing heats, and a forwardness of flowers and fruits.

(16.) **FREEZING WYTH.** See CISE N° 1.

FREEZLAND PEAK, a cape on S island, in the South Sea. Lon. 27. 0. N 2. S.

FREGOSO, Baptist, Doge of Venice 1478, was author of several works: 1. Life of Pope Martin V; 2. A Treatise of Ladies, in Latin; 3. On Memorabilia and 4. Against Love, both in Italian.

posed for arbitrary conduct, and banished.

FREIER, Miquard, a learned German, born at Aufburg in 1745. He was professor in France, and in his 23 made professor at law, at Heidelberg afterwards made vice-president of the order IV. elector Palatine, who sent him to court as his ambassador. He wrote on antiquities, law and history, though 1611, aged only 47.

FREIDEGG, a town of Austria, 7 miles.

FREIDMAN, a town of Germany, city of Prussia, 6 miles W. of Rastatt.

FREIDMAN, a town of Spain, 47 miles S. of Seville.

FREIDENSTEIN, a town of Germany, 10 miles S. of Prague.

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as the burthen ; to be the thing with
 which is freighted.—

I would
 sink the sea within the earth, or ere
 the good ship so have swallow'd, and
 fighting souls within her. *Shak. Temp.*
 FIGHTER. *n. f.* [*fretteur*, French.] He
 is a vessel.

FRIUS, John Thomas, a learned German,
 Würzburg, in the 16th century. He studied
 Julius and Remus, and was made rector of
 the school at Altorf in 1575. He died at Basil in
 1590. He wrote, 1. *Questiones Geometricæ et*
Philosophicæ: 2. *Logica Consulatorum*: 3. A Latin
 version of Frobenius's voyages: 4. Notes, his-
 torical, political, &c. on Cicero's Orations.
 FRENE, a town of France, in the dep. of
 the Loire: 20 miles W. of Angers.

FREISHEIM, a town of Germany, in the
 elector. of the Rhine, taken by the French in
 1794, and now included in the French republic,
 of Mont Tonnerre. It is 4 miles NNE.

FREED, John, a learned English physician,
 born at Croton, in Northamptonshire,
 In 1696, he published, in conjunction
 with Foulkes, an edition of two Greek or-
 ations of Æschines against Ctesiphon, and
Oratio de Corona, with a new Latin ver-
 sion. In 1699, he wrote a letter to Dr Sloane
 on an *Hydrocephalus*, published in the
Trans. and another letter in Latin to
 a gentleman, *De spasmi rarioris, historia*,
 in the same Transactions. In 1703,
Ætiologia appeared; which gained him
 a fellowship in the university of Oxford. In
 1704, he attended the earl of Peterborough to
 physician to the army there; and upon
 his return in 1707, published an account of the
 expedition. In 1709, he published his *Cle-*
mentia. In 1712, he attended the duke of
 Flanders, as his physician. In 1716,
 elected a fellow of the college of physi-
 cians in London. This year he published the 1st
 book of Hippocrates *De morbis populari-*
bus Commentary on Fevers, written by him-
 self M. P. for Launceston in Cornwall in
 1717, where he distinguished himself by his opposi-
 tion to the ministry. In March 1722, he was com-
 mitted to the tower on a charge of high treason:
 while he was under confinement, he wrote a
 letter to Dr Mead, *De quibusdam variolarum*
speciebus, and began his *History of Physic*, the first
 of which was published in 1725, and the 2d
 in 1726. Upon the accession of George II, he
 was appointed physician to the queen, who show-
 ed the highest esteem for him. He died at Lon-
 don in 1728. His works were published together
 at London, in folio, in 1733, and dedica-
 ted to the queen.

DORFF, a town of Germany in Auf-
 spurg, SE. of Tulln.

FREISHEIM, a town of Germany, lately in
 the elector. of the Rhine, now included in the
 French republic, of Mount Tonnerre: 10
 miles W. of Mannheim.

FREMIUS, John, a learned and elegant
 Latin poet.

author, born at Ulm in 1608. He made supple-
 ments to Livy, Tacitus, and Q. Curtius, in 60
 books, printed at Strasburg in 1664. He wrote
 likewise Notes upon Q. Curtius, Florus, Tacitus,
 and some other Latin classics; and died in
 1660. He was professor at Upsal and Heidelberg.

FREIRE DE ANDRADE, Hyacinth, a Portu-
 guese author, born at Beja, in 1597. He was ab-
 bot of St Mary de Chans, and wrote a life of John
 de Castro, which is much esteemed. He also
 wrote some poems in the Portuguese tongue, and
 died at Lisbon, in 1657.

FREISACH. See FRIESACH, N° 1.

FREISCHBACH, a town of Germany, in the
 late Palatinate of the Rhine, taken by the French
 in 1794, and now included in the French republic
 and dep. of Mount Tonnerre. It is 6 miles ENE.
 of Landau.

FREISENGEN. See FREYSINGEN, N° 1, 2.

FREITS. See FREATS.

FREJULS, or } A town of France, in the dep.
 FREJUS, } of Var, anciently called Fo-
 RUM JULIUM, or JULI. See FORUM. § V, N°
 8. It was a flourishing sea port town in the
 time of Julius Cæsar. An amphitheatre, statues,
 inscriptions, and other relics of antiquity are still
 to be seen in it. It was the birth place of Julius
 Agricola. It is seated near the Argens, 40 miles
 NE. of Toulon. Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 43. 23. N.

FREIXE, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of
 Traios-Montes, 15 miles S. of Meraodel.

FREIXEIRA, a town of Portugal, in the prov.
 of Entre-Duero-e-Minho; 7½ miles NE. of Apan-
 rante.

FREKENHAM, 2 English villages: 1. in Nor-
 folk: on the Bure: 2. in Suffolk, near Mildenhall.

FREMINGTON, 2 small towns: 1. in De-
 vonshire, W. of Barnstaple: 2. in Yorkshire, near
 Richmond.

* FREN. *n. f.* A stranger. An old word
 wholly forgotten here; but retained in Scotland.
Beattie.—

But now from me his madd'ning mind did start,
 And wooes the widow's daughter of the glen;
 And now fair Rosalind hath bred his smart.

So now his friend is changed for a fren. *Spens.*

FRENAYE, two towns of France, in the dep.
 of Sarthe: 1. six miles E. of Alençon: 2. ci-devant
Le Vicomte: 9 miles SSW. of Alençon. Lon. 17.
 41. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 17. N.

(1.) FRENCH. *a. f.* belonging to France.

(2.) FRENCH, *n. f.* the citizens of France.

(3.) FRENCH, in geography, a river of the Uni-
 ted States, in Massachusetts, which rises from a
 pond in Worcester county, and runs into the
 Quinebaug in Connecticut; so named from the
 French Protestants, who settled on its banks, af-
 ter the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, in 1635.

(4.) FRENCH BEAN, in botany. See PHASEO-
 LUS.

(5.) FRENCH BROAD, a navigable river of Ten-
 nessee, from 400 to 500 yards broad, formed by
 several head waters that rise in N. Carolina, on
 the SE. of the Great Iron and Bald Mountains.
 After running 56 miles NW. between these moun-
 tains, and 25 miles N. it joins the Helixia 11
 miles above Knoxville.

(6.) * FRENCH CHALK. *n. f.* French chalk is an
 indurated

Indurated clay, extremely dense, of a smooth glossy surface, and soft and unctuous to the touch; of a greyish white colour, variegated with a dusky green. *Hill.*—*French chalk* is unctuous to the touch, as steatites is, but harder, and nearer approaching the consistence of stone. *Woodward.*

(7.) FRENCH CREEK, a river of N. America, the N. head water of the ALLEGANY, into which it falls on the N. side of Fort Franklin, 80 miles NE. of Pittsburg.

(8.) FRENCH HONFYSUCKLE. See HEDYSARUM.

(9.) FRENCH LANGUAGE, the language now spoken in France, which, like the English, is not an original language, but a medley of several. Those that prevail most, and are the basis of it, are, 1. The Celtic; whether that were a particular language itself, or whether it were only a dialect of the Gothic, as spoke in the West and North: 2. The Latin, which the Romans carried with them into Gaul, when they conquered it: And, 3. The Teutonic, or that dialect of the Teutonic spoken by the FRANKS, when they passed the Rhine, and established themselves in Gaul. Of these three languages, in the space of about 1300 years, was the modern French gradually formed. Its progress was very slow. Both the Italian and Spanish were regular languages long before the French. Pasquier observes, it was under Philip of Valois that the French tongue first began to be polished; and that, in the register of the chamber of accounts of that time, there is a purity almost equal to that of the present age. However, the French was still very imperfect till the reign of Francis I. The custom of speaking Latin at the bar, and of writing the public acts and instruments of the courts of justice in that language, had made the French overlook their own language. The preceding ages had been remarkable for their ignorance, owing, in a great measure, to the long and calamitous wars which France had been engaged in: whence the French nobility deemed ignorance a kind of merit; and the generals did not regard whether they wrote and talked politely or not, provided they could fight well. But Francis I. restored learning, and changed the face of affairs; and after his time, Henry Stevens printed his book, *De la Precellence du Langage Francois*. The change was become very conspicuous at the end of the 16th century; and under Henry IV, Amyot, Coeffeteau, and Malherbe, contributed towards bringing it to perfection; which Cardinal Richelieu completed, by the establishment of the French academy; a society of which the most distinguished persons in church and state have been members. Nor did the long reign of Lewis XIV. contribute little to the improvement of the language; his taste for the fine arts rendered his court the politest in Europe. Wit and magnificence seemed to vie; and his generals might have disputed with the Greeks, Romans, &c. the glory of writing well, if they could not that of fighting. From the court, the elegance and purity of the language soon spread itself into the provinces; where there are now very few who do not write and speak good French. One character of the French language is, that it is natural and easy. The words are ranged in it

much in the same order as the ideas in which it differs exceedingly from the Latin, where the inversion of the natural words is reputed a beauty. The Helles even the French in this point, but of it in copiousness and variety. But analogy of grammar, and the simplicity with the moods of verbs are formed, has the advantage not only over the: over all the known languages in the: the peculiar expressions and idioms of are sometimes so quaint and extraordinary it loses a good deal of the advantage grammatical simplicity gives it over the French has few compound words, which differs widely from the Greek, High English. This the French authors admit to be a great disadvantage; the Greek deriving a great part of their force from the composition of words, and expressing that in one sounding word, French cannot express but by a periphrasis; diminutives in the French are as few as pounds, the greatest part of those in lost their diminutive signification. It is chiefly admired for its justness, purity and flexibility. It is the most universal language in Europe. The policy of courts has rendered it necessary for that of princes, &c. and the discoveries and inventions made by the French in arts and sciences have had the same effect among the in Germany, and elsewhere, the princesses of distinction value themselves on speaking French; and in several courts French is almost as much used as the in the country.

(10.) FRENCH REPUBLIC. See FRANCE 59, 61, 65; and REPUBLIC. Under we mean here only to give a sketch of extent of the territory of the republic, been greatly increased since the commencement of the present war, in consequence of its conquests and annexations. The ci-devant of Savoy, the county of Nice, and the city of Monaco; the whole Belgic province comprehending the countries of Liege, Stavelot, Malmédy, Hainault, Tournais, Flannant, Namur, Austrian Gueldres, Maaseik, Limburg, and Luxemburg; and territories on the left, or W. bank of the Rhine comprehending those of Mœurs, Cleves, duchies of Juliers, Aremberg, and Drenthe; part of the electorates of Cologne, Treves, and the Palatinate of the Rhine; the Saarbruck, the bishopric of Worms, &c. together with the ci-devant republic of the Netherlands are now annexed to the French republic. It is divided into the following 18 departments, viz. Mount Blanc, Maritime Alps, the Scheldt, the Lys, Jemappes, Flanders, the Ourte, the Loire, the two Nethes, the Roer, the Eifel, the Moselle, the Rhine and Nahe, the Moselle, Mount Tonnerre, and Lake Geneva. That the republic now consists of 101 departments in all. Besides these extensive territories the county of Venaisin, and the principa

and Mountbelaird, (which, though insular France, were considered as no part of the monarchy.) are also now included public. Whether the French government may be able to retain all these important acquisitions, the future events will show, and the definitive treaty of peace will determine. At present (July 1800) the total territory of the republic, exclusive of Corsica, is from 5° 5' Lon. W. to 7° 47' E. 42° 30' to 51° 0' Lat. N.

FRANK RIVER, a river of Upper Canada runs from Lake Huron, to Lake Nipigon.

FRANK TOWN, a town of Maryland, in the county of Elk, 1 mile S. of Elktown.

FRANK, a village in Gloucestershire.

FRANKFURT, a town of Ireland in Kil-

FRANCHISE. *v. a.* [from *French*.] To imitate the manners of France; to make a country mislike nothing more in king Edward the Confessor than that he was *Frenchified*; imitated the desire of foreign language then broken of bringing in foreign powers, and happened. *Camden*.—

Has he familiarly disliked show starch, or said your doublet is exactly *Frenchified*? *As you like it*.

FRANCHIMAN'S BAY, a bay on the S. coast of Jamaica, between Great Pedro and Starve-

FRANCHIMAN'S BAY, a bay of the United States on the coast of Lincoln county, in the distance, between Mount Desert Island and Point. Lon. 68. 1. W. Lat. 44. 20. N. **FRANK**, a river of Germany in the circle of the Rhine, which runs into the Elbe, &c.

FRANK, a town of France, in the department of Maine, 4 miles ESE. of Bourbogne.

FRANTICK. *adj.* [*frenetique*, French; generally therefore written *phrenetic*.] Rattled.—

He himself impotent,
Of his *frenetick* malady. *Daniel*.

FRANKLIN'S LAKE, a lake of N. America in New York, St John's River runs through it.

FRANKLEIN, a town of France, in the county of Oise, 7 miles SW. of Compiègne.

FRANKFURT, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Bielefeld, 3 miles NNW. of Nor-

FRANZ. *n. f.* [*frensis*; *phrenitis*, Lat. *frenetis*, *phrenetis*, *phrensis*, or *frensis*.] Distraction of mind; alienation of mind; any violent passion approaching to madness. That knave, Ford, hath the finest mad-ness in him that ever governed *frenzy*. *Henry*.—

Fortitude is seen in great exploits,
Ice warrants, and that wildness guides:
How 'ring *frenzy* and distraction. *Cato*.
In a disposition of the body induceth
which disturbs all the operations of the
occasions a lethargy or *frenzy*: this
exceeds our narrow faculties. *Bentley*.
FRANZ. See MEDICINE & PHRENITIS.

* **FREQUENCY**. *n. f.* [*frequentia*, Fr. *frequentia*, Latin.] Crowd; concourse; assembly.—

The *frequency* of degree
From high to low throughout. *Shak. Timon*.
He, in full *frequency* bright
Of angels, thus to Gabriel smiling spake. *Mil.*

* **FREQUENCY**. *n. f.* [*frequentia*, Latin.] 1. Common occurrence; the condition of being often seen or done.—Should a miracle be indulged to one, others would think themselves equally intitled to it; and if indulged to many, it would no longer have the effect of a miracle; its force and influence would be lost by the *frequency* of it. *Atterbury*. 2. Concourse; full assembly.—

Thou canst not crevice into this senate: who
Of such a *frequency*, to many friends

And kindred thou hast here, saluted thee? *Jon.*

* **FREQUENT**. *adj.* [*frequent*, Fr. *frequent*, Latin.] 2. Often done; often seen; often occurring.—The *frequent* these times are, the better. *Duty of Man*.—

An ancient and imperial city falls;
The streets are fill'd with *frequent* funerals.

Dryden's Æneid.
Frequent horses shall besiege your gates. *Pope*.

2. Used often to practise any thing.—The Christians of the first times were generally *frequent* in the practice of it. *Duty of Man*—Every man thinks he may pretend to any employment, provided he has been loud and *frequent* in declaring himself hearty for the government. *Swift*. 3. Full of concourse.—

Frequent and full. *Milton*.

* **TO FREQUENT**. *v. a.* [*frequentare*, Latin; *frequentare*, French.] To visit often; to be much in any place; to resort often to.—

They in latter day,
Finding in it fit ports for sailors trade,
'Gan more the time *frequent*, and further to in-
vade. *Spenser*.

—There were synagogues for men to resort unto:
our Saviour himself and his apostles *frequented*
them. *Hosier*.—

This fellow here, this thy creature,
By night *frequent* my house. *Shak. Timon*.
—At that time this land was known and *frequent-
ed* by the ships and vessels. *Bacon*.—

With tears
Wat'ring the ground, and with our sighs the air
Frequenting, sent from hearts contrite, in sign
Of sorrow unteign'd, and humiliation meek.
Milton.

To serve my friends, the senate I *frequent*;
And there what I before digested, vent. *Denis*.
—That he *frequented* the court of Augustus, and
was well received in it, is most undoubted. *Dryd*.

* **FREQUENTABLE**. *adj.* [from *frequent*.] Conversable; accessible. A word not now used, but not inelegant.—While youth lasted in him, the exercises of that age and his humour, not yet fully discovered, made him somewhat the more *frequentable* and less dangerous. *Sidney*.

* **FREQUENTATIVE**. *adj.* [*frequentativus*, Fr. *frequentativus*, Lat.] A grammatical term applied to verbs signifying the frequent repetition of an action.

* **FREQUENTER**. *n. f.* [from *frequent*.] One who often resorts to any place.—Persons under

seen but some light skirmishes, in their vain bravery made light account of the Turks. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*

(2.) FRESHWATER, in geography a river of Wales in Pembrokeshire, which runs into the Sea, and forms a bay, 6 miles SE. of Pembroke Haven.

(3.) FRESHWATER BAY, a bay in the Straits of Magellan. Lon. 72. 13. W. Lat. 53. 27. N.

(4.) FRESHWATER BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 53. 30. W. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(5.) FRESHWATER BAY, a bay on the W. coast of the isle of Wight. Lon. 1. 31. W. Lat. 50. 37. N.

(1.) PRESNE, Charles DE, Sieur DU CANGE, one of the most learned writers of his time, was born at Amiens in 1610, and studied at the Jesuits college in that city. Afterwards he studied the law at Orleans, and gained great reputation by his works; among which are, 1. The history of Constantinople under the French emperors. 2. John Cinnamus's History of the affairs of John and Manuel Comnenus, in Greek and Latin, with historical and philological notes. 3. *Glossarium ad Scriptores mediæ & infimæ Latinitatis*: 6 vols folio. 4. A Greek Glossary, consisting of curious passages from rare MSS. 2 vols folio. He died in 1688, aged 78. Lewis XIV settled pensions on his 4 children.

(2.) PRESNE, a town of France, in the dept. of the Meuse; 10½ miles SE. of Verdun, and 12 NNE. of St Mihiel.

(3.) PRESNE ST MEMETZ, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Saône; 12 miles SE. of Gray, and 12 SW. of Vesoul.

FRESNEAU, a town of France, in the dept. of Oise; 10 miles S. of Beauvais.

(1.) FRESNES, a town of France, in the dept. of Calvados, 12 miles S. of Vire.

(2.) FRESNES, a town of France, in the dept. of the Straits of Calais; 7¼ miles NE. of Arras.

FRESNILLO, a town of Mexico, in the prov. of Zacatecas, 40 miles N. of Zacatecas.

FRESNO, 2 towns of Spain: 1. in Old Castile, 5 miles S. of Borgo d'Oñina: 2. in Andalusia, 20 miles N. of Cordova.

(1.) FRESNOY, Charles Alphonso DU, an excellent poet and painter, born at Paris in 1611. He was instructed by Perrier and Simon Vouet in painting, but as soon as he fixed himself at Rome, he made the works of Titian his models. He was, however, more celebrated as a poet than as a painter; and is better known by his incomparable poem *De arte graphica*, than by his performances on the canvass. He bestowed so much pains on it, that he died in 1665, before it was published. It was printed afterward with a French prose translation and notes, by M. de Piles; and was translated into English by Mr Dryden, who prefixed an original preface with a parallel between painting and poetry.

(2.) FRESNOY, a town of France, in the dept. of Oise; 7 miles SW. of Compiègne.

FRESQUEL, a river of France, which runs into the Aude, near Carcassonne.

FRESSELINIS, a town of France, in the dept. of Creuse, on the Creuse, 15 m. NNW. of Gueret.

FRESSENVILLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Somme; 10 miles W. of Abbeville.

FRESSIN, a town of France, in the Straits of Calais, 4½ miles N. of Ham.

FRESTA, a town of Sweden, in the dept. of Upland, 21 miles SE. of Upsal.

(1.) FRESWICK, a river of Scotland, which runs into the Sea near Wigtown.

(3.) FRESWICK, a town of England, in the county of York.

(1.) * FRET. *n. f.* [Of this word the etymology is very doubtful: some derive it from *fretum*, to eat; others from *fretum*, to add; from *fretum*; Skinner more probably from the French *fretiller*: perhaps it comes directly from the Latin *fretum*.] 1. A strait of the sea, where the water by being confined is always rough.—Euripus generally signifies a strait, *fret*, or channel of the sea, between two shores. *Brown.* 2. Any astringent liquors by fermentation, confinement, &c. cause.—Of this river the surface is covered with froth and bubbles; for it runs long up and is still breaking against the stones in its passage. *Addition on Italy.*—The fret, if well governed, like wine upon discharge, discharges itself of heterogeneous mixtures. 3. That stop of the musical instrument, which causes or regulates the vibrations of the string. It requireth good winding of a string will make any note; and, in the top of the frets the higher they go, the less distance between the frets. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The harp

Had work, and rested not: the sole
And dulcener, all organs of sweet rest
All sounds on fret by string or golden
Temper'd soft tunings, intermix'd
Choral or unison. *Milton's Paradise Lost*

—They are fitted to answer the most perfect harmony: two or three pipes to all the church organ, or to all the strings and lute. *Grew's Conf. Sac.* 4. Work rising, or projecting, in architecture.—The frets of houses, and figures, please; whereas unequal figures deformities. *Bacon's Natural History.*—delight in a prospect well laid out, and with fields and meadows, woods and groves. 5. Agitation of the mind; commotion; temper; passion.—

Calmness is great advantage: he that

Another chase, may warm him at his

Mark all his wand'ring, and enjoy

As cunning fencers suffer heat to tire

The incredulous Phœac, having yet

Drank but one round, reply'd in scorn

You, too weak, the slightest loss

Are on the fret of passion, boil and

Yet then did Dennis rave in fury

I never answer'd; I was not in debt

(2.) FRET, or FRETTE, in architecture

def. 4.) a kind of knot or ornament, consisting of two lists or small fillets variously interwoven, and running at parallel distances to their breadth.

in heraldry, a bearing composed of fretted and variously interlaced. Some *weaver's knot*. See HERALDRY.

in music, (q. v., *def.* 3.) a kind of fretted instruments, particularly bass viols. Frets consist of strings tied round the instrument, at certain distances, within and such notes are to be found.

FRET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To fret by external impulse or action.—*as well forbid the mountain pines their high tops, and to make a noise by are fretted with the gulls of heav'n.*

Shakespeare.

away by rubbing.—

up them still upon one place, have fretted us a pair of graves

in earth. *Shakespeare's Rich. II.*

beds of rivers, with the washing of the

we were divers times fretted out big

bed. *Abbot.*—Before I ground the object

in pitch, I always ground the patty on

in concave copper, 'till it had done

office; because, if the particles of the

not made to stick fast in the pitch, they

rolling up and down, grate and fret

metal, and fill it full of little holes.

ptics. 3. To hurt by attrition.—

Antony

and dejected; and, by starts,

if fortunes give him hope and fear

he has and has not.

Shak. Ant. and Cleop.

side; to eat away.—It is fret inward,

we bare within or without. *Lev. xiii. 55.*

unful husband, plowing up his ground,

all fret with rust, both pikes and

is,

ty helms under his harrow found.

Hakewill.

into raised work.—

Nor did there want

or freeze, with bossy sculptures grav'n;

was fretted gold. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

gate; to diversify.—

Yon grey lines,

the clouds, are messengers of day.

Shak. Julius Cesar.

to angry; to vex.—

fter part with Mary and with Ruth

you hast; and they that over-ween,

by growing virtues fret their spleen,

ger find in thee, but pity and truth.

Milton.

hou hast fretted me in all these things,

ill recompence thy way upon thine

. xvi. 43.—Such an expectation, cries

ever come to pass: therefore I'll even

and go and fret myself. *Collier.*—In-

friends fret and gall more, and the

them is not so easily obliterated. *Arb.*

Bull.

FRET. *v. n.* 1. To be in commotion;

ed.—No benefits whatsoever shall ever

ay that diabolical rancour, that frets

ts in some hellish breasts, but that it

at in slander and invective. *South.*—

Th' adjoining brook, that purls along

The vocal grove, now fretting o'er a rock,

Now scarcely moving through a reedy pool.

Thom's Summ.

2. To be worn away; to be corroded.—Take a

piece of glove's leather that is very thin, and put

your gold therein, with sal armoniack, binding it

close, and then hang it up: the sal armoniack will

fret away, and the gold remain behind. *Peachment*

on Drawing.—3. To make way by attrition or

corrosion.—These do but indeed scrape off the

exuberances, or fret into the wood, and therefore

they are very seldom used to soft wood. *Moxon's*

Mech. Exer.—It inflamed and swelled very much;

many wheals arose, and fretted one into another

with great excoriation. *Witman.* 4. To be angry;

to be peevish; to vex himself.—They trouble

themselves with fretting at the ignorance of such

as withstand them in their opinion. *Hooker.*—We

are in a fretting mind at the church of Rome,

and with angry disposition enter into cogitation.

Hooker.—

Helpless, what may it boot

To fret for anger, or for grief to moan? *P. Q.*

Their wounded needs

Fret fetlock deep in gore, and with wild rage

Yerk out their armed heels at their dead masters.

Shak. Henry V.

Be lion-mettled, proud, and take no care

Who chafes, who frets, or where conspirers

are.

Shak. Macb.

—His heart fretteth against the Lord. *Prov. xix. 3.*

Rudibras fretting

Conquest should be so long a-getting,

Drew up his force.

Rudibras.

He swells with wrath, he makes outrageous

moan,

He frets, he fumes, he stares, he stamps the

ground.

Dryden.

How should I fret to mangle ev'ry line,

In reverence to the sins of thirty-nine. *Pope.*

FRETEVAL, a town of France, in the dep.

of Loire and Cher, 6 miles NE of Vendôme, and

6 N. of Blois.

* **FRETFUL**, *adj.* [from *fret*.] Angry; peevish; in a state of vexation.—

Thy knotty and combined locks to part,

And each particular hair to stand on end,

Like quills upon the fretful porcupine.

Shak. Hamlet.

Where's the king?

—Contending with the fretful elements;

Bids the wind blow the earth into the sea.

Shak. K. Lear.

—They are extremely fretful and peevish, never

well at rest; but always calling for this or that,

or changing their posture of lying or sitting. *Har.*

Are you positive and fretful;

Heedless, ignorant, forgetful?

Swift.

* **FRETFULLY**, *adv.* [from *fretful*.] Peevishly.

* **FRETFULNESS**, *n. s.* [from *fretful*.] Patience; peevishness.

FRETUN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, 3 miles S. of Calais.

FRETTON, a town of England, in Norfolk.

FRETOY, a town of France, in the department of the Oise, 5 miles NW. of Noyon.

(1.) **FRETTS**,

(1.) **FRETTS**, *n. f.* in mineralogy, a term used by miners to express the worn side of the banks of the rivers in mine countries, where they search for the load stones or grewtz washed down from the hills, in order from thence to trace out the running of the load up to the mine.

(2.) **FRETTS**, **FREATS**, or **FREITS**. See **FREATS**.

* **FRETTY**. *adj.* [from *fret*.] Adorned with raised work.

FRET-WORK, work adorned with frets. It is sometimes used to fill up and enrich flat empty spaces; but it is mostly practised in roofs, which are fretted over with plaster work.

FREUDENBERG, the name of 3 towns of Germany: viz. 1. in the circle of Bavaria, and Up. Palatinate, 4 miles E. of Amberg: 2. in that of Franconia, and county of Wertheim, on the Main, 8 miles N. of Wertheim, and 28 NE. of Heidelberg: 3. in Westphalia, in Nassau-Siegen, 5 miles WNW. of Siegen.

FREUDENSTADT, a fortified town of Suabia, with a citadel, in the duchy of Wirtemberg; founded in 1600, as an asylum for the persecuted German Protestants. It is seated in the Black Forest, 24 miles SE. of Strasburg, and 36 SW. of Stuttgart. A part of the French army, under Gen. Jourdan, were posted here, on the 7th April 1799, when they attacked the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, but were forced to retreat. Lon. 26. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 23. N.

(1.) **FREUDENTHAL**, a town of Silesia, in Troppau, famous for fine linen and good horses; 11 m. SW. of Jagendorf, and 19 W. of Troppau.

(2.) **FREUDENTHAL**, or **BISTRA**, a village of Carniola, seated near the Felsnitz, 5 miles N. of Circuitz.

FREVENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 3 miles NE. of Windisch Weitritz.

FREVENT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais; 7½ miles S. of St Pol, and 6 W. of Arras.

FREVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine, 4½ miles NE. of Caudebec.

FREUNDSEERG, a town of Germany in the Tyrolse, 2 miles E. of Schwatz.

FREUNDSEHEIM, a town of Germany, in the Tyrolse, 24 miles W. of Innspruck.

FREYA, **FRIA**, or **FREGGA**, the Venus of the Saxons. See **FREA**. The following German towns appear to have been named from her:

FREYBERG or **FRIBERG**, a town of Up. Saxony in the margravate of Meissen, on the Muldaw; containing 6 churches and about 2000 houses. The environs abound with mines of silver, copper, lead, and tin, which produce above 10,000 rix-dollars annually. It is 18 miles SSW. of Meissen, and 19 WSW. of Dresden. Lon. 31. 1. E. of Ferro. Lat. 50. 07. N.

FREYBERG or **PEIBER**, a town of Moravia, 28 miles ENE. of Pilsen, and 36 E. of Olomitz.

(1.) **FREYBERG**, a town of Silesia, in Schweidnitz, near the Bonnitz, 7 miles W. of Schweidnitz.

(2.) **FREYBERG**, or **FRIBURG**, a town of Up. Saxony, 15 miles S. of Halle, and 4 NNW. of Naumburg.

(3, 4.) **FREYBERG**. See **FRIBURG**, N. 1, 2.

FREYENSTEIN, a territory of the Helvetic

republic, surrounded by the late cantons rich, Bern, Lucerne and Zug; ancient *Kori* and *Wuggenthal*. The Swiss to Count Hapsburg in 1415. It is 24 and 12 broad; and contains about 20,

FREYENSTADT, a town of Bavar Schwarzach; 20 miles SE. of Nuremb NW. of Ratibon. Lon. 29. 8. E. of 49. 9. N.

FREYENSTEIN, a town of Upper miles SE. of Meyenburg.

FREYENTHURN, a town of Carnic Kulp, 7 miles S. of Rudolfsworth.

FREYENWALD, a town of Brandenburg. The natives export corn, b fish, alum, &c. It lies 24 miles NW. and 32 NE. of Berlin.

FREYHAN, a town of Silesia, in Oels

FREYHEIL, a town of Bohemia, in of Koniggratz, 6 miles NW. of Frat

FREYHOFF, a town of Carniola, on 7 miles SW. of Landstrafs.

FREYHUNG, a town of Bavaria, in 10 miles NE. of Sulzbach, and 11 N.

FREYLA, a town of Spain, in Gra

FREYLING, a town of Austria, 4 of Efferding.

(1.) **FREYSINGEN**, or **FRIESINGEN**, a bishopric principality of Germany in B between Munich and Landshut. It co the counties of Ismaning and Werd the lordship of Burgkrain.

(2.) **FREYSINGEN**, the capital of bishopric. See **FRIESINGEN**, N. 2.

(1.) **FREYSTADT**, or **FREUSTADT**, Austria, 82 miles W. of Vienna.

(2.) **FREYSTADT**, a town of Prussia land, 80 miles SW. of Konigsberg.

(3, 4.) **FREYSTADT**; 2 towns of Si the principality of Glogau, 14 miles NE 2. in that of Teschen, 7 miles, NNW.

FREYSTATT, a town and castle of on the Waag, 2 miles NE. of Leopold

FREYSTETT, or **FREYSTAETT**, a to many in the circle of the Upper Rhin NW. of Darmstadt.

FREYUNG, a town of Bavaria, in th of Passau, 14 miles N. of Passau.

FREYVALDE, 2 towns of Silesia: 1. cipality of Grotkau, 15 miles S. of in that of Sagan, 12 miles SW. of Sag

FRIA, or **FREGGA**. See **FREA**.

* **FRIABILITY**. *n. f.* [from *friable*.] being easily reduced to powder.—Har ability, and power to draw iron, are be found in a loadstone. *Locke*.

* **FRIABLE**. *adj.* [from *friable*, French Latin.] Easily crumbled; easily reduced.—A spongy excrecence groweth roots of the tree, and sometime very white, light, and *friable*, wh attack. *Pison's Nat. Hist.*—The the viscera is the most *friable*, and Liked or dissolved. *Johnson's Diet.*

(1.) * **FRIAR**. *n. f.* [A corruption French.] A religious; a brother of f order.—

Holy Franciscan *friar*! brother!

fruits, and pastures: and the canton can send 18,000 men into the field. The total population is above 72,800. The people are Roman catholics. The bishop of Lausanne's diocese extends over this canton, and part of that of Soleure.

(5.) FRIBURG, a celebrated hermitage, in the above canton, (N. 4.) 3 miles from the capital (N. 3.) containing a church and steeple, a vestry, a kitchen, a large hall, two rooms on each side, two pair of stairs, and a cellar, all cut out of the solid rock. The church is 63 feet long, 36 broad, and 22 high. But the most wonderful thing is the steeple, which is 70 feet high above the rock. The chimney of the kitchen is also very surprising, for the passage up is 90 feet in height. It is almost inconceivable how one man, with his servant, could perform so difficult a work, though they were 25 years in executing it.

(6.) FRIBURG. See FREYBURG. N. 2.

(7.) FRIBURG L'EVEQUE, a town of France, in the dept. of Meurthe, 6 miles E. of Dieuze and 7½ W. of Strasburg.

FRIBUS, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Elbogen, 9 miles W. of Joachimsthal.

* FRICASSEE. *n. f.* [French.] A dish made by cutting chickens or other small things in pieces, and dressing them with strong sauce.—

Oh, how would Homer praise their dancing dogs,

Their stinking cheese, and *fricassée* of frogs!

He'd raise no fables, sing no flagrant lye,

Of boys with custard choak'd at Newberry.

Aug.

* FRICATION. *n. f.* [*fricatio*, Latin.] The act of rubbing one thing against another.—Gentle *frication* draweth forth the nourishment, by making the parts a little hungry, and heating them: this *frication* I wish to be done in the morning. *Bacon's Nat. Hist*—Resinous or unctuous bodies, and such as will flame, attract vigorously, and most thereof without *frication*, as good hard wax, which will convert the needle almost as actively as the loadstone. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

FRICENTI, or *†* an episcopal town of Naples,

FRICENTY, *§* in Principato Ultra, near the Trpalto; 12 miles NW. of Conza, and 20 SE. of Benevento. Lon. 15. 9. E. Lat. 40. 59. N.

(1.) * FRICTION. *n. f.* [*friction*, Fr. *frictio*, from *frico*, Latin.] 1. The act of rubbing two bodies together.—Do not all bodies which abound with terrestrial parts, and especially with sulphureous ones, emit light as often as those parts are sufficiently agitated, whether the agitation be made by heat, *friction*, percussion, putrefaction, or by any vital motion? *Newton's Optics.* 2. The resistance in machines caused by the motion of one body upon another. 3. Medical rubbing with the fleshbrush or cloths.—*Frictions* make the parts more fleshy and full, as we see both in men and in the currying of horses; for that they draw a greater quantity of spirits to the parts. *Bacon.*

(2.) FRICTION, (*§* 1. *def.* 1) is called also ATTRITION. The phenomena arising upon the friction of divers bodies, under different circumstances, are very numerous and considerable. Mr Hawki-
bee gives a number of experiments of this kind; particularly of the attrition or friction of glass, under various circumstances, the result of which

was, that it yielded light and became heat. All bodies by friction are brought to heat; many of them to emit light; *•* cat's back, sugar, beaten sulphur, sea water, gold, copper, &c. but diamonds, which when briskly rubbed on glass, gold, or the like, yield a light as if of a live coal when blowed by the bellows. *ELECTRICITY, Index.*

(3.) FRICTION, in mechanics, (*§* 1. *def.* 1) is the resistance which arises from the roughness or asperity of the surface of the body moved on, and that of the body moved against it. It is the resistance for such surfaces consisting alternately of eminences and cavities, either the eminences must be raised over those of the other body, or must be both broke and worn off; and it can happen without motion, nor can it be produced without a force impressed. The force applied to move the body is either wholly or partly spent on this effect; and consequently there arises a resistance or friction, which is greater, *ceteris paribus*, as the eminences are greater and the substance the harder: the body, by continual friction, becomes more polished, the friction diminishes. *Amontons, De La Hire, Camus, Muschenbroek, Ferguson, Euler,* and other mechanicians, have made a number of experiments to settle a principle for the determination of the quantity of friction. A successful set of experiments, made on this subject, are those of the rev. Samuel Vince of Cambridge; published in the 75th *Philos. Transf.* p. 165. Mr Emerson, in his *Principles of Mechanics* has also made several remarks on the friction of wood and iron. *MECHANICS.*

(4.) FRICTION, in medicine and surgery, (*§* 3.) is performed with oils, unguents, matters, to relieve, or cure a diseased part. Frictions with mercurial ointment are most useful in venereal cases. The application of friction externally by friction, is preferred to give salivation, to raise a salivation. Friction with a flesh-brush, a linen cloth, or even the hand, contribute greatly to health, in all diseases which impede the circulation of the blood and humors, or the power of the nerves. Persons therefore, of weak nerves and low spirits, should supply the want of other exercise, by spending half an hour, morning and night, in rubbing their whole body, especially their limbs, with a flesh-brush. This is most advantageous when the *primæ viæ* are most relaxed.

FRIDATHORP, a village E. of Kington.

FRIDAW, a town of Germany, 104 miles ESE. of Pettaw, and 104 S. of Vindobona. Lon. 16. 57. E. of Ferro. Lat. 46. 30. N.

(1.) * FRIDAY. *n. f.* [*Frige dæg*, Saxon, sixth day of the week, so named from the Saxon deity.—An' the were not kin, it would be as fair on Friday as Helen is on Shab. *Trail. and Cress.*—

For Venus, like her day, will change her name,
And seldom shall we see a Friday clime.

(2.) FRIDAY, by the Romans was *Veneris*. See VREA, and GOOD-FRIDAY.

(1.) FRIDBERG, a town of Germ.

, with a castle. It was plundered by the
in 1632; and taken by the Austrians in
It lies 4 miles SE. of Augsburg, and 28
of Munich. Lon. 11. 10. E. Lat. 48. 20. N.
FRIDBERG, an imperial town of Germany,
cravia, and in the landgravate of Hesse;
on a mountain, 12 miles NE. of Frankfurt,
ENE. of Mentz. Lon. 8. 46. E. Lat. 50.

FRIDBERG, a town of Germany in Stiria,
5 E. of Preck, and 42 S. of Vienna. Lon.
E. of Ferro, Lat. 47. 32. N.

FRIDBERG, in Silesia. See FRIEDBERG.
FRIDBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle
of Saxony, and province of Thuringia,
on the Unstrut, 30 miles W. of Leipzick.
Lon. 12. 41. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

FRIDECK, a town of Silesia, 10 miles
of Teichen, and 10 S. of Odelberg.

FRIDECK, a town of Prussia, 12 miles E. of

FRIEDRICHSBURG, a fort on the coast of
, 75 miles from Cape Coast Castle.

FRIEDRICHSE. See FREDERICKSE.

FRIEDWALDE, a town of Germany in
Saxony, 18 m. W. of Eisenach and 35 SSE.
of Jena.

FRIEDWALDE, a town of Westphalia, in
the county of Sayn, 9 miles S. of Siegen.

FRIEDLING, a town of Germany, in Austrian
Saxony, on the Danube; 20 miles SE. of Tubin-
gen and 10 NE. of Constance. Lon. 9. 31. E.
Lat. 48. 11. N.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Bohemia, 55 m.
from Prague. Lon. 15. 15. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Prussia, in the prov.
of Posen, 20 m. SE. of Konigsberg.

FRIEDMAN, a town of Hungary, 17 m. NNW.
of Pest.

FRIEDO, a town of Naples, in the province of
Naples, 7 miles ESE. of Potenza.

FRIEDRICHSTEIN, a town of Germany, in
Saxony, 1 mile NW. of Gottschee.

FRIEDSTOL, one of the ancient immunities
belonging to churches. The word signifies a seat,
or place of peace and security, where cri-
minals find safety and protection. Of these
there were many in England; but the most fa-
mous were those at Beverly, and in St Peter's
at York, granted by charter of king Henry I.

FRIEDBERG, or FRIDBERG, a town of
Silesia, 6 miles SW. of Ziegenhals.

FRIEDBERG, or FRIEDENBURG, a town of
Silesia, in the duchy of Jauer, on the Queiss; 11 m.
from Lowerberg, and 14 WNW. of Hirschberg.

FRIEDBERG HOHEN, a town of Silesia, in
the duchy of Schweidnitz; where Frederick the
Great defeated the Austrians, June 4th, 1745. It
lies SW. of Striegau, and 10 NW. of
Schweidnitz.

FRIEDBURG, a Moravian settlement of N.
Germany in Surry county.

FRIEDEBERG, a town of Brandenburg, 46
m. of Frankfurt on the Oder, and 82 ENE.
of Berlin.

FRIEDEBURG, a town of Saxony, in the
county of Mansfeld, 4 m. E. of Gerbstadt.

FRIEDEBURG, a town of Westphalia, in E.

Friesland, 22 miles ENE. of Embden. Lon. 25. 8.
E. of Ferro. Lat. 53. 30. N.

FRIEDELAND, a town of Silesia, in the duchy
of Schweidnitz, 16 miles SW. of Schweidnitz.

FRIEDENSBURG, [D. n. i. e. *the Mansion of
Peace*] a palace of Denmark, near lake Elleron,
4 miles from Fredericksburg, built by Frederick
IV, K. of Denmark, in 1720, when peace was
concluded with Sweden.

FRIEDENSHUTTEN, [i. e. *Tents of Peace*] a
Moravian town and settlement in Pennsylvania,
on the Susquehanna, 24 miles below Tioga Point.
Besides a neat chapel and elegant houses, it con-
tains 13 Indian huts, and 250 acres.

FRIEDERICKSTADT, a town on the W. coast
of Santa Cruz. Lon. 93. 25. W. Lat. 17. 48. N.

FRIEDEWALDE, a town of Silesia, in the
duchy of Niesse, 6 miles S. of Grotkaw.

(1.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Bohemia, in the
circle of Boleslau, 9 miles NE. of Krottau.

(2.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Lusatia, on a canal
of the Spree, 8 miles N. of Lieberose.

(3.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Moravia, in the
circle of Olmutz; 18 miles NNE. of Olmutz.

(4.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Up. Saxony, in
Mecklenburg, 14 miles NE. of New Brandenburg.

FRIEDLINGEN, or FRIDLINGEN, a town and
fort of Suabia, 3 miles E. of the Rhine, and 4 N.
of Balle. Lon. 7. 36. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

FRIELD, a town of Sweden, in the province
of Smaland, 33 miles NW. of Wexio.

* FRIEND, *n. f. friend*, Dutch; *freund*, Sax.]
This word, with its derivatives is pronounced
friend, *friendly*; the *i* is usually neglected. 1. One joined
to another in mutual benevolence and intima-
cy; opposed to foe or enemy.—

Friends of my soul, you twain

Rule in this realm, and the god's state sustain.

Shakespeare.

—Some man is a friend for his own occasion, and
will not abide in the day of thy trouble. *Eccles.*
vi. 8.—

God's benison go with you, and with those
That would make good of bad, and *friends* of
foes.

Shakespeare.

Wonder not to see this foul extend
The bounds, and seek some other self, a *friend*.

Dryden.

2. One without hostile intentions.—

Who comes so fast in silence of the night?

—A *friend*.

—What *friend*? your name? *Sh. Merch. of Ven.*

3. One reconciled to another: this is put by the
custom of the language somewhat irregularly in
the plural number.—

He's *friends* with Cæsar,

In state of health thou say'st, and thou say'st free.

Shakespeare.

My son came then into my mind; and yet my
mind

Was then scarce *friends* with him. *Sh. Lear.*

If she repent, and would make me a *friend*,
Bid her but send me her's, and we are *friends*.

Greene.

4. An attendant, or companion.—

The king ordains their entrance, and ascends
His regal seat, surrounded by his *friends*. *Æn.*

5. *Favourer*, one propitious.—Aurora riding up.

on Pegasus, sheweth her swiftness, and how she is a *friend* to poetry and all ingenious inventions. *Peackam.* 6. A familiar compellation — *Friend*, how camest thou in hither? *Mat.* xxii. 12.

What supports me, dost thou ask?

The conscience, *friend*, t'have lost mine eyes o'erply'd

In liberty's defence.

Milton.

* *To FRIEND.* *v. a.* [from the noun] To favour; to befriend; to countenance; to support.—

I know that we shall have him well to *friend*.

Shakespeare.

When vice makes mercy, mercy's so extended,
That, for the fault's love, is th' offender *friend*.

ed.

Shakespeare.

* *FRIENDED.* *adj.* Well disposed; inclined to love.—

Not *friended* by his wish to your high person,
His will is most malignant, and it stretches
Beyond you to your friends.

Shakesp.

* *FRIENDLESS.* *adj.* [from *friend*.] 1. Wanting friends; wanting support; without countenance; destitute; forlorn.—

Alas! I am a woman, *friendless*, hopeless.

Shakespeare's H. VIII.

—Woe to him that is alone, is verified upon none
so much as upon the *friendless* person. *South.*—

To some new clime, or to thy native sky,

Oh *friendless* and forsaken virtue fly.

Dryd.

To what new clime, what distant sky,

Forsaken, *friendless*, will ye fly?

Pope.

* 2. *FRIENDLESS MAN.* The Saxon word for him whom we call an outlaw, because he was, upon his exclusion from the king's peace and protection, denied all help of friends.

* *FRIENDLINESS.* *n. f.* [from *friendly*.] 1. A disposition to friendship.—Such a liking and *friendliness* as hath brought forth the effects. *Sidney.* 2. Exertion of benevolence.—Let all the intervals be employed in prayers, charity, *friendliness* and neighbourhood, and means of spiritual and corporal health. *Taylor's Rule of holy living.*

(1.) * *FRIENDLY.* *adj.* [from *friend*.] 1. Having the temper and disposition of a friend; kind; favourable; benevolent.—They gave them thanks, desiring them to be *friendly* still unto them. 2 *Mat.* xii. 31.—

Thou to mankind

Be good, and *friendly* still, and oft return! *Milt.*

How art thou

To me so *friendly* grown above the rest

Of brutal kind? *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

Let the Nassau star in rising majesty appear,

And guide the prosp'rous mariner

With everlasting beams of *friendly* light. *Prior.*

2. Disposed to union; amicable.—

Like *friendly* colours found our hearts unite,
And each from each contract new strength and
light.

Pope.

3. Salutary; homogeneal.—

Not that Nepenthe, which the wife of Thone
In Egypt gave to Jove born Heiæna,
Is of such power to stir up joy as this,
To be so *friendly*, or so cool to thirst. *Milton.*

(2.) * *FRIENDLY.* *adv.* In the manner of friends; with appearance of kindness; amicably.—

Here between the armies,

Let's drink together *friendly*, and embrace;

That all their eyes may bear those tokens

Of our restored love and amity. *Shak. H.*

(3.) *FRIENDLY ISLANDS*, a cluster of islands in the Pacific Ocean, so named by Capt. Cook in 1770 on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from the courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than 60, and left some European plants and animals upon them. (See *COOK*, N° III, § 10.) There are three islands which Tasman saw he named *Amsterdam*, *Rotterdam*, and *Middleburg*. The first is the largest, See *AMSTERDAM*, N° ii. The chief of these islands are *ANNAMOONA*, *TABOO*, *LEFOOGA*, and *LAGOOA*, or *MIDDLEBURG*. See these articles. The natives of these islands seldom exceed the common stature, but are strong and well made. They are generally black about the shoulders; and though the muscular appearance of the men rather conveys the idea of strength than of beauty, several of them are handsome. Most of the women are well proportioned, and some are absolutely perfect models of beauty both in features and figure. But the most remarkable distinction, is the uncommon smallness and delicacy of their fingers. The general colour is a cast deeper than the copper brown; but the natives of *Amsterdam* have a true olive complexion; and some of the women are even a great deal fairer. Their countenances express their natural mildness, being entirely free from that savage keenness which is the mark of most nations in a barbarous state. They are cheerful, and good-natured. There are few natural deformities to be found amongst them. The most common is the tetter or ring-worm, which seems to affect almost one half of them, and is marked with whitish serpentine marks everywhere behind the ears. Captain Cook had the mortification to learn that all the care he took when he first visited these islands, to prevent the venereal disease from being communicated to the inhabitants, had proved ineffectual. But they do not seem to regard it much. As there appeared few signs of its effects, probably the climate, and their way of living, abate its virulence. There are two other complaints frequent amongst them; one of which is an indolent firm swelling, that affects the neck and arms, and increases them to an extraordinary size in their whole length. The other is a tumour of the same sort in the testicles, which sometimes exceeds the size of the two fists. In other respects they seem uncommonly healthy. Their hair is generally straight, thick, and strong, though some have it bushy or frizzled. The natural colour of the men is black; but the greatest part of the men, and some of the women, have it stained of a brown, purple, or orange colour. Some have it cut off on one side of the head only; others have it entirely cut off except a single lock; the women in general wear it short. The men have their beards short; and both men and women strip the hair from the arm-pits. The men are stained from about the middle of the belly to about half-way down the thighs with a deep blue colour. The women have only a few small blue or spots

ed on the inside of their hands. The men circumcised, or rather *supercised*, as the operation consists in cutting off only a small piece of foreskin at the upper part; which is thus incapable of ever after covering the glans. The use of both men and women is the same: a strip of a piece of cloth or matting, about 2½ wide and 2½ long: so as to go once and a half round the waist, to which it is confined by a knot. It is double before, and hangs down like a coat, as low as the middle of the leg. When folded, there is cloth sufficient to draw a wrap round the shoulders. The interior of the wrap wears nothing but a covering made of a narrow piece of bark, which is a narrow piece of bark, passed between the thighs, and round the waist. The use of this is chiefly for the men. The ornaments worn by the women are necklaces, made of the fruit of the tree, and various sweet-smelling flowers, and various *beads*. Others are composed of shells, bones of birds, shark's teeth, &c. hanging loose upon the breast; rings of shells on the fingers; or joined together into bracelets on the wrists. The lobes of the ears are most frequently only one; are perforated with holes, in which they wear cylindrical ornaments about 1 inch long. They bathe in the sea, being sensible that salt water hurt the skin when they bathe in the sea, they compare fresh water poured over them to wash. Those of superior rank use cocoa-nut oil, improves the appearance of the skin. The use of their cloth is wholly confined to the women; as is also that of their ornaments, which are esteemed both for their texture and with many other articles of less note; by which they make vast numbers, and all finished with great taste. The labours of the men are laborious and extensive. Agriculture, fishing, boat-building, fishing, and other labour relate to navigation, are the objects of their industry. Roots and fruits being their principal food, they pay constant attention to agriculture; they have brought to great perfection, and the planters and yams, they observe the seasons, and make the rows every way regular. The coconuts and bread-fruit are scattered about without order, and are not so valuable after they have reached a height. The houses of the lower people are small, and very small; those of the higher are larger and more comfortable. The houses of one of a middling size are about 20 ft. long, 10 broad, and 12 high. The house is, in the interior, a thatched roof, supported by posts. The floor is raised with earth, and covered with strong thick matting, and very clean. A thick strong mat, about 3 ft. long, bent into a semicircle, and set upon the floor, in shape resembling a sander, incloses a place for the master and mistress to sleep in. The rest of the floor, the unmarried men and women sleep upon. If the family be large, there are other rooms adjoining, to which the servants retire at night; so that privacy is much observed. The ornaments they wear in the day serve for their

covering in the night. Their whole furniture consists of a bowl or two, in which they make kava; a few gourds; cocoa nut shells; and some small wooden stools, which serve them for pillows. They display much ingenuity in building and navigating their canoes. The only tools, that they use to construct them, which are very dexterously made, are hatchets, or rather thick adzes, of a smooth black stone that abounds at Toofoa; augers, made of shark's teeth, fixed on small handles, and rasps of a rough skin of a fish, tattered on flat pieces of wood, thinner on one side, with handles. The cordage is made from the fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, which, though above 9 or 10 inches long, they split about the size of a quill, to any length, and roll it up in ball, from which the larger ropes are made by twisting several of these together. The lines that they fish with are as strong and even as the best cores we make. Their other fishing implements are large and small hooks made of pearl shell. Their weapons are clubs of different sorts, spears, and darts. They have also bows and arrows, for shooting birds. The clubs are about two feet long, but only 4 or 5 inches high, and near 4 broad, bending downward in the middle, with 4 strong legs, and circular feet: the whole made of one piece of black or brown wood, neatly polished, and sometimes inlaid with bits of ivory. Yams, plantain, bread-fruit, and coconuts, compose the greatest part of their vegetable diet. Of their animal food, the chief articles are, hogs, fowls, fish, and shell fish; the lower people eat rats. Their food is generally dressed by boiling, and they have the art of making, from different kinds of fruit, several dishes, which Captain Cook's people esteemed very good. When food is served up to the chiefs, it is commonly laid upon green plantain leaves. The women eat with the men; but there are certain ranks amongst them that can neither eat nor drink together. They seem to have no set time for meals. They go to bed as soon as it is dark, and rise with the dawn. Their diversions are chiefly singing, dancing, and music. The dancing of the men has a thousand different motions with the hands, performed with an ease and grace not to be described but by those who have seen them. Most of the men satisfy themselves with one wife. The chiefs, however, have commonly several, though only one is looked upon as the mistress of the family. When any person of rank dies, his body is washed and decorated by women, appointed on the occasion; who, by their customs, must not touch any food with their hands, for many months afterwards; and the length of the time they are thus prohibited, is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they had washed. The concern of their people for the dead is extraordinary. They beat their teeth with stones, for the sake of a shark's tooth into the head until the blood flows in streams, and thrust boars into the inner part of the thigh, into their sides below the armpits, and through the cheeks into the mouth. But these painful operations are only practised on the death of those most nearly connected. Their long and general mourning proves, that they consider death as a very great evil. And this is confirmed by a very odd custom which they practise to avert

It. They suppose that the Deity will accept of the little finger, as a sort of sacrifice to procure the recovery of their health. They cut it off with one of their stone hatchets. There was scarcely one among ten of them who was not thus mutilated. The inferior people also cut off a joint of the little finger on account of the sickness of the chiefs to whom they belong. They seem to have no idea of future punishment. They believe, however, that they are justly punished upon earth; and therefore use every method to render their divinities propitious. The Supreme Author of all things they call *Kallafootonga*; who, they say, is a female residing in the sky, and directing all the changes of the weather. They believe that when she is angry with them, the productions of the earth are blasted by lightning, &c. and that they themselves are afflicted with sickness and death, as well as their hogs and other animals. They also admit a plurality of deities, though all inferior to *Kallafootonga*. They call *Isi*, or the living principle, *Otooa*; i. e. a divinity or invisible being. The power of the king is unlimited, and the lives and properties of the subjects are at his disposal. The lower ranks of people have no property, nor safety for their persons, but are at the will of their chiefs. When any one wants to speak with the king, he advances and sits down before him with his legs across; a posture to which they are so much accustomed, that any other mode of sitting is disagreeable to them. To speak to the king standing would be accounted a mark of rudeness. Though some of the chiefs may vie with the king in point of possessions, they fall very short in rank, and in certain marks of respect. It is a particular privilege annexed to his sovereignty, not to be punctured nor circumcised, as all his subjects are. Whenever he walks out, every one he meets must sit down till he has passed. The person who is to pay obedience squats down before the chief, and bows his head to the sole of his foot; which, when he sits, is so placed that it cannot be easily come at; and having tapped or touched it with the under and upper side of the fingers of both hands, he retires. The hands, after this application to the chief's feet, until they be washed, must not touch any kind of food. While in this state, they are called *tabou rema*, q. d. *forbidden hands*. Their great men are fond of having women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they sleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake; in which case they redouble their drumming until they are again fast asleep. These islands lie between 170° and 180° Lon. W. and between 20° and 23° Lat. S.

(1.) * FRIENDSHIP. *n. f.* [*friendship*, Dut.] 1. The state of minds united by mutual benevolence; amity.—There is little *friendship* in the world, and least of all between equals, which was wont to be magnified: that that is, is between superior and inferior, whose fortunes may comprehend the one the other. *Bacon*.—He lived rather in a fair intelligence than any *friendship* with the favourites. *Clarendon*. 2. Highest degree of intimacy.—

My sons, let your unseemly discord cease,
If not in *friendship*, live at least in peace. *Dryd.*

3. Favour; personal kindness.—

His *friendships*, still to few confide
Were always of the middling kind.
—Raw captains are usually sent only
friendship, and not chosen by sufficiency
on Ireland. 4. Assistance; help.—

Gracious, my lord, hard by here
Some *friendship* will it lend you 'gainst
pest;

Repose you there.

Shak

5. Conformity; affinity; correspondence to unite.—We know those colour a *friendship* with each other, and tho incompatible, in mixing together tho which we would make trial. *Dryd. D*

(2.) FRIENDSHIP, (§ 1. def. 1.) may a mutual attachment between two per not merely from the general principle lence, from emotions of gratitude fo ceived, from views of interest, from i fection or animal passion, but from entertained by each of them, that the dued with many amiable and estimab Among the ancients, friendship was highest veneration. Even the charac heroes were not reckoned complete The poets therefore never failed to ori greatest characters with this virtue. CHILLES is represented to have had h ÆNEAS his *Achates*, ORESTES his Nor was their history deficient in exhib instances to what a pitch of heroic n friendship was sometimes carried in re friendships of DAMON and PYTHIAS, us and ARISTOGITON, &c. are univer (See these articles.) Some modern at ticularly Voltaire, and even the late Soame Jenyns, Esq; have alleged it as among the moral precepts of Christiani no-where expressly enjoin private fri Christian Duty. But in answer to been justly observed, that friendship accident of Society, a consequence of o as moral and social beings, than a re regulated and defined by institutions “the precepts of Christianity, thou not directly enjoin it, yet have a dire to form those exalted characters, w capable of true friendship, by incul virtues, which give rise to this gene ment, and are absolutely necessary it.” Besides, the Scriptures afford ample of friendship, carried to the u of perfection of which human nature in the instance of David and Jonath JONATHAN's disinterested attachmen litical rival is unparalleled in the ann kind. Nor is there wanting in the I ven a still higher example. Mr W in a note on his *Translation of Cicero's* ly observes, that “the Divine Founder c tian religion, as well by his own exa the spirit of his moral doctrine, has i couraged but consecrated FRIENDSHIP sentiments, (he says) which Christ en Lazarus, were a peculiar species of t benevolence, with which he was actual all mankind.”—And that emphatical

“principle whom Jesus loved,” repeatedly applied to the apostle John, affords a decisive evidence of the justice of Mr Melmoth’s remark on altered amity” displayed by our Saviour to his peculiar friends; and which Mr Melmoth has finely illustrated in the note, which here only partially quoted.

CA. a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo, 12 miles SW. of Outeiro.

MESACH, a town of Brandenburg, in the Mark, 28 miles NW. of Berlin.

MESACH, a town of Carinthia, in the principality of Salzburg, with a strong fort; taken by the French, in March 1797. It is seated on a mountain, 56 miles SE. of Salzburg. Lon. 10° 47' 12" N.

MIEN, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 9 miles SE. of Windischgratz.

MIESINGEN. See **FREYSINGEN**, N° 1. **MESINGEN, FREISENGEN, FREYSINGEN, MINGEN,** a town of Bavaria, capital of the district (N° 1.) seated on a mountain, near the river Isar. It was destroyed in 1116, rebuilt, D. of Bavaria. It has an elegant cathedral and episcopal palace; and lies 17 miles from Munich, and 18 SW. of Landshut. Lon. 48° 20' N.

RIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND, one of the United provinces, now included in the Batavian republic. It was so named from the **Frisons**, and was bounded on the E. by the Ems, which separates it from Groningen; on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean. It extends from N. to S. and 23 from E. to W. It is very fertile in corn and pasture; the soil is large, and the cows and sheep prolific. It is divided into three parts; Westergo to the N. and E. and Sevenwadden to the S. The islands of Schelling, Ameland, &c. belonged to the principal towns are Leeuwarden, Franeker, Deekum, Harlingen, and Stavoren, now forms the department of the Ems. **RIESLAND, EAST,** a province of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, near the German ocean. It is bounded on the S. by the bishopric of Munster, on the E. by the county of Guelders, on the W. by the province of Groningen, and on the N. by the sea, being about 50 miles long, and 30 broad. It belongs to Prussia, formerly called the *county of Emden*. It is very fertile, and feeds a great number of cattle. It was greatly damaged by an inundation in 1717, and the repair of the dykes cost an immense sum. The principal towns are Emden, Leer, Eßens, Whitemunde, and Aurich. **EMDEN, N° 1 and 2.**

RIESLAND, NORTH. See N° 1.

RIESLAND, WEST, a name given to that part of the Batavian republic, lately called North Friesland, more particularly to that part of it which is bounded by Alkmaer, Enckhuysen, and the Texel, and included in the department of the Texel.

NITZ, a town of Germany, in the circle of Saxony, 2 miles E. of Neustadt.

FRIEZE. *n. f.* [*drap de frise*, French.] A warm cloth, made perhaps first in Friesland.

If all the world

Should in a pet of temperance feed on pulse,
Drink the clear stream, and nothing wear but
frieze,

Th’ All-giver would be unthank’d. *Milton.*

The captive Germans of gigantic size,
Are rank’d in order, and are clad in *frieze*.

Dryd. Pref.

—He could no more live without his *frieze* coat
than without his skin. *Guardian.*—

See how the double nation lies,
Like a rich coat with skirts of *frieze*;

As if a man, in making posies,
Should bundle thistles up with roses. *Swift.*

(2.) * **FRIEZE.** *n. f.* [In architecture.]

A large flat member which separates the architrave
from the cornice; of which there are as many
kinds as there are orders of columns. *Harr.*—

No jutting *frieze*,

Buttrice, nor coigne of vantage, but this bird
Hath made his pendant bed, and procreant
cradle. *Shakspeare.*

Nor did their want

Cornice or *frieze* with bossy sculptures grav’d;
The roof was tressed gold. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—Polydore designed admirably well, as to the
practical part, having a particular genius for
friezes. *Dryd. Dugiel.*

* **FRIEZED.** *adj.* [from *frieze*.] Shagged or
matted with *frieze*.

* **FRIEZELIKE.** *adj.* [*frieze* and *like*.] Resem-
bling a *frieze*.—I have seen the figure of Thalia,
the comick muse, sometimes with an entire head-
piece and a little *friezelike* tower, running round
the edges of the face, and sometimes with a mask
for the face only. *Adelphi on Italy.*

(1.) * **FRIGAT.** *n. f.* [*frigate*, French; *frigate*,
Italian.] 1. A small ship. Ships under 50 guns
are generally termed *frigates*.—The treasure they
sought for was, in their view, embezzled in cer-
tain *frigats*. *Raleigh’s Apology.*—

On high rais’d decks the haughty Belgians
ride,

Beneath whose shades our humble *frigats* go.

Dryden.

2. Any small vessel on the water.—

Behold the water work and play

About her little *frigate*, therein making way.

Spencer’s Fairy Queen.

(2.) **FRIGATES** are usually of two decks, light-
built, designed for swift sailing. When single-
decked, with but one deck, they are called light frigates.
Those mounting from 20 to 44 guns are esteemed
excellent cruisers. The name was formerly known
only in the Mediterranean, and applied to a long
kind of vessel employed in that sea with sails and
cannon. The first were the first who appeared
on the ocean with these ships, equipped for war
as well as for commerce.

FRIGATE-BUILT, *adj.* denotes the disposition
of the decks of such merchant ships as have a de-
scent of 4 or 5 steps from the quarter-deck and
fore-castle into the waist; in contradistinction to
those whose decks are on a continued line for the
whole length of the ship, which are called **GAL-
LEY-BUILT**.

FRIGATOON, a Venetian vessel, commonly
used in the Adriatic, built with a single deck

and without any fore-mast, having only a main mast, mizen-mast, and bow-sprit.

* **FRIGEFACI**ON. *n. f.* [*frigus* and *facio*, Latin.] The act of making cold.

FRIGGA. See **FREA.**

(1.) * **FRIGHT.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] A sudden terrour.—

You, if your goodness does not plead my
cause,

May think I broke all hospitable laws,

To bear you from your palace-yard by night,

And put your noble person in a *fright*. *Dryd.*

(2.) FRIGHT, or TERROR. See FEAR. Sudden fear is frequently productive of very remarkable effects upon the human system. Of this many instances occur in medical writings.—In general, the effects of terror are a contraction of the small vessels and a repulsion of the blood in the large and internal ones: Hence proceed general oppression, trembling, and irregularity in the motions of the heart; while the lungs are also overcharged with blood. Frights often occasion incurable diseases, as epilepsy, stupor, madness, &c. In this way they have killed many, by the agitation into which they have thrown the spirits. We have also accounts of persons absolutely killed by terror, when in perfect health at the time of receiving the shock. Persons ordered to be led to execution, but with private orders to be relieved on the scaffold, have expired at the block without a wound.—Out of many instances of the fatal effects of fear, the following is selected as one of the most singular:—"George Grochantzy, a Polander, who had enlisted as a soldier in the service of the king of Prussia, deserted during the last war. A small party was sent in pursuit of him, and, when he least expected it, surprised him singing and dancing among a company of peasants, in an inn. This event so sudden and so dreadful in its consequences, struck him in such a manner, that, giving a groan and cry, he became altogether stupid and insensible, and was seized without the least resistance. They carried him away to Glogau, where he was brought before the council of war, and received sentence as a deserter. He suffered himself to be led and disposed of, at the will of these about him, without uttering a word, or giving the least sign that he knew what had happened or would happen to him. He remained insensible all the time wherever he was placed, and was wholly possessed with respect to all that was done to him or about him. During all the time that he lay in custody, he neither eat, nor drank, nor slept, nor had any evacuation. Some were employed to keep him in bed; after that he was visited by physicians of all nations, and by some priests; but none could do him good in the smallest degree, without his being more violently agitated. At length, however, he recovered his senses, and was found lying on the ground, surrounded by several soldiers, who were endeavouring to force him up. It was then that he first perceived what had happened to him, and how he was situated. He was informed that he was condemned to death, and that he was to be executed immediately. He was then taken to the scaffold, and there he died without uttering a word.

whether he would. He received his life the same insensibility that he had shewn on occasions; he remained fixed and immovable, his eyes turned wildly here and there without cognizance of any object, and the features of his face were fallen and fixed like those of a corpse. Being left to himself, he passed in this condition, without eating, drinking, or evacuation, and died on the 20th day after he had been some times heard to fetch deep sighs. Once he rushed with great violence on a soldier who had a mug of liquor in his hand, and snatched the mug from him, and having drank the liquor, he with great eagerness let the mug drop to the ground. When a person is affected with terror, the principal endeavour should be to restore tranquillity to its due order, to promote peace, and to allay the agitation of the patient. For these purposes he may drink a little warm chamomile tea, &c. the feet and legs may be put into warm water, the legs rubbed, and warm chamomile tea repeated every six or eight hours, and when the skin is warm, and there is a tendency to perspiration, sleep may be promoted by a gentle opiate. Yet frights have been cured, as well as to cause diseases. Mr. E. mentions agues, gout, and sciatica, thus among the ludicrous effects of fear, the following instance, quoted from a French author, Mr. Andrews in his volume of Anecdotes, illustrates what slight occasions this passion may sometimes excite in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such notions. "Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when a most extraordinary village desired admittance to his tent; and being allowed entrance, in a way of amusing the king, to devour a pig of 100 weight in his presence. The officer of the guard, Kingmarck, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for ever. 'Sir, said the fellow, with a respectful remark, if your majesty will but order a gentleman to take off his sword and his hat, and let him stand immediately before I begin the banquet (who had, at the head of a company of Swedes, performed wonders against the enemy, and who was looked upon as one of the bravest men of the age), could not this be done especially as it was accompanied by a great and preternatural expansion of the peasant's liver.' With all this saying a veteran suddenly turned round, ran to the peasant, and thought not himself till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the peasant locked up securely, by one of the soldiers of the guard, who had executed his order." The incident is told by Mr. Andrews in his *History of the War of the Succession*, vol. 1. p. 100. The king, however, did not think it necessary to make any further inquiry into the matter, and the peasant was allowed to remain in the tent, and to eat the pig, and to drink the liquor, and to sleep, and to die, as he pleased.

ities. Yet there are evils which we ought
Those that arise from ourselves, or which
or power to prevent, it would be madness
fe, and audacity not to guard against
evils, which we cannot prevent, or could
without a breach of duty, it is manly
urable to bear with fortitude. Insensi-
dancer is not fortitude, no more than
acity of feeling pain can be called pa-
ned to expose ourselves unnecessarily to
orse than folly, and very blameable pre-
. It is commonly called *fool-hardiness*;
ach a degree of hardness or boldness as
fools are capable of. See **FORTITUDE**.
FRIGHT. *v. a.* [*frightan*, Sax.] To ter-
disturb with fear; to shock with fear; to
dismay. This was in the old authours
quently written *affright*, as it is always
the Scripture.—

The herds
strongly clam'rous in the *frighted* fields.
Shakesp. Henry IV.

Such a numerous host
in silence through the *frighted* deep,
ain upon ruin, rout on rout,
ion was confounded. *Milton.*

ubic watch, and of a sword the flame
avage, all approach far off to *fright*,
ard all passage to the tree of life. *Milt.*
exile or danger can *fright* a brave spirit,
sorence guarded,

true rewarded,
be on my self brings a merit. *Dryd. Albion.*
ed *fright* itself with any thing reflected
k, and at a distance: things thus offer-
mind, carry the shew of nothing but
Love.—

not glaring oft with many a broaden'd
b,
its the nations. *Thomson's Autumn.*

FRIGHTEN. *v. a.* To terrify; to shock
—

rugged bear's, or spotted lynx's brood,
the valleys and infect the wood. *Prior.*

FRIGHTFUL. *adj.* [from *fright*.] 1. Ter-
riful: full of terror.—

ay and wayward was thy infancy,
holidays *frightful*, desolate, wild, and
ione. *Shakesp.*

Without aid you durst not undertake
frightful passage o'er the Stygian lake.

Dryden's Æn.
word among women for any thing un-

FRIGHTFULLY. *adv.* [from *frightful*.] 1.
horribly.—This will make a prodigi-
of water, and looks *frightfully* to the
n; 'tis huge and great. *Burnet.* 2. Dis-
not beautifully. A woman's word.—
to her glass; and Betty, pray,

look *frightfully* to-day? *Swift.*

FRIGHTFULNESS. *n. s.* [from *frightful*.]
r of impressing terror.

FRIGID. *adj.* [*frigidus*, Lat.] 1. Cold;
warmth. In this sense it is seldom used
nce.—In the torrid zone the heat would
intolerable, and in the *frigid* zones the

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cold would have destroyed both animals and ve-
getables. *Cbeyne's Phil. Princ.* 2. Wanting warmth
of affection. 3. Impotent without warmth of bo-
dy. 4. Dull; without fire of fancy.—

If justice Phillip's costive head

Some *frigid* rhymes disbursts,

They shall like Persian tales be read,

And glad both babes and nurses.

Swift.

(2.) **FRIGID ZONE**. See **ZONE**.

(1.) * **FRIGIDITY**. *n. s.* [*frigiditas*, Lat.] 1.
Coldness; want of warmth. 2. Dulness; want
of intellectual fire.—Driving at these as at the
highest elegancies, which are but the *frigidities* of
wit. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Of the two extremes,
one would sooner pardon phrenzy than *frigidity*.
Pope. 3. Want of corporeal warmth.—The boil-
ing blood of youth hinders that serenity which is
necessary to serve intemperance; and the *frigidity* of
decrepit age is as much its enemy, by reason of its
dulling moisture. *Glanville's Sermons* 4. Coldness
of affection.

(2.) **FRIGIDITY**. See **IMPOTENCE**.

* **FRIGIDLY**. *adv.* [from *frigidly*.] Coldly;
dully; without affection.

* **FRIGIDNESS**. *n. s.* [from *frigid*.] Coldness;
dullness; want of affection.

FRIGIDO, a river of Italy, in the now restored
Cisalpine republic, which runs through the de-
partment of the Apennines, (i.e. dev. duchy of
Modena,) and falls into the Gulf of Genoa, near
Mala.

FRIGILIANA, a town of Spain, in Granada,
13 miles E. of Velez Malaga.

FRIGNANO, a territory of the Cisalpine re-
public, in the dept. of Panaro, and adjacent duchy
of Modena, comprehending Acquana, Trumano,
Gara, Ronca, Sestola, and some other small towns.

(1.) * **FRIGORIFICK**. *adj.* [*frigoris*, Lat.] Causing cold. A word of in-
science.—*Frigorifick* atoms or particles mean those
nitrous salts which float in the air in cold weather,
and occasion freezing. *Boyer.*

(2.) **FRIGORIFIC PARTICLES**, in physiology,
small particles of matter, which, according to Gal-
lenus and others, being actually and essentially
cold and penetrating other bodies, produce in
them that quality which we call cold. See **COLD**.

FRIKEN, a lake of Sweden in the province of
Warmeland, 40 miles long but narrow.

FRILAZIN, a class or rank of people among
the Anglo-Saxons, consisting of those who had
been slaves, but had obtained their liberty, either
by purchase or otherwise. Though these were
in reality free men, they were not considered as
of the same rank and dignity with those who had
been born free, but were still in a more depen-
dent condition, either on their former masters or
on some new patrons. This custom the Anglo-
Saxons seem to have derived from their ancestors
in Germany, among whom those who had been
made free did not differ much in point of liberty or
importance from those who continued in servitude.
This distinction, between those who have been
born free and those who enjoy freedom by de-
scend from a long race of freemen, still prevails
in many parts of Germany; and particularly in
the original seats of the Anglo-Saxons. Many of

the inhabitants of towns and cities in England, in that period, seem to have been of this class of men, who were in a kind of middle state between slaves and freemen.

* *To FRILL. v. a.* [*frilleux*, French.] To quake or shiver with cold. Used of a hawk; as the hawk *frills*. *Dict.*

FRIMAIRE, [Fr. *i. e.* the fleet or frost month, from *frimas*, hoar frost.] The 3d month in the new French calendar. It begins the 21st of Nov. and ends the 20th of Dec.

* FRINGE. *n. s.* [*friggio*, Italian; *frange*, Fr.] Ornamental appendages added to dress or furniture. It is in conversation used of loose and separate threads.—Those offices and dignities were but the facings or *fringes* of his greatness. *Wotton*.

The golden *fringe* ev'n set the ground on flame,
And drew a precious trail. *Dryden*.

—The shadows of all bodies, in this light, were bordered with three parallel *fringes*, or bands of coloured light, whereof that which was contiguous to the shadow was broadest and most luminous; and that which was remotest from it was narrowest, and so faint as not easily to be visible. *Newton's Opt.*

* *To FRINGE. v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with fringes; to decorate with ornamental appendages.—Either side of the bank, *fringed* with most beautiful trees, resisted the sun's darts. *Sidney*.—

Of silver wings he took a shining pair,
Fringed with gold. *Fairfax*.

Here, by the sacred bramble ting'd,
My petticoat is doubly *fring'd*. *Swift*.

FRINGILLA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of passerines. The bill is conical, straight, and sharp pointed. See *Plate CLVIII*. There are no less than 108 species comprehended under this genus, distinguished principally by varieties in their colour. The following are the most noted:

1. FRINGILLA AMANDAVA, the AMADUVADE BIRD, is about the size of a wren. The colour of the bill is of a dull red; all the upper parts are brown, with a mixture of red; the under the same, but paler, the middle of the belly darkest; all the feathers of the upper wing coverts, breast, and sides, have a spot of white at the tip; the quills are of a grey brown; the tail is black; and the legs are of a pale yellowish white. It inhabits Bengal, Java, Malacca, and other parts of Asia; and feeds on millet.

2. FRINGILLA CÆLEBS, the CHAFFINCH, has black limbs, and the wings white on both sides; the 3 first feathers of the tail are without spots, but the 2 chief ones are obliquely spotted. It has its name from its delighting in chaff. This species entertains us agreeably with its song very early in the year, but towards the end of summer assumes a chirping note: both sexes continue with us the whole year. In Sweden, the females quit that country in September, migrate in flocks into Holland, leaving their mates behind; and return in spring. In Hampshire Mr White has observed something of this kind; vast flocks of females with scarcely any males among them. Their nest is almost as elegantly constructed as that of the goldfinch, (N. 5.) and of much the same materials, the inside has the addition of some large sea-

thers. They lay 4 or 5 eggs of a dull whitened and spotted with deep purple. caught in plenty in flight time; but the rarely found, though they build in the trees of all sorts. They make their nest of wool, or any thing they can gather have young ones thrice a year. They bred from the nest, being not apt to learn bird's song, nor to whistle; so that it leave the old ones to bring them up. finches are generally allowed to be the fur length and variety of song, ending in very pretty notes. They are hardy, and almost upon any seeds. They are seldom to disease, but become very lousy, if not with wine two or three times a month.

3. FRINGILLA CANARIA, the CANARY, hath a whitish body and bill, with the others of the wings and tail greenish. See § 3—6. It was originally peculiar to the island to which it owes its name. See CANARIA. Though the ancients celebrate the island for its multitude of birds, they have mentioned any in particular. It is probable that our species was not introduced in till after the second discovery of the island 1402. Belon, who wrote in 1555, is the first to mention these birds: Gesner is the first to name them; and Aldrovand speaks of their varieties, observing that they were very difficult to count of the difficulty attending the bringing from so distant a country, and that they were chased by people of rank alone. They were found on the same spot to which we were indebted for the production of these characters; but they are now become so numerous in our own country, that we are under no necessity of crossing the ocean for them. The Canary will prove fertile with the liskin (N. 12. finch (N. 5.)); but in this case the parent, the most part, proves sterile: the pair best when the hen is the Canary, and not the opposite species. She will also prove fertile with the linnet, yellow hammer, chaffinch, even the house sparrow; but the male Canary will not assilate with the female of any other species; the hen must be always of the same species, and the young generally prove Canaries are said by some to live 15 years, others, 18.

4. FRINGILLA CANNABINA, the GREY POLE, is rather less than the common Canary. It has a blood-coloured spot on the forehead. The breast of the male is tinged with red colour. It is a common fraud in the city of London, when a male bird is distinguished from the female by a red breast, as in this case the feathers are painted, so that the deceit is easily discovered. These birds are frequent on the coasts; and are often taken in flight near London. They are familiar, and cheer up the minutes after they are caught.

5. FRINGILLA CARDUELIS, the GOLDFINCH, with the quill feathers red forwards, and the rest without any spots; the two outer feathers white in the middle, as the rest are all black. The young bird before it moults is greenish; and hence it is termed by the birds

Fig 1.
Male Crested
Fringilla.



FRINGILLA.

Fig 4.

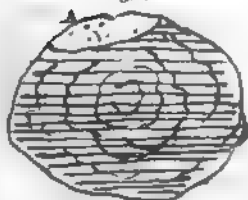


Fig 5.

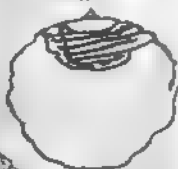


Fig 6.



Fig 2.
Fringilla habitatoria.



Fig 7.



FULICA.

Fig 3. Frog Fish.

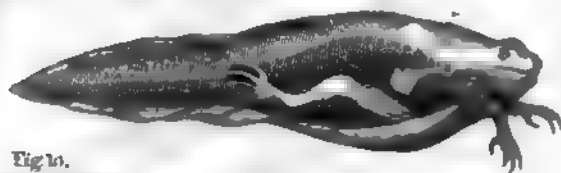


Fig 10.
Martineco Gallinule.



Fig 9.
Fulgora Candelaria.



PLATE CLXXXI N° 2

Fig 11
White Fulica.



There is a variety of this species, the London bird-catchers a *cheverel*, manner in which it concludes its jerk. distinguished from the common sort by a streak, or by two, sometimes three, white streaks on the throat. Their note is very sweet, and much esteemed on that account, as well as their great docility. Towards winter, they are in flocks; and feed on various seeds, especially those of the thistle. They are fond of building and often build in apple or pear trees. Their nests are very elegantly formed of fine moss, lined with hair and bents, on the outside; lined first with hair and then with the gossin or the fallow. The hen lays 5 white eggs, with deep purple spots on the upper end; and breeds in the year. When kept in cages they are commonly fed much on hemp-seed which they eat freely, but which is said to make them grow black, and lose both their red and yellow. Goldfinches often attain the age of 10 years. They abound throughout Europe; and are met with in Asia and Africa, but less com-

FRINGILLA DOMESTICA, the SPARROW, has the feathers of the wings and tail brown, variegated with grey and black, and a black streak on the wings. These birds are very voracious, and have 3 broods in the year. They are every where common about our houses; here they build in every place they can find; under the roof, corner of the chimney, or in holes of the wall. They make their nest; generally a little hay ill put together, lined well with feathers; where they lay 4 or 5 of a reddish white colour spotted with brown. They sometimes build in trees, in which they take more pains with the nest; and often take the martins from theirs, to save the trouble of constructing one of their own. Sparrows frequenting only habitations and parts of houses may be said to be chiefly fed from humanity; for in spite of every precaution, they partake with the pigeons, poultry, &c. of what is thrown out to them, grain of all kinds, &c. &c. agreeable to their taste, though they refuse from the kitchen of most kinds. They are familiar but crafty, and do not so easily fall into a snare as many others. In autumn they collect into flocks, and roost in numerous neighbouring trees, when they may be taken in dozens, or caught in great numbers at a bat fowling-net. The flesh is accounted good by many. The sparrow has no song, but chirps or two frequently repeated. This species is found every where throughout Europe; and is met with in Egypt, Senegal, Syria, and the south of Africa and Asia.

FRINGILLA LINARIA, the LESSER RED-POLE, is half the size of the greater red-pole; (see N 12.) it has a rich spot of purplish red on the breast; the breast is of the same colour, but less. The female is less lively in colour; and has a red spot on the breast; and the spot on the tail is of a saffron hue. This species is common in England; and lays 4 or 5 eggs of a bluish green, thickly sprinkled near the blunt end with reddish spots. Mr Pennant mentions an in-

stance of this bird being so tenacious of her nest, as to suffer herself to be taken off by the hand, and when released she would not forsake it. This species is known about London by the name of the *stone red pole*. Whole flocks of them, mixed with the liskin, (see N 12.) frequent places where alders grow, for the sake of picking the catkins: they generally hang like the titmouse, with the back downwards; and in this state are so intent on their work, that they may be entangled by dozens, by means of a twig smeared with birdlime fastened to the end of a long pole. This species seems to be plentiful throughout Europe, from the extreme parts of Russia to Italy. It is very common in Greenland, and was also met with by our late voyagers at Oonalashka. In America it is likewise well known. Hence it seems to be a bird common to all the northern parts of the globe.

FRINGILLA LINOTA, the LINNET, has the bottom of the breast of a fine blood-red, which heightens as the spring advances. These birds are much esteemed for their song. They feed on seeds of different kinds, which they peel before they eat; the seed of the LINUM or flax is their favourite food; from whence the name. They breed among furze and white thorn: the outside of their nests is made with moss and bents, and lined with wool and hair. They lay 5 whitish eggs, spotted like those of the goldfinch.

FRINGILLA MONTIFRINGILLA, the BRANBLING, has a yellow bill tipped with black; the head, hind part of the neck, and back, are black; the throat, fore part of the neck, and breast, pale rufous orange; lower part of the breast and belly white; the quill feathers brown, with yellowish edges; the tail a little forked; the legs grey. This species migrates into England at certain seasons, but does not build. It is frequently found among chaffinches, and sometimes comes in vast flocks. They are also seen at certain times in vast clouds in France, insomuch that the ground has been quite covered with their dung, and more than 600 dozen were killed each night. They eat various seeds, but are particularly fond of beech mast. Their flesh is eaten by many, but is apt to prove bitter. They are said to breed about Luxembourg, making their nests on the tall fir trees, composed of long moss without, and lined with wool and feathers within: the hen lays 4 or 5 eggs, yellowish, and spotted; and the young are fledged at the end of May. This species is found more or less throughout Europe; and is common in the pine forests of Russia and Siberia, but those of the last are darker in colour and less in size.

FRINGILLA MONTELLI, the TWITE, is about the size of a linnet. It has the feathers of the upper part of the body dusky; those on the head edged with ash-colour, the others with brownish red: the rump is pale crimson; the wings and tail are dusky, the tips of the greater coverts and secondaries whitish; the legs pale brown. The female wants the red mark on the rump. Twites are taken in the flight season near London, along with linnets. The name seems to have been taken from their twittering note. The bird-catchers tell at some distance whether there be any twites among linnets, merely from this. The twite is

supposed to breed in the more northern parts of Britain.

11. FRINGILLA SENEGALA, the SENEGAL FINCH, is a very little bigger than the wren. The bill is reddish, edged all round with brown; on the ridge of the upper, and beneath the under mandible, is a line of brown quite to the tip: the upper parts of the body are of a vinaceous red colour; the lower parts, with the thighs and under tail coverts, of a greenish brown; the hind part of the head and neck, the back, scapulars, and wing coverts, are brown; the tail is black; and the legs are pale grey. It inhabits Bengal, and feeds on millet. The natives catch them by supporting a large hollowed gourd, bottom uppermost, on a stick, with a string leading to some covered place, and strewing under it some millet; the little birds, hastening in numbers to pick it up, are caught beneath the trap, by pulling away the stick. The females sing nearly as well as the males. They are familiar, and when once used to the climate, frequently live 5 or 6 years in a cage. They have been bred in Holland.

12. FRINGILLA SPINUS, the SISKIN, has the prime feathers of the wings yellow in the middle, and the four first chief tail feathers without spots; but they are yellow at the base, and black at the points. Mr Willoughby says, that this is a song bird; and that in Suffex it is called the *barley bird*, because it comes to them in barley seed time. It visits these islands at very uncertain times, like the gross-beak, &c. It is to be met with in the bird shops in London; and being rather scarce, sells at a higher price than the merit of its song deserves; it is known there by the name of the *aberduvine*. It is very tame and docile; and is often kept and paired with the canary bird, with which it breeds freely. Dr Kramer informs us, that this bird conceals its nest with great art; and though there are infinite numbers of young birds in the woods on the banks of the Danube, which seem just to have taken flight, yet no one could discover it.

FRINTON, a town in Essex, near Gunfleet.

FRINWALT, a town of Brandenburg, on the Oder, 20 miles N.E. of Berlin.

(1.) FRIO, a river of Spain, in Granada.
(2.) FRIO, CAPE, a promontory of Brasil, in the prov. of Rio de Janeiro. Lon. 41. 31. W. Lat. 22. 54. S.

(1.) * FRIPPERER. *n. s.* [from *frippier*, Fr.] One who deals in old things vamped up.

(2.) FRIPPERERS, or FRIPPIERS, were a regular corporation at Paris, of an ancient standing, and made a considerable figure in that city before the revolution.

* FRIPPERY. *n. s.* [*fripperie*, Fr. *fripperia*, Italian.] 1. The place where old cloaths are sold.—We know what belongs to a *frippery*. *Shak.*—Lairana is a *frippery* of bankrupts, who fly thither from Druma to play their after-game. *Hawel's Vocal Forest.* 2. Old cloaths; cast dresses; tattered rags.—

Poor poet ape, that would be thought our chief,

Whose works are ev'n the *frippery* of wit;

From brocade is become so bold a thief,

As we, the robb'd, leave rage, and pity it.

Ben Jonson.

The fighting place now scannets rage
And all the tackling is a *frippery*.

—Ragfair is a place near the Tower of London where old cloaths and *frippery* are sold. *F*

FRISCHACH, a bay of the Baltic, at the mouth of the Vistula.

FRISHBACHALLEN, a mountain of 3 miles E. of Pruck.

(1.) FRISCH-HAFF, a gulf between EU Konigsberg, separated from the Baltic, by 1 NARUNO, 18 leagues long, and 2 broad, communicating with the Baltic by a narrow passage.

(2.) FRISCH-HAFF, a gulf on the coast of Pomerania, 15 miles long, from E. and 8 broad from N. to S. The Oder flows through it, at the E. end.

FRISCHLIN, Nicodemus, a learned C born at Baling in Suabia, in 1547. At the age of 20, he was made a professor in the Univ. of Tubingen. In 1580, he published an original praise of a country life, with a paraphrase of Virgil's Eclogues and Georgics, in which he made such severe remarks on some courtiers that he threatened his life. This led him to retire to his estate in Carniola, and afterwards to discontinue his studies in Germany: but at last his enemies got him up in Wirtemberg castle, from whence aiming to escape he fell down from a great height among the rocks, and was killed on the spot. He wrote also a Latin grammar, of geometry, and many poems, comedies and tragedies.

FRISCH-NEURUNG, a narrow strait of 1 Prussia, between the Baltic and Frisch-Haff, 18 leagues long, and hardly 2 broad.

FRISEI, } or FRISONES, an ancient
FRISII, } of Germany, so called either
FRISIONES, } their ardent love of freedom from the fresh and unbroken lands they occupied. Tacitus divides them, from their extent of territory into

1. FRISIONES MAJORES, situated on the Rhine and the Ems; and

2. FRISIONES MINORES, occupying the lakes lying between the channel of the Rhine.

* FRISK. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A frolic of wanton gaiety.

* To FRISK. *v. n.* [*frizarre*, Ital.] 1. To skip.—Put water into a glass, and with your finger, and draw it round about the lip of the glass, pressing it somewhat hard; and after doing it some few times about, it will make a fine dew: I have seen the fish fall a *frisking* in the net. *L'Estrange.* Whether every one hath experimented the pleasant intrusion of some *frisking* ideas, thus importune the understanding, and hinder from being better employed, I know not.
2. To dance in frolick or gaiety.—

We are astwin'd lambs, that did *frisk* in
And bleat the one at the other: what we knew
Was innocence for innocence; we knew not
The doctrine of ill doing. *Shak. Winter's Tale.*

About them *frisking* play'd
All beasts of th' earth. *Milt. Paradise Lost.*

—A wanton better *frisked* up and down in
dow at ease and pleasure. *L'Estrange.*

h the quick motions of the *frisking* tail,
rve their fury with the rushing male.

Dryden's Virgil.

ccbus thro' the conquer'd Indies rode,
its in gambols *frisk'd* before their ho-
t god.

Dryden.

o the mountains airy tops advanc'd,
sing satyrs on the summits danc'd.

Addison.

Those merry blades,
it under Pindus' shades.

Prior.

its at the sound of an organ, and yet
and *frisk* at the sound of a bagpipe.

Bull.—

enters thus, in Borneo's isle,
h a monkey by a wile,
nick animal amuse;
ace before him gloves and shoes;
when the brute puts aukward on,
gility is gone:

to *frisk* or climb he tries:

ation seize the grinning prize. *Swift.*
KER. *n. f.* [from *frisk*.] A wanton; one
ot or settled.—

I will wear this, and now I will wear that;
will wear I cannot tell what:

fashions be pleasant to me:
an a *frisker*, all men on me look;
ould I do but let cock on the hoop?

Camden.

IKINESS. *n. f.* [from *frisk*.] Gaiety;
A low word.

IKY *adj.* [*frisque*, Fr. from *frisk*.] Gay;
low word.

INES. See FRISH.

IT, a town of Germany, in the bishop-
ater, 14 miles SW. of Oldenburg, and
Minster. Lon. 24. 4. E. of Ferro.
N.

RIT. *n. f.* [among chymists.] Ashes or
or tried together with sand. *Ditt.*

r, or FRIT, in the glass manufacture, is
r or ingredients whereof glass is to be
en they have been calcined or baked in a
A salt drawn from the ashes of the plant
tern or other plants mixed with sand or
baked together, makes an opaque mass,
glassmen *frit*; probably from the Italian
o fry; or because the *frit* when melted,
umps, like fritters, called by the Italians
rit, by the ancients, was called *ammoni-*
um, sand, and *nitre*; under which
thus described by Pliny: Fine sand
Vulturnian sea, mixed with three times
ity of nitre, and melted, makes a mass
monitrum, which being rebaked makes

. Frit, Neri observes, is only the calx
terials which make glass; which though
be melted, and glass be made, with-
calcining them, yet it would take much
. This calcining, or making of frit, serves
nd incorporate the materials together,
aporate all the superfluous humidity.
once made, is readily fused and turned
. There are 3 kinds of frits: 1. The
t, or that for crystal metal, made with
verine and sand: 2. The ordinary frit,
bare ashes of pulverine or barilla, with-

out extracting the salt from them. This makes
the ordinary white or crystal metal. 3. The frit
for green glasses, made of common ashes, without
any preparation. This last requires 10 or 12
hours baking. The materials in each are to be
finely powdered, washed, and feared; then e-
qually mixed, and frequently stirred together in
the melting pot. See CRYSTAL, and GLASS.

(1.) * FRITH. *n. f.* [*fretum*, Lat.] 1. A strait
of the sea where the water being confined is
rough.—

What desp'rate madman then would venture
o'er

The *frith*, or haul his cables from the shore?

Dryden's Virgil.

Batavian fleets

Defraud us of the glittering finny swarms

That heave our *friths*, and crowd upon our
shores.

Thomson.

2. A kind of net. I know not whether this sense
be now retained.—The Wear is a *frith*, reaching
through the Ose, from the land to low water
mark, and having in it a bunt or cod with an eye
hook; where the fish entering, upon their coming
back with the ebb, are stopt from issuing out a-
gain. *Carew.*

(2.) FRITH, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) usually signifies the
opening of a river into the sea; such are the Frith
of Forth, or of Edinburgh, the Frith of Clyde,
Moray Frith, &c.

(3, 4.) FRITH, in geography, 2 English villages:
1. in Kent. 2. in Middlesex, near Hendon.

FRITILLARIA, FRITILLARY; a genus of the
monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class
of plants; and in the natural method ranking un-
der the 10th order, *Crocovite*. The corolla is
hexapetalous and campanulate, with a nectarife-
rous cavity above the heel in each petal; the sta-
mina are as long as the corolla. There are 5 spe-
cies, all bulbous-rooted flowery perennials, pro-
ducing annual stalks from about one foot to a yard
or more high, terminated by large, bell-shaped,
lilaceous flowers, of a great variety of colours.
They are all propagated by offsets, which they
furnish abundantly from the sides of their roots,
and which may be separated every second or third
year. They are hardy plants, and will thrive in
ny of the common borders.

* FRITILLARY. *n. f.* [*fritillaire*, French.] A
plant. *Miller*

FRITILLUS, a dice-box. See DICE-BOX, § 2.

* FRITINANCY. *n. f.* [from *fritinnio*, Lat.]
The scream of an insect, as the cricket or cicada—
The note or *fritinancy* thereof is far more shrill
than that of the locust, and its life short. *Brown's*
Vulgar Err.

FRITTENDEN, a village in Kent.

* FRITTER. *n. f.* [*friture*, Fr.] 1. A small
piece cut to be fried.—

Maids, *fritters* and pancakes now see ye make,
Let Slut have one pancake for company sake.

Tusser.

2. A fragment a small piece.—Sense and putter!
have I lived to stand in the taunt of one that
makes *fritters* of English! *Shak. Merry Wives of*
 Windsor—If you strike a solid body that is brittle
as glass or sugar, it breaketh not only where the im-
mediate force is, but breaketh all about into shivers
and

and *fritters*; the motion, upon the pressure, searching all ways, and breaking where it findeth the body weakest. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The ancient errant knights

Won all their ladies' hearts in fights;

And cut whole giants into *fritters*,

To put them into amorous twitters. *Hudib.*

3. A cheesecake; a wig. *Ainsworth.*

* *To FRITTER.* *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cut meat into small pieces to be fried. 2. To break into small particles or fragments.—

Joy to great chaos! let division reign!

My racks and tortures soon shall drive them hence,

Break all their nerves and *fritter* all their sense.

Dunciad.

How prologues into prefaces decay,

And these to notes are *fritter'd* quite away.

Dunciad.

FRITZLAR, a town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, on the Eder, 13 miles SSW. of Cassel. Lon. 26. 41. E. of Ferro. Lat. 50. 0. N.

FRIULANI, the people of **FRIULI**.

(1.) **FRIULI**, a province of Maritime Austria, in the ci-devant republic of Venice, bounded on the N. by Tirol and Carinthia; E. by Carniola and Gradisca; S. by the Adriatic, and W. by the Trevisan, Feltrin, and Bellunese. According to Dr Oppenheim, it is 55 miles long, 65 broad, and 263 in circumference; containing 4 cities, 20 towns and boroughs, and 600 villages. The country is partly level, partly mountainous. The former is very fertile, producing all kinds of corn, wine, fruits, &c. but the mountains produce only timber and game; and the roads through them are truly terrific, being in many places hardly passable, either on foot or on horseback. The chief rivers are the Tagliamento, Meduna, Cellina and Stella. Cattle are numerous, and the culture of silk is so extensive, that 1000 cwt. are annually produced. The population in 1581, was only 196,510: in 1735 it had arisen to 342,158; and in 1795 to 365,512. The inhabitants called *Furlani* or *Friulani*, are reckoned, says Dr Oppenheim, the *wildest* in Italy, tho' we should suppose they cannot exceed the Calabrians in barbarity. They speak a dialect resembling the ancient French, widely differing from both the modern Italian and German. This country was called by the Romans **FORUM JULII**. It was taken from the Lombards by Charlemagne, but belonged to the Venetians from 1420 to 1797. It is divided into the dioceses of Udina and Concordia. Udina is the capital.

(2.) **FRIULLI**, **CIVIDAD**, or **CIVIDAL DI**. See **CIVIDAD**, N° 5. This town, anciently called **FORUM JULII**, is reckoned the 2d capital of the above province, (N° 1.) and contained 400 inhabitants, in 1795.

* **FRIVOLOUS.** *adj.* [*frivulus*, Lat. *frivole*, Fr.] Slight; trifling; of no moment.—It is *frivolous* to say we ought not to use bad ceremonies of the church of Rome, and presume all such bad as it pleaseth themselves to dislike. *Hooker.*—These seem very *frivolous* and fruitless; for by the breach of them, little damage can come to the commonwealth. *Spenser.*—

She tam'd the brinded lioness,

And spotted mountain pard; but set at nought

The *frivolous* bolt of Cupid. *Milton.*

Those things which now seem /
flight,

Will be of serious consequence to

. When they have made you once ri

—All the impeachments in Greece agreed in a notion of being concerned. honour, to condemn whatever perjured, however *frivolous* the article, ver weak the proofs. *Swift.*—I will any mistake, and do not think myself answer every *frivolous* objection. *Art*

* **FRIVOLOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *frivolously*; without weight.

* **FRIVOLOUSNESS.** *n. s.* [from *frivolously*; Want of importance; triflingness.

(1.) **FRIZE**, in architecture. See 1. and **FRIEZE**, § 2.

(2.) **FRIZE**, in commerce. See **F** Of frizes, some are crossed, others number are chiefly of English manufacture of Irish.

FRIZER, *n. s.* See next article.

FRIZING OF CLOTH, a term in manufactory, applied to the forming of stuff into a number of little hard bunnences, covering almost the whole of. Some cloths are only frized on the back as black cloths; others on the right side as blue and mixed cloths, ratteens, &c. Frizing may be performed two ways: the first, with the hand, by two workmen, with a kind of plank that serves for a frizing table. The other, by a mill, worked either by a horse; and sometimes by men. The former is deemed the better way; as, the motion is more uniform and regular, the little knobs more equably and regularly. The disposition of this useful machine is as follows: The parts are the **FRIZER**, or *crisper*, the *roller*, and the *drawer*, or *beam*. The two equal planks or boards, each about 10 or 15 inches broad; differing only in this, that the frizing table is lined or covered with a kind of woollen stuff, of a rough sturdy nap; and the *roller* is incrustated with a kind of cement, glue, gum arabic, and a yellow sand. The *aquavitæ*, or urine. The *beam* is thus called, because it draws the stuff between the frizer and the frizing table. The *roller*, beset all over with little points or ends of wire, like those of a carding of wool. The disposition of the machine are thus: The table stands on four legs, and bears or sustains the cloth to be frized. The cloth is laid with that side uppermost on which it is to be raised; over the table is placed a roller at such a distance from it as to give room for the stuff to be passed between them: so that the *roller*, having a very slow semicircular motion, drawing the long hairs or naps of the cloth into little knobs or burrs; at the same time, the *drawer*, which is continually drawing away the stuff from under the roller, winds it over its own points. All that has to do while the machine is a-going, is to draw the stuff on the table, as fast as the *roller* draws it off, and from time to time to take

points of the drawer. The design of having a table lined with stuff of a short nap, is that it may detain the cloth on the table and the frizer long enough for to be formed, that the drawer may not run too readily, which must otherwise be, as it is not held by any thing at the back.

It is unnecessary to say any thing particular of the manner of frizing stuffs with the aim of the workmen to imitate the curl they can with their wooden instrument, square, and circular motion of the mallet. We need only add, that their frizer is but three feet long, and one broad; and that to curl more easily, they moisten the stuff, with water mingled with whites of egg.

FRIZLE. *v. a.* [*friser*, Fr.] To curl in like nap of frieze.—

Th' humble shrub
Lies, with *frizled* hair implicit. *Milton.*
frizled and curled their hair with hot iron-
will.—

'd my shoe, and swear
I spy'd this yellow *frizled* hair. *Gay.*

FRISLER. *n. s.* [from *frizzle*.] One that curls.

adv. [of *from*, Saxon.] 1. Backward; re-

It is only used in opposition to the word *from*, backward and forward, *to* and *from*. The Carthaginians having spoiled all Spain, root that were affected to the Romans; and the having recovered that country, did cut it favoured the Carthaginians: so betwixt *to* and *from*, there was scarce a native left. *Spenser.*—

When a heap of gather'd thorns is cast,
Now *from*, before th' autumnal blast,
Or clung, it rolls around the field. *Pope.*
contraction of *from*; not now used.—

Turn round like grindstones,
They dig out *from* the delves,
Their bairns bread, wives and selves. *Yonf.*

FRONIUS, John, a famous and learned printer, 16th century, born at Hamelburg in France, studied in the university of Basil, where he had great reputation for learning, and set up a printing-house in that city, was the first German printer who brought that admirable degree of perfection. Being a man of nobility and piety, he would never, for profit, suffer libels or any thing that might hurt the reputation of another, to go thro'

The great character of this printer, was his principal motive which induced Erasmus to re-
print, in order to have his own works printed
A great number of valuable books were
printed by him with care and accuracy. He died
Erasmus wrote his epitaph in Greek and
John Frobenius left a son named Jerome
and a daughter married to Nicholas E.
who, joining in partnership, continued
his printing-house with reputation, and
correct editions of the Greek Fathers.

FORBISHER, or **FORBISHER**, Sir Martin,
an navigator and sea officer in the 16th
born at Doncaster in Yorkshire, and from
brought up to navigation. He was the

first Englishman who attempted to find a NW.
passage to China, and in 1576, he sailed with two
barks and a pinnace for that purpose. In this
voyage he discovered a cape, to which he gave
the name of *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland*, and the
next day discovered a strait to which he gave his
own name. (See § 2.) This voyage proving un-
successful, he attempted the same passage in 1577;
but discovering some ore in an island, and his
commission directing him only to search for ore,
he returned to England with it. He sailed again
with 15 ships and a great number of adventurers,
to form a settlement; but being obstructed by the
ice, and driven out to sea by a violent storm, they,
after encountering many difficulties, returned
home, without making any settlement; but with
a large quantity of ore.—He afterwards command-
ed the *Aid* in Sir Francis Drake's expedition to the
West Indies, in which St Domingo, Carthagena,
and Santa Justina, in Florida, were taken and
sacked. In 1588, he bravely exerted himself
against the Spanish armada, when he commanded
the *Triumph*, one of the largest ships in that ser-
vice: and as a reward for his distinguished brave-
ry, received the honour of knighthood, from the
lord high-admiral at sea. He afterwards com-
manded a squadron which cruised on the Spanish
coast; and in 1592, took two valuable ships and a
rich carrack. In 1594 he was sent to the assistance
of Henry IV. king of France, against a body of the
Leaguers and Spaniards, who had strongly en-
trenched themselves at Croyzon near Breff; but
in an assault upon that fort, on the 7th Novem-
ber, he was unfortunately wounded with a ball, of
which he died soon after he had brought back the
fleet to Plymouth, and was buried in that town.

(2.) **FORBISHER'S STRAITS**, a narrow sea, S.
of Cape WASHINGTON; W. of Davis's Strait, and
N. of Cape Farewell in West Greenland. Lon.
from 65. to 70. W. Lat. between 61. 50. and 63.
20. N.

* **FROCK.** *n. s.* [*froc*, French.] 1. A dress; a
coat.—

That monster, custom is angel, yet in this,
That to the use of actions, fair and good,
He likewise gives a *frock* or livery,

That aptly is put on. *Shak. Hamlet.*

Chalybeat temper'd steel, and *frock* of mail
Adamantean proof. *Milton's Agon.*

2. A kind of close coat for men.—

I strip my body of my shepherd's *frock*.

Dryden.

3. A kind of gown for children.

FRODINGHAM, or } a town of Yorkshire, 36
FRODLINGHAM, } miles E. of York, and
194 N. of London. Lon. 0. 12. W. Lat. 53. 56.
N.

FRODSHAM, a town of Cheshire, noted for
its ancient castle. It has a stone bridge over the
Weaver, near its conflux with the Mersey, and a
harbour for ships of good burden. By the late in-
land navigation, it has communication with the ri-
vers Dee, Ribble, Darwent, Ouse, Trent, Severn,
Humber, Thames, Avon, &c. which navigation, in-
cluding its windings, extends above 500 miles, in the
counties of Lincoln, Nottingham, York, Lancas-
ter, Westmoreland, Stafford, Warwick, Leicester,
Oxford, Worcester, &c. Frodsham is 10 miles
NW.

NE. of Chester, and 182 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 58. W. Lat. 53. 20. N.

(1.) * **FROG**. *n. f.* [*fragga*, Sax.] 1. A small animal with four feet, living both by land and water, and placed by naturalists among mixed animals, as partaking of beast and fish; famous in Homer's Poem. There is likewise a small green frog that perches on trees, said to be venomous. —Poor Tom, that eats the swimming *frog*, the toad, the tadpole. *Shak. King Lear*. —Auster is drawn with a pot or urn, pouring forth water, with which shall descend *frogs*. *Peacham on Drawing*. 2. The hollow part of the horse's hoof.

(2.) **FROG**, in zoology, § 1, *def.* 1. See **RAMA**.

(3.) **FROG**, in geography, a town of the United States in Georgia; 6 miles W. of Tuglecoo.

(1.) * **FROGBIT**. *n. f.* [*frog* and *bit*.] An herb. *Ainsworth*.

(2.) **FROGBIT**. See **HYDROCHARIS**.

FROGES, a town of France, in the dept. of I-sere, 15 miles WNW. of Grenoble.

(1.) * **FROGFISH**. *n. f.* [*frog* and *fish*.] A kind of fish. *Ainsworth*.

(2.) *The FROGFISH* is a very singular animal of Surinam, of which a figure is given by Mr Edwards, in his *History of Birds*, Vol. I. There is no specimen in the British museum, nor in any private collection, except that of Dr Fothergill. It was brought from Surinam in South America. Frogs, both in Asia and Africa, according to Merian, change gradually from fishes to frogs, as those in Europe; but after many years revert again into fishes, though the manner of their change has never been investigated. In Surinam these fishes are called **JAKJES**. They are cartilaginous, of a substance like our mustela, and exquisite food; they are formed with regular vertebræ, and small bones all over the body divided into equal parts; are first darkish, and then grey: their scales make a beautiful appearance. Whether this animal is, in its perfect state, a species of frog with a tail, or a kind of water lizard, Mr Edwards does not pretend to determine; but observes, that when its size is considered, if it should be deemed a tadpole at first produced from spawn, and in its progress towards a frog, such an animal, when full grown, if it bears the same proportion to its tadpole as those in Europe do, must be of enormous size; for our full-grown frogs exceed the tadpoles at least 50 times. See a reduced figure on *Plate CLVIII*.

* **FROGRASS**. *n. f.* [*frog* and *grass*.] A kind of herb.

FROG-LAKE, a lake of N. America. Lon. 91. 50. W. of Greenwich. Lat. 53. 15. N.

* **FROGLETTUCE**. *n. f.* [*frog* and *lettuce*.] A plant.

FROHBURG, a town of Saxony, on the Wihra, 5 miles SSE. of Perma.

FROHENS *le Grand*, a town of France, in the dept. of Somme, 6 miles NW. of Doullens.

FROHNSDORF, a town of Germany in Upper Saxony, 7 miles SE. of Weissenfee.

FROHNSBURG, a town of Germany, in Austria, 1 mile S. of Hardegg.

FROJAN, a town of Spain in Galicia, 22 miles NNE. of Orense.

FROJED, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 7 miles SE. of Finspång.

FROILA I, K. of Spain, succeeded Alphonso I. in 757, made several good opposed the Moors. In 760, he defeated the Moors under Omar; but sullied his glory by his brother Vemazan; and was himself by his other brother Aurelius.

FROILA II, succeeded his brother 923, but proved a barbarous tyrant, the Castilians revolt. He died of the plague.

* **FROISE**. *n. f.* [from the French] the pancake is crisped or crimped in a kind of food made by frying bacon in a pancake.

FROISSARD, or } John, an eminent
FROISSART, } and poet, born

in 1337. He was canon and treasurer in Hainault. His chief work is a history of the transactions in France, Spain and Italy from 1326 to 1400, which is reckoned very valuable. The best edition is that of Lyons in 1559. Sleidan abridged it, and Morel continued it down to 1466. Froissart resided at the court of Q. Philippa, wife of Edward III. He has been accused of partiality to the English, but the late Lord Gardenston, in his *English Historians*, prefers him to his contemporaries. He died about 1410.

FROISSY, a town of France, in the dept. of Oise, 5 miles SSW. of Breteuil.

(1.) * **FROLICK**. *adj.* [*vrolijck*, Dutch] full of levity; full of pranks.—

We fairies, that do run
By the triple Hecate's team,
From the presence of the sun,
Following darkness like a dream,
Now are *frolick*. *Shak. Midf. Ni.*

Whether, as some sages sing,
The *frolick* wind that breathes the
Zephyr with Aurora playing,
As he met her once a Maying;
There on beds of violets blue,
And fresh-blown roses wash'd in dew,
Fill'd her with thee a daughter fair
So buxom, blithe, and debonnaire.

Who ripe, and *frolick* of his full
Roving the Celtick and Iberian field
At last betakes him to this ominous

The gay, the *frolick*, and the lewd.

(2.) * **FROLICK**. *n. f.* [from the verb] a wild prank; a flight of whim and levity.

He would be at his *frolick* once
And his pretensions to divinity.

—Alcibiades, having been formerly
like *frolicks* and excursions, was im-
puted of this. *Swift*.—

While rain depends, the penfive
Her *frolicks*, and pursues her tail

* *To FROLICK*, *v. n.* [from the verb] to play wild pranks; to play tricks of levity.—Manly spirit and genius play with words, nor *frolicks* the capricious
imagination. *Glazebrook*.—

Then to her new love let her go
And deck her in golden array;

Be silent at every fine show,
And *frolick* it all the long day.

OLICKLY. *adv.* [from *frolick*.] Gaily;

OLICKSOME. *adj.* [from *frolick*.] Full gaiety.

OLICKSOMELY. *adv.* [from *frolick/some*.] Wild gaiety.

OLICKSOMENESS. *n. s.* [from *frolick*.] Wildness of gaiety; pranks.

LOIS, a town of France, in the department d'Or, 21 miles NW. of Dijon.

FROM. *prep.* [*fram*, Saxon and Scottish.]

5; noting privation.—
ur fighting Zulima, this very hour,
aketenthousand subjects *from* your power.

Dryden.
fettens one the barking porter ty'd,
ook him trembling *from* his sov'reign's side.

Dryden.
rissa drew, with tempting grace,
edg'd weapon *from* the shining case. *Pope.*
ng reception.—

at time would spare *from* steel receives its
ate. *Pope.*

ng procession, descent, or birth.—

is the hard and stubborn race of man
animated rock and flint began. *Blackmore.*

ong began *from* Jove. *Dryden.*
ceeding kings rise *from* the happy bed.

Irene.
ng transmission.—
messengers *from* our sister and the king.

Shak.
ng abstraction or vacation.—

I shall find time
his enormous state, and seek to give
their remedies. *Shak. King Lear.*

is following; noting succession.—These
we must examine *from* first to last, to find
was the form of the earth. *Burnet's The-*
bid her *from* time to time be comforted.
Spectator. 7. Out of; noting emission.

When the most high
Father, *from* his secret cloud
in thunder utter'd thus his voice *Milt.*
pierc'd with pain the shook her haugh-
head,

from her inward soul, and thus she said.
Dryden's Æneid.

progress from premisses to inferences.
jection be not removed, the conclusion
nce *from* the time past to the time pre-

ot be found and perfect. *Bacon's War-*
s.—This is evident *from* that high and

orality, which shined forth in some of
it heathens. *South.* 9. Noting the place
from whom a message is brought.—The
ming, and I must speak with him *from*

—How now, Fluellan, cam'st thou *from*
? *Shak.* 10. Out of; noting extraction.

high Mænia's rocky shores I came,
r descent; Acætes is my name. *Ovid.*

se of. Noting the reason or motive of
effect.—

are good, but *from* a nobler cause;
our own knowledge, not *from* nature's

rs. *Dryden.*
celebrates the glory of God *from* the con-
of the greatness of his works. *Tillotson.*

Psalm I.

We sicken soon *from* her contagious care;
Grieve for her sorrows, groan for her despair.

Prior.
—Relaxations *from* plenitude is cured by spare
diet, and *from* any cause by that which is contra-
ry to it. *Arbutnot on Aliments.* 12. Out of.
Noting the ground or cause of any thing.—

By the sacred radiance of the sun,
The mysteries of Hecate, and the night;
By all the operations of the orbs,

From whom we do exist, and cease to be,
Here I disclaim all my paternal care. *K. Lear.*

—They who believe that the praises which arise
from valour are superiour to those which proceed

from any other virtues, have not considered.
Dryden's Virgil.—What entertainment can be rais-

ed *from* so pitiful a machine? We see the success
of the battle *from* the very beginning. *Dryden.*—

'Tis true *from* force the strongest title springs,
I therefore hold *from* that which first made kings.

Dryden.

13. Not near to: noting distance.—
His regiment lies half a mile at least
South *from* the mighty power of the king. *Shak.*

14. Noting separation or recession.—
To die by thee, were but to die in jest;
From thee to die, were torture more than death.

Shak.
Hast thou beheld, when *from* the goal they start,
The youthful charioteers with heaving heart,

Rush to the race, and, panting, scarcely hear
Th' extremes of fev'rish hope and chilling fear.

Dryden.

15. Noting exemption or deliverance.—
From jealousy's tormenting strife,
For ever be thy bosom freed. *Prior.*

16. Noting absence.—
Our father he hath writ, so hath our sister,
Of diff'rences, which I best thought it fit

To answer *from* our home. *Shak. King Lear.*

17. Noting derivation.—
I lay the deep foundations of a wall,
And Enos, nam'd *from* me, the city call. *Æt.*

18. Since. Noting distance from the past.—The
flood was not the cause of mountains, but there
were mountains *from* the creation. *Raleigh's Hist.*

—I had, *from* my childhood, a wart upon one of
my fingers. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*—The other had

been trained up *from* his youth in the war of Flan-
ders. *Clarendon.*—

The milk of tygers was his infant food,
Taught *from* his tender years the taste of blood.

Dryden.

—Were there, *from* all eternity, no memorable
actions done 'till about that time? *Tillotson.* 19.

Contrary to. Not in use.—Any thing so overdone
is *from* the purpose of playing; whose end, both

at the first and now, was and is to hold, as 'twere,
the mirror up to nature. *Hamlet.*—

Do not believe,
That *from* the sense of all civility,

I thus would play and trifle with your reverence.
Shak.

Did you draw bonds to forfeit? Sign, to break?
Or must we read you quite *from* what we speak,

And find the truth out the wrong way? *Donne.*

20. Noting removal.—
Thrice *from* the ground she leap'd. *Dryd Æt.*

21. *From*

21. *From* is very frequently joined by an ellipsis with adverbs: as, *from above*, *from the parts above*; *from below*, *from the places below*: of which some are here exemplified. 22. *FROM above*.—He, which gave them *from above* such power, for miraculous confirmation of that which they taught, endued them also with wisdom *from above*, to teach that which they so did confirm. *Hooker*.—

No sooner were his eyes in slumber bound,
Than, *from above*, a more than mortal sound
Invades his ears. *Dryden's Æn.*

23. *FROM afar*.—

Light demilances *from afar* they throw. *Æn.*

24. *FROM beneath*.—

With whirlwinds *from beneath* she tols'd the
ship,
And bare expos'd the bottom of the deep.

Dryden's Virgil.

An arm arises out of Stygian flood,
Which, breaking *from beneath* with bellowing
sound,
Whirls the black waves and rattling stones a-
round. *Dryden.*

25. *FROM behind*.—

See, to their base restor'd, earth, seas, and
air,
And joyful ages *from behind*, in crowding ranks
appear. *Dryden.*

26. *FROM far*.—

Their train, proceeding on their way,
From far the town and lofty tow'rs survey. *Æn.*

27. *FROM high*.—

Then heav'n's imperious queen shot down
from high. *Dryden.*

28. *FROM thence*. Here *from* is superfluous.—In the necessary differences which arise *from thence*, they rather break into several divisions than join in any one publick interest; and *from thence* have always risen the most dangerous factions, which have ruined the peace of nations. *Clarendon.* 29.

FROM whence. *From* is here superfluous.—

While future realms his wand'ring thoughts
delight,
His daily vision, and his dream by night,
Forbidden Thebes appears before his eye,
From whence he sees his absent brother fly.

Pope's Statius.

30. *FROM where*.—

From where high Ithaca o'erlooks the floods,
Brown with o'er-arching shades and pendent
woods,

Us to these shores our filial duty draws. *Pope.*

31. *FROM without*.—When the plantation grows to strength, then it is time to plant it with women as well as with men, that it may spread into generations, and not be pieced *from without*. *Bacon.*

If native power prevail not, shall I doubt

To seek for needful succour *from without*. *Æn.*

32. *From* is sometimes followed by another preposition, with its proper case. 33. *FROM amidst*.

Thou too shalt fall by time or barb'rous foes,
Whose circling walls the sev'n fam'd hills enclose;
And thou, whose rival tow'rs invade the skies,
And, *from amidst* the waves, with equal glory
rise. *Addison.*

34. *FROM among*.—

Here had new begun
My wand'ring, had not he, who was my guide

Up hither, *from among* the trees app
Presence divine! *Milton's Par*

35. *FROM beneath*.—

My worthy wife our arms missai
And *from beneath* my head my sword
Dryden

36. *FROM beyond*.—There followed him
titudes of people from Galilee, and fr
Jordan. *Matt. iv. 25.* 37. *FROM forth*.

Young Aretus, *from forth* his bride
Brought the full laver o'er his hands
And canisters of consecrated flour.

38. *FROM off*.—The sea being constrain'd
draw *from off* certain tracts of lands, wh
then at the bottom of it. *Woodward*.—

Knights, unhors'd, may rise *from off*
And fight on foot, their honour to reg

39. *FROM out*.—The king with angry th
from out a window, where he was not
the world should behold him a behol
manded his guard and the rest of his
hasten their death. *Sidney*.—

And join thy voice unto the angel
From out his secret altar touch'd with
fire.

Now shake, *from out* thy fruitful
seeds

Of envy, discord, and of cruel deeds.

Strong god of iron, whose iron see
The freezing North and hyperborean
Terror is thine; and wild amazement
From out thy chariot, withers ev'n t

40. *FROM out of*.—Whatsoever such
there is, it was at the first found out by
and *from out of* the very bowels of h
earth. *Hooker.* 41. *FROM under*.—

He, though blind of sight,
Despis'd and thought extinguish'd q
With inward eyes illuminated,
His fiery virtue rous'd

From under ashes into sudden flame. *J*

42. *FROM within*.—

From within

The broken bowels, and the bloated
A buzzing noise of bees his ears alarm

(1.) *FROME*, a river of England,
from several springs in the SW. of I
and running almost due W. passes und
ton-bridge to Dorchester, and falls into
the English Channel, called *Poolhaven*, 1
ham.

(2.) *FROME*, a river of Somersetshire
ses in Frome-Woodlands, abounds w
eels, &c. and runs under its stone brid
Bath: 5 miles SE. of which it falls into

(3—5.) *FROME*, or *FROM*, is also t
other 3 rivers: 1. in Gloucestershire,
into the Avon at Bristol: 2. in ditto,
to the Severn near Berkeley: and 3. in
shire, which runs into the Lug near H

(6.) *FROME*, or } a town of Som
FROME-SELWOOD, } and the chief t
part of the country, which was an
great forest, called *SELWOODSHIRE*. I
ger than some cities, yet it has only 6
but it has 7 meeting-houses of Protestar
The number of inhabitants, in 1786,

factory is broad and narrow cloth ; of 50 yards are made annually. About 1, more wire cards, for carding wool wrens, were made at this place than in of England, which was for the most d with them from hence. There were 25 master card-makers, one of whom 10 men, women, and children, in that at once ; so that even children of 7 age could earn half a crown a week. as been long noted for its fine beer, it to a great age, and is even preferred he wines of France and Portugal. It of Bath, and 104 W. by S. of Lou- 2. 16. W. Lat. 51. 10. N.

LES, a town of France, in the depart- Somme, 7 miles SW. of Poix.

LANDS, a forest of Somersetshire, ted in the end of the 17th century, by oney-coiners and clippers, many of taken and executed, and their covert

URE, a town of France, in the dept, e Pyrennees, 7 m. N. of Mount Lewis.

TA, a town of Spain, in the province miles N. of Valencia.

WARD. *prep.* [*fram* and *weard*, Sax.] ; the contrary to the word *towards*. *Use*.—As cheerfully going towards as itroward *fromward* his death. *Siden*.—Itai needle is continually varying to- and West ; and so the dipping or in- is varying up and down, towards is the zenith. *Chyne*.

ENBERG, a town of Westphalia, in of Marck, 2 miles W. of Unna.

NDESCENTIA, [*from frons*, a leaf.] he unfolding of the leaves of plants. d, by ellipsis, for the time of unfold- 2.

DESCENTIAE TEMPUS, in botany, the of the year and month, in which each ants unfolds its first leaves. All plants v leaves every year ; but all do not at the same time. Among woody alder, and most of the honeysuckles ; nial herbs, the crocus and tulips, are push or expand their leaves. The ng the seeds decides with respect to he oak and ash are constantly the la- ng their leaves ; the greatest number in spring ; the mosses and firs in win- riking differences with respect to so ca- stance in plants as that of unfolding seem to indicate that each species of emperature proper or peculiar to itself, a certain degree of heat to extricate the their buds. This temperature, how- so fixed or constant as it may at first . Among plants of the same species, me more early than others ; whether stance depends, as it most commonly e nature of the plants, or is owing to a heat, exposure, and soil. In gene- e affirmed, that small and young trees earlier than larger or old ones. The he leaves is likewise accelerated or re- ording to the temperature of the sea-

lon ; that is, according as the sun is sooner or la- ter in dispensing the degree of heat suitable to each species.

* FRONDIFEROUS. *adj.* [*frondifer*, Latin.] Bearing leaves. *DiC*.

FRONDOSUS CORDEX. See BOTANY, *Gloss*.

FRONSAC, a town of France, in the depart- ment of the Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne, on the Ille ; 2 miles NW. of Libourne, and 23 NE. of Bourdeaux. Lou. o. 16. W. Lat. 45. 5. N.

(1.) * FRONT. *n. f.* [*frons*, Latin ; *front*, French.] 1. The face.—

His *front* yet threatens, and his frowns com- mand. *Prior*.

They stand not *front* to *front*, but each doth view

The other's tail, pursu'd as they pursue.

Creech's Manilius.

The patriot virtues that distend thy thought, Spread on thy *front*, and in thy bosom glow.

Thomson.

2. The face, in a sense of censure or dislike : as, a hardened *front* ; a fierce *front*. This is the usual sense. 3. The face as opposed to an enemy.—

His forward hand, inur'd to wounds, makes way

Upon the sharpest *fronts* of the most fierce.

Daniel.

4. The part or place opposed to the face.—The access of the town was only by a neck of land ; our men had shot that thundered upon them from the rampier in *front*, and from the galleys that lay at sea in flank. *Bacon*. 5. The van of an army.—

'Twixt host and host but narrow space was left,

A dreadful interval ! and *front* to *front*

Presented stood in terrible array. *Milt*.

6. The forepart of any thing, as of a building.—Both these sides are not only returns, but parts of the *front* ; and uniform without, though severally partitioned within, and are on both sides of a great and stately tower, in the midst of the *front*. *Bacon's Essays*.—Palladius adviseth the *front* of his edifice should so respect the South, that in its first angle it receive the rising rays of the Winter sun, and decline a little from the Winter setting thereof. *Brown's Vulg. Err*.—

The prince approach'd the door,

Possess'd the porch, and on the *front* above

He fix'd the fatal bough. *Dryden's Æn*.

—One sees the front of a palace covered with painted pillars of different orders. *Addison on Italy*.

7. The most conspicuous part or particular.

(2.) FRONT, in anatomy, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) the forehead, or that part of the face above the eyebrows. The Latin *frons*, is derived by Martinus from the Greek *φρον*, to think, or perceive ; of *φρον*, the mind or thought.

(3.) FRONT, in architecture, (§ 1. *def.* 6.) denotes the principal face or side of a building, or that presented to their chief aspect or view.

* (1.) To FRONT. *v. a.* [*from* the noun.] 1. To oppose directly, or face to face ; to encounter.—You four shall *front* them in the narrow lane ; we will walk lower : if they scape from your encounter, then they light on us. *Shak. Hen. IV*.—Can you, when you have push'd out of your gates the

very defender of them, think to *front* his revenges with easy groans. *Shak. Coriol.*—Some are either to be won to the state in a fast and true manner, or *fronted* with some other of the same party that may oppose them, and so divide the reputation. *Bacon's Essay.*—

I shall *front* thee, like some staring ghost,

With all my wrongs about me. *Dryd.*

2. To stand opposed or over-against any place or thing.—The square will be one of the most beautiful in Italy when this statue is erected, and a townhouse built at one end, to *front* the church that stands at the other. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) * *To FRONT. v. n.* To stand foremost.—

I *front* but in that file,

Where others tell steps with me. *Shak. H. VIII.*

(1.) * *FRONTAL. n. f.* [*frontale*, Latin; *frontal*, French.] Any external form of medicine to be applied to the forehead, generally composed amongst the ancients of coolers and hypnoticks. *Quincy.*—We may apply intercipients upon the temples of mastick: *frontales* may also be applied. *Wifeman.*—The torpedo, alive, stupifies at a distance; but after death produceth no such effect; which had they retained, they might have supplied opium; and served as *frontals* in phrenesies. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

(2.) *FRONTAL*, in architecture, a little fronton, or pediment, sometimes placed over a small door or window.

(3.) *FRONTAL*, *FRONTLET*, or *Brow-band*, in the Jewish ceremonies, consists of 4 several pieces of vellum, on each of which is written some text of scripture. They are all laid on a piece of black calf's leather with thongs to tie it by. The Jews apply the leather with the vellum on their foreheads in the synagogue, and tie it round the head with the thongs.

FRONTANA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 25 miles SE. of Urgel.

* *FRONTATED. adj.* [from *frons*, Latin.] In botany, the *frontated* leaf of a flower grows broader and broader, and at last perhaps terminates in a right line: used in opposition to cusped, which is, when the leaves of a flower end in a point. *Quincy.*

* *FRONTBOX. n. f.* [*front* and *box*.] The box in the playhouse from which there is a direct view to the stage.—

How vain are all these glories, all our pains,
Unless good sense preserve what beauty gains!

That men may say, when we the *frontbox* grace,
Behold the first in virtue, as in face. *Pope.*

FRONTE, a town of Piedmont, in the marquisate of Ivrea, on the Marlon, 11 miles N. of Turin.

* *FRONTED. adj.* [from *front*.] Formed with a front.—

Part *fronted* brigades form. *Milton.*

FRONTEIRA, a town of Portugal in Alentejo, near which the Portuguese, under the D. of Schomberg, defeated the Spaniards in 1663. It is 10 miles N. of Estremoz.

FRONTEITTEN, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, 14 miles NNW. of Graz.

FRONTENAC. See *FRONTINAC.*

FRONTENHAUSEN, a town of Bavaria, 5 miles S. of Dingelsingen, and 14 E. of Landslut.

(1.) * *FRONTIER. adj.* [*frontiere*, French.] Bordering; conterminous.—

A place there lies on Gallia's utmost
Where rising seas insult the *frontier* ground.

(2.) * *FRONTIER. n. f.* The marches; the utmost verge of any territory; the properly that which terminates not at the fronts another country.—Draw all the ends of those borders away, or plant garrisons at those *frontiers* about him. *Spenser on Ireland.*

I upon my *frontiers* here keep rest
That little which is left so to defend.

(3.) *FRONTIERS* are the extremes of a territory or country, which the enemies find in front where they would enter it. They were anciently called *MARCHES*.

FRONTIGNAC, *FRONTIGNAN*, or *FRONTIGNIAC*, a town of France, in the dep. of Hérault, famous for its excellent wine, seated on the lake Maguelone, 12 miles from Montpellier. Lon. 3. 48. E. Lat. 43. 46.

FRONTINAC, PORT, a fortress of France, on the NW. side of Lake Ontario, 3 miles from its mouth, and 300 from Quebec. It was taken from the French, in Aug. 1759, by the British, under Col. Bradstreet; though defended by 100 men and 60 pieces of cannon, besides 1000 stores.

* *FRONTINUS*, Sextus Julius, an ancient Roman author, of consular dignity, who flourished under Vespasian; Titus, Domitian, Nerva, and Trajan. He commanded the Roman armies in Britain, and made city prætor when Vespasian and Titus were consuls; and curator of the aqueducts of Rome, which occasioned his writing *De aqueductibus Urbis Romæ*. He wrote 4 books upon the Roman art of war; a tract *De re agraria*; another *De limitibus*. These have been several times printed; but were all collected into a neat edition at Amsterdam, in 1661, by Robert Keuchen. He died under Trajan.

(1.) * *FRONTISPIECE. n. f.* [*frontispicium*, Latin.] That part of any building, or other object, which directly meets the eye.—

With *frontispiece* of diamond and gold,
Embellish'd, thick with sparkling ornaments,
The portal shone. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

—Who is it has informed us that a man can inhabit no tenement, unless it has a sort of *frontispiece*? *Locke.*—The *frontispiece* of a townhouse has pillars of a beautiful black marble streaked with white. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) *FRONTISPIECE OF A BOOK*, a page with an engraved title on the first page, and properly an emblematical engraved device on the title page.

* *FRONTLESS. adj.* [from *front*.] Wanting shame; void of diffidence. Thee, *frontless* man, we follow'd
Thy instruments of death and tools of war.

For vice, though *frontless* and of hard
Is daunted at the sight of awful grace
Strike a blush through *frontless* flattery.

(1.) * *FRONTLET. n. f.* [*fronteau*, French.] A bandage worn

—How now, daughter, what makes that ? You are too much of late i' th' frown.
ear.—They shall be as *frontlets* between
Dent. vi. 8.—To the forehead *frontlets*
 ed, to restrain and intercept the influx.
Surgery.

NTLET. See *FRONTAL*, § 3.

FO, Marcus Cornelius, a Roman Orator, was preceptor to the emperors Marcus and Lucius Verus. The former made him not only eloquence, but the duty of speech, and excellent morals.

FONTON, a town of France in the department of Garonne, 15 miles N. of Toulouse.

FONTON. See *FRONTAL*, § 2.

FRONTIANI, a sect of Roman Orators, derived M. C. FRONTO, as a model of eloquence.

FRONT ROOM. *n. s.* [*front* and *room*.] An apartment in the forepart of the house.—If your parlour is in an eminent street, the *frontrooms* are only more airy than the backrooms; and inconvenient to make the *frontroom* the parlour.

FREZZELLA, one of the 17 almost inaccessible passes through the mountains of VICENZA, in the Austrian Empire, commencing in the valley of the Adige. It is the narrowest of them, and is flanked by perpendicular rocks, 300 feet high, so that the sun can scarcely penetrate into it, and the eye cannot perceive the sky." "The road," says Dr Oppenheim, "is the most passable" of the 17, "except during snow, when it is the most perilous," (*Stat. Acc. of Marit. Aust.* p. 452.)

FRANDE, a town of Norway, in the department of Drontheim, 60 miles SSE. of Drontheim.

FRANKE, or FROME. See *FROME*, N. 1, 3—5.

FRANKE. *adj.* [*bevroren*, Dutch, frozen.] This word is not used since the time of

The parching air
 of fire, and cold performs th' effect of fire.

FRIGID. *adj.* [*bevroren*, Frozen, Dutch.] Congealed with cold. Obsolete.—

My heart-blood is well nigh *frorne* I feel,
 My galley grown fast to my heel. *Spem.*

FRANK, a town of Up. Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburg, 10 miles S. of Magdeburg.

FRANCO, a town of Piedmont, 13 miles from Turin.

FRANCO, a town of France, in the department of Eure, 4½ miles SE. of Painboeuf.

FROST. *n. s.* [*frost*, Saxon.] 1. The power of cold; the power or act of congelation.

—is the state of man: to-day he puts forth
 his leaves of hopes; to-morrow blossoms;
 and his blushing honours thick upon him;
 the third day comes a *frost*, a killing *frost*,
 when he thinks, good easy man, full surely
 his greatness is a ripening, nips his root,
 and then he falls. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

—the *frost* seizes upon wine, only the more
 parts are congealed: there is a mighty
 which can retreat into itself, and within its

own compass lie secure from the freezing impression. *South.* 2. The appearance of plants and trees sparkling with congelation of dew.—

Behold the groves that shine with silver *frost*,
 Their beauty wither'd, and their verdure lost.

Pope's Winter.

(2.) FROST, or FREEZING, in physiology, is such a state of the atmosphere, as occasions the congelation or freezing of water and other fluids. See *FREEZING*. Under the articles *COLD*, *CONGELATION*, *EVAPORATION*, *FLUIDITY*, and *FREEZING*, it is shown, that water and other fluids are capable of containing the element of fire or heat in two very different states. In the one, they seem to imbibe fire in such a manner, that it eludes all the methods by which we are accustomed to observe it, either by our sensation of feeling, or the thermometer; in the other, it manifests itself obviously to our senses, either by the touch, the thermometer, or the emission of light. In the first of these states, we call the body *cold*; and are apt to say that this coldness is occasioned by the *absence* of heat. But this mode of expression is not strictly just, for even those fluids which are coldest to the touch contain a vast deal of heat. Thus vapour, which is colder to the touch than the water from which it was raised, contains an immense quantity of fire. The same may be said of common salt, and snow, or ice. If a quantity of each of these substances is separately reduced to 28° or 30° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, upon mixing them together, the heat which could have raised the thermometer to the degree above-mentioned, now enters into the substance of them in such a manner that the mercury falls down to 0.—Here an excessive degree of cold is produced, and yet we are sure that the substances contain the very same quantity of heat that they formerly did: nay, they will even seem exceedingly cold, when they most certainly contain a great deal more heat than they originally did; for they absorb it from all bodies around them; and if a small vessel full of water is put in the middle of such a mixture, it will in a short time be full of ice. It appears, therefore, that our senses, even when assisted by thermometers, can only judge of the state in which the element of fire is with relation to the bodies around us, without regard to the quantity contained in them. Thus, if heat flows from any part of our body into any substance actually in contact with it, the sensation of cold is excited, and we call that substance *cold*; but if it flows from any substance into our body, the sensation of heat is excited, and we call that substance *hot*, without regard to the absolute quantity contained in either case. See *HEAT*.

(3.) FROST, CAUSES OF THE UNCERTAIN DURATION OF. Of all known substances, the atmosphere either absorbs or throws out heat with the most remarkable facility: and in one or other of these states it always is with respect to the surface of the earth, and such bodies as are placed on or near it; for these, properly speaking, have no temperature of their own, but are entirely regulated by that of the atmosphere.—When the air has been for some time absorbing the heat from terrestrial bodies, a frost must be the undoubted consequence, for the same reason that water free-

gas in a vessel put into a freezing mixture ; and were this absorption to continue for a length of time, the whole earth would be converted into a frozen mass. There are, however, certain powers in nature, by which this effect is always prevented ; and the most violent frost we can imagine must always, as it were, defeat its own purposes, and end in a thaw. To understand this subject, we must observe, 1. In that state of the atmosphere which we denominate frost, there is a most intimate union between the air and the water it contains ; and therefore frosty weather, except in very high latitudes, is generally clear. 2. When such an union takes place, either in winter or summer, we observe the atmosphere also inclined to absorb heat, and consequently to grow frosty. Thus in clear settled weather, even in summer, though the day be excessively hot by the continued sunshine, yet the mornings and evenings are remarkably cold, and sometimes even disagreeably so. 3. The air being therefore always ready in the time of frost or in clear weather, to absorb heat from every substance which comes into contact with it, it follows that it must also absorb part of that which belongs to the vapours contained in it. 4. Though vapour is capable of becoming much colder than water without being frozen, yet by a continued absorption it must at last part with its latent heat, i. e. that which essentially constitutes it vapour ; and without which it is no longer vapour, but water or ice. No sooner, therefore, does the frost arrive at a certain pitch, than the vapours, everywhere dispersed through the air, give out their latent heat : the atmosphere then becomes clouded : the frost either goes off, or becomes milder by the great quantity of heat discharged into the air ; and the vapours descend in rain, hail, or snow, according to the particular disposition of the atmosphere at the time. 5. Even in the polar regions, where it may be thought that the frost must increase beyond measure, there are natural means for preventing its running to extremes. The principal cause here is, the mixture of a great quantity of vapours from the temperate regions of the globe with the air in those dreary climates. It is well known, that aqueous vapour always flies from a warm to a colder place. For this reason, the vapours raised by the sun in the more temperate regions of the earth, must continually fly northward and southward in great quantities. Thus they furnish materials for those immense quantities of snow and ice which are to be found in the neighbourhood of the poles, and which we cannot imagine the weak influence of the sun in these parts capable of raising. It is impossible that a quantity of vapour can be mixed with frosty air, without communicating a great deal of heat to it ; and thus there are often thaws of considerable duration even in those climates where, from the little influence of the sun, we should suppose the frost would be perpetual. 6. We may now account with some probability for the uncertain duration of frosts. In Britain they are seldom of a long continuance ; because the vapours raised from the sea with which our island is surrounded, perpetually mix with the air over it, and prevent a long duration of the frost. For the same reason, *frosts are never of such long duration in maritime*

places on the continent as in the inland. There is nothing, however, more uncertain than the motion of the vapours with which the atmosphere is constantly filled ; and therefore it is impossible to prognosticate the duration of a frost with any degree of certainty. In general, we may say, that if a quantity of vapour is accumulated in any place, no intense frost can subsist in that place for any length of time ; and by the same cause the vapours are driven from place to place, the frosts are driven from place to place throughout the whole world. See VAPOUR.

(4.) FROST, DEPTH OF. Frost, being derived from the atmosphere, naturally proceeds from the upper parts of bodies downwards, as to the earth : so, the longer a frost is continued, the thicker the ice becomes upon the ponds, and the deeper into the earth the frost is frozen. In about 16 or 17 days frost, it was found it had penetrated 14 inches into the ground. At Moscow, in a hard season, the frost penetrated 2 feet deep in the ground ; and Captain Ross found it penetrated 10 feet deep in Charlottenburg, and the water in the same island was frozen to a depth of 6 feet. Scheffer assures us, that in Sweden the frost pierces 2 cubits or 3 feet into the earth, and turns what moisture there is into a whitish substance, like ice ; and that the ice is sometimes three ells, or more. The author also mentions sudden cracks in the ice of lakes of Sweden, 9 or 10 feet deep, and leagues long ; the rupture being made with a noise not less loud than if many guns were fired together. By such means, however, the lakes are furnished with air ; so that they are never found dead.

(5.) FROST, EFFECTS OF. The effects of frost in different countries are mentioned in the article FREEZING, § 1, 2, 4, 6. In the northern parts of the world even solid bodies are rendered brittle by frost. Timber is often apparently rendered exceedingly difficult to saw. Chalk, and other less solid terrestrial bodies will be shattered by strong and durable Metals are contracted by frost : thus, an iron bar 12 feet long, upon being exposed to the frosty night, lost two lines of its length. On the contrary, frost swells or dilates water to the tenth of its bulk. Mr Boyle made several experiments with metalline vessels, exceeding strong ; which being filled with water, and stopped, and exposed to the cold, burst by the expansion of the frozen fluid within them, and were often destroyed by frost, as if burst by the most excessive heat ; and in very strong walnut trees, ashes, and even oaks, are split and cleft, so as to be seen through with a terrible noise, like the explosion of arms. (See § 7.) In cold countries, the frost proves fatal to mankind ; producing gangrene and even death itself. Those who die of frost, their hands and feet first seized, till they lose all feeling ; after which the rest of the body is so invaded, that they are taken with convulsions, which if indulged, they awake but die insensibly. But there is another way whereby it proves mortal, viz. by fre-

and viscera, which on dissection are be mortified and black.

OST, HOAR. See HOAR-FROST.

OST, HURTFUL EFFECTS OF, ON VEGE-

The great power of frost on vegetables is well known; but the differences between those of a severe winter, and those which come in the spring mornings, in their effects on plants and trees, were never perfectly explained, till Du Hamel and Buffon, in the Memoires of the Paris Academy. The frosts of severe winters are much more terrible than those of the spring, as they bring on a privation of all the juices of the tenderer parts of the vegetable. Winter frosts are not so frequent, such as opening perhaps but once in an age; but frosts of the spring are in reality greater to us than these, as they are every year.

In regard to trees, the great difference is that the frosts of severe winters affect even the trunks and large branches; those of the spring have only power to kill the buds. The winter frosts happening at a time when most of the trees in our woods and gardens have neither leaves, flowers, nor fruits on them, and have their buds so hard as to be insensible to slight injuries of weather, especially if the preceding summer has not been too wet; and, if there are no unlucky circumstances, most trees bear moderate winters very well, and hard frosts, which happen late in winter, do great injuries even to those trees which are not utterly destroyed. These are, 1. Long frosts blowing the direction of the fibres. 2. Frosts of dead wood inclosed round with wood in a living state. And, 3. That distemper which foresters call the *double blea*, which is a circle of blea, or soft white wood, which, when the tree is afterwards felled, is found covered with a layer of hard and solid wood. The opinions of authors about the exposition of trees to the winds, have been very different, and are all grounded on no rational foundation. Some are of opinion that the effects of frost are most sensibly felt on those trees which are exposed to the N. and others think the S. or the W. is most strongly affected by them. There is no doubt that the N. exposure is subject to the greatest injury.

It does not, however, follow from this, that the greatest injury must be always greatest on the trees exposed to the N. in frosts: on the contrary, there are abundant proofs, that it is on the S. side that trees are generally most injured by frost: and it is from repeated experiments, that there are many accidents, under which a more moderate frost may do more injury to vegetables, than the most severe one which happens to them under the most favourable circumstances. It is plain from the accounts of the injuries trees received by frosts in 1709 that the greatest of all were produced by repeated false thaws, succeeded by renewed frosts. But the frosts of the spring are abundantly more numerous examples of this; and some experiments made by the late M. Buffon, in his own woods, prove indubitably, that it is not the severest cold or most long frost that does the greatest injury to vegetables. This is an observation directly opposite to

the common opinion, yet it is not the less true, nor any way discordant to reason. We find by a number of experiments, that it is humidity that makes frost fatal to vegetables; and therefore every thing that can occasion humidity in them, exposes them to these injuries, and every thing that can prevent or take off an over proportion of humidity in them, every thing that can dry them though with ever so increased a cold, must prevent or preserve them from those injuries. Numerous experiments and observations tend to prove this. It is well known that vegetables always feel the frost very desperately in low places where there are fogs. The plants which stand by a river side are frequently found destroyed by the spring and autumnal frosts, while those of the same species, which stand in a drier place, suffer little or perhaps not at all by them; and the low and wet parts of forests are well known to produce worse wood than the high and drier. The coppice wood in wet and low parts of common woods, though it push out more vigorously at first than that of other places, yet never comes to so good a growth; for the frost of the spring killing these early top shoots, obliges the lower part of the trees to throw out lateral branches: and the same thing happens in a greater or lesser degree to the coppice wood that grows under cover of larger trees in great forests; for here the vapours, not being carried off either by the sun or wind, stagnate and freeze, and in the same manner destroy the young shoots, as the fogs of marshy places. It is a general observation also, that the frost is never hurtful to the late shoots of the vine, or to the flower-buds of trees, except when it follows heavy dews, or a long rainy season, and then it never fails to do great mischief, though it be ever so slight. The frost is always observed to be more mischievous in its consequences on newly cultivated ground than in other places; and this is because the vapours which continually arise from the earth, find an easier passage from those places than from others. Trees also which have been newly cut, suffer more than others by the spring frosts, which is owing to their shooting out more vigorously. Frosts also do more damage on light and sandy grounds, than on the tougher and firmer soils, supposing both equally dry; and this seems partly owing to their being more early in their productions, and partly to their lax texture suffering a greater quantity of vapours to transpire. It has also been frequently observed, that the side-shoots of trees are more subject to perish by the spring frosts than those from the top; and M. Buffon, who examined into this with great accuracy, always found the effects of the spring frosts much greater near the ground than elsewhere. The shoots within a foot of the ground are quickly perished by them; those which stood at two or three feet high, bore them much better; and those at four feet and upwards frequently remained wholly unhurt, while the lower ones were entirely destroyed. A series of observations have proved beyond all doubt, that it is not the hard frosts which so much hurt plants, as those frosts, though less severe, which happen when they are full of moisture; and this clearly explains the account of all the great damage done by the severe

frosts being on the south side of the trees which are affected by them, though that side has been plainly all the while less cold than the north. Great damage is also done to the western sides of trees and plantations, when after a rain with a west wind the wind turns about to the north at sunset, as is frequently the case in spring, or when an east wind blows upon a thick fog before sun-rising.

(8.) FROST, MELIORATION OF AROMATIC SPIRITS BY. Mr Baume observes, that aromatic spirituous waters have less scent when newly distilled, than after they have been kept about six months: and he found that the good effects of age was produced in a short time by means of cold; and that, by plunging quart bottles of the liquor into a mixture of pounded ice and sea salt, the spirit, after having suffered for 6 or 8 hours the cold hence resulting, proves as grateful as that which hath been kept many years. Simple waters also, after having been frozen, prove far more agreeable than they were before. Geoffroy takes notice of this melioration by frost; *Hist. Acad.* 1713.

(9.) FROST, MELIORATION OF LAND BY. See HUSBANDRY.

(10.) FROSTS, REMARKABLE. In the year 220, a frost in Britain lasted 5 months. In 250, The Thames was frozen 9 weeks. 291, Most rivers in Britain frozen 6 weeks. 359, Severe frost in Scotland for 14 weeks. 508, The rivers in Britain frozen for 2 months. 558, The Danube quite frozen over. 695, Thames frozen 6 weeks, and booths built on it. 759, Frost from Oct. 1 till Feb. 26, 760. 827, Frost in England for 9 weeks. 859, Carriages used on the Adriatic. 908, Most rivers in England frozen 2 months. 923, The Thames frozen 13 weeks. 987, Frost lasted 120 days: began Dec. 22. 998, Thames frozen 5 weeks. 1035, Severe frost on June 24: the corn and fruits destroyed. 1063, The Thames frozen 14 weeks. 1076, Frost in England from Nov. till April. 1114, Several wooden bridges carried away by ice. 1205, Frost from Jan. 15 till March 22. 1407, Frost that lasted 15 weeks. 1434, From Nov. 24 till Feb. 10. Thames frozen down to Gravesend. 1631, Frost for 13 weeks. In 1708—9, an extraordinary frost throughout most parts of Europe, though scarcely felt in Scotland, or Ireland. In 1715, Severe frost for many weeks. 1739, One for 2 weeks; began Dec. 24. 1742, Severe frost for many weeks. 1747, Severe frost in Russia. 1754, Severe one in England. 1760, The same in Germany. 1776, The same in England. 1788, The Thames frozen below bridge; and booths erected on it. 1795, The Zuyder Zee frozen over, and the rivers of Holland passed by the French.

* FROSTBITTEN. *adj.* [*frost* and *bitten*.] Nipped or withered by the frost.—The leaves are too much *frostbitten*. *Martiner*.

* FROSTED. *adj.* [from *frost*.] Laid on in inequalities, like those of the hoar frost upon plants.—

The rich brocaded silk unfold,

Where rising flow'rs grow stiff with *frosted* gold.

Gay.

FROSTENBY, a village near Scarborough.

* FROSTILY. *adv.* [from *frosty*.] 1. With

frost; with excessive cold. 2. With of affection.—

Courtling, I rather thou should'
Dispraise my work, than praise it;

* FROSTINESS. *n. s.* [from *frost* and *ness*.] A quality of being frosty or freezing cold.

* FROSTNAIL. *n. s.* [*frost* and *nail*.] A nail with a prominent head driven into shoes, that it may pierce the ice.—T'is strait only to take hold, for better as a horse that is shod with *frostnails*.

* FROSTWORK. *n. s.* [*frost* and *work*.] A substance in which the substance is laid on with like the dew congealed upon shrubs.—

By nature shap'd to various figure
The fruitful rain, and these the ha
The snowy fleece and curious *frost*
Produce the dew, and those the ge

* FROSTY. *adj.* [from *frost*.] 1. Having the power of congelation; excessive cold.

For all my blood in Rome's great
For all the *frosty* nights that I have
Be pitiful to my condemned sons. S
—The air, if very cold, irritateth the
maketh it burn more fiercely; as fire
in *frosty* weather. *Bacon*.—A gnat,
with cold and hunger, went out one
ing to a bee-hive. *L'Estrange*. 2. Cl
tion; without warmth of kindness or

What a *frosty*-spirited rogue is th
3. Hoary; grey-haired; resembling
Where is loyalty?

If it be banish'd from the *frosty* hea
Where shall it find a harbour in the

* FROTH. *n. s.* [*froe*, Danish and *foth*.] 1. Spume; foam; the bubbles caused by agitation.—

His hideous tail then hurled he a
And therewith all enwrapt the nim
Of his *froth* foamy steed.

—When wind expireth from under t
causeth some resounding of the water
eth some light motions of bubbles
circles of *froth*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Surging waves against a solid roc
Though all to shivers dash'd, th' af
Vain batt'ry, and in *froth* or bubble
—The useless *froth* swims on the surf
pearl lies covered with a mass of water

The scatter'd ocean flies;
Black sands, discolour'd *froth*, and r
arise.

They were the *froth* my raging f
When it boil'd up; I knew not th
Yet then lov'd most. *Dryden's*

—If now the colours of natural bod
mingled, let water, a little thicken
be agitated to raise a *froth*; and afte
has stood a little, there will appear,
shall view it intently, various colours
in the surfaces of the bubbles; but
small—so far off that he cannot di
colours from one another, the whol
grow white, with a perfect whiteness
A painter, having finished the pictur
excepting the loose *froth* about his m

nd after many unsuccessful essays, de-
o do that to his satisfaction, in a great
a sponge at it, all besmeared with the
which fortunately hitting upon the right
one bold stroke of chance most exactly
the want of skill in the artist. *Bentley*.
empty or senseless shew of wit or elo-
3. Any thing not hard, solid, or sub-

eateth his veal, pig and lamb being *froth*,
vice in a week go to bed without broth.

Tusser.

FROTH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To foam;
out spume; to generate spume.—

rets within, *froths* treason at his mouth,
urns it through his teeth. *Dryd. Don. Seb.*
muddies the best wit, and only makes it
d *froth* high. *Greav.*

FROTHY. *adv.* [from *frothy*.] 1. With
th spume. 2. In an empty trifling man-

FROTHINESS, *n. f.* The state of being frothy;
want of solidity. *Asb.*

SPIT, or **CUCKOW-SPIT**, a name given
ite froth, or spume, very common in
d the first months of summer, on the
certain plants, particularly on those of
non white field lychnis, or catchfly,
lled by some *spatling poppy*. All writers
bles have taken notice of this froth,
w have understood the cause or origin of
ite. It is formed by a little leaping ani-
d by some the *flea grasshopper*, by ap-
anus close to the leaf, and discharging
a small drop of a white viscous fluid,
etaining some air in it, is soon elevated
in bubble: before this is well formed, it
such another drop; and so on, till it is
overwhelmed with a quantity of these
which form the white froth which we
lin this spume it is seen to acquire 4
on its back, wherein the wings are in-
sele bursting, from a reptile it becomes
animal: and thus, rendered perfect, it
cet its mate, and propagate its kind.
oblong, obtuse body; a large head with
; 4 external wings, of a dusky brown
arked with two white spots: the head
It is a species of **CICADA**.

FROTHY. *adj.* [from *frothy*.] 1. Full of
th, or spume.—The sap of trees is of
atures; some watery and clear, as vines,
ears; some thick, as apples; some gum-
mies; and some *frothy*, as elms. *Bacon*.
ld a *frothy* substance rise;
ious, or your bottle flies. *Swift*.
ot solid; wasting.—Their bodies are so
ard as you need not fear that bathing
ke them *frothy*. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*
mpy; trifling.—What's a voluptuous
nd the *frothy* vanity of discourse that
attends these pompous entertainments?
but a mortification to a man of sense
? *L'Estrange*.—Though the principles
were never so clear and evident, yet
be made ridiculous by vain and *frothy*
the gravest and wisest person in the

PART I.

world may be abused by being put in a fool's
coat. *Tillotson*.

FROUARD, a town of France, in the dep. of
Meurthe, on the Moselle, 5 m. NNW. of Nancy.

FROULAY-TESSÉ, a town of France, in the
dep. of Orne, 7 miles SE. of Domfront.

* **FROUNCE**. *n. f.* A word used by falconers
for a distemper, in which white spittle gathers a-
bout the hawk's bill. *Skinner*.

* *To FROUNCE*. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To
frizzle or curl the hair about the face. This word
was at first probably used in contempt.—

Some *frounce* their curled hair in courtly guise,
Some prank their ruffs, and others timely dight
Their gay attire. *Spenser's Fairy Queen*.

—Some warlike sign must be used; either a slovenly
buskin, or an overstaring *frounced* head. *Ascham*.—

Thus, night oft see me in thy pale career,
'Till civil suited morn appear;
Not trick'd and *frounc'd* as she was wont,
With the attick boy to hunt. *Milton*.

FROUQUÉ, an islet 1 mile W. of Jersey.

* **FROUZY**. *adj.* [A cant word.] 1. Fœtid;
musty.—

Petticoats in *frouzy* heaps. *Swift*.

2. Dim; cloudy.—

When first Diana leaves her bed,
Vapours and steams her looks disgrace;
A *frouzy* dirty-coloured red

Sits on her cloudy wrinkled face. *Swift*.

* **FRWARD**. *adj.* [*frameword*, Saxon.] Pee-
vish; ungovernable; angry; perverse; the con-
trary to *toward*.—The *froward* pain of mine own
heart made me delight to punish him, whom I
esteemed the chiefest let in the way. *Sidney*.—

She's not *froward*, but modest as the dove;

She is not hot, but temperate as the moon. *Shak.*
—Whole ways are crooked, and they *froward*,
in their paths. *Prov. ii. 15*.—Time moves a
round, that a *froward* retention of custom is as
turbulent a thing as innovation. *Bacon*.—'Tis
with *froward* men, and *froward* factions too, as
'tis with *froward* children; they'll be sooner qui-
eted by fear than by any gentle or civil. *L'Estrange*.
—Motions occasion sleep, as we find by the com-
mon use and experience of rocking *froward* chil-
dren in cradles. *Temple*.

* **FRWARDLY**. *adv.* [from *froward*.] Pee-
vishly; perversely.—I hid me and was wroth, and
he went *frowardly* in the way of his heart. *Isaiah*,
lvii. 17.

* **FRWARDNESS**. *n. f.* [from *froward*.]
Peevishness; perverseness.—How many *froward-
nesses* of ours does he smother? how many indi-
gnities does he pass by? how many affronts does
he put up with at our hands? *South*.—

We'll mutually forget

The warmth of youth, and *frowardness* of age.
Addison's Cato.

FROWDE, Philip, an English poet, the son
of a gentleman who had been post-master in the
reign of Queen Anne. He was sent to the uni-
versity of Oxford, where he contracted an inti-
macy with Mr Addison. He wrote several ele-
gant Latin poems, inserted in the *Musæ Anglica-
næ*; and 2 tragedies: *The Fall of Saguntum*, de-
dicated to Sir Robert Walpole; and *Philotas*,

R

addressed

addressed to the earl of Chesterfield. He died at London, in 1738, with a very amiable character.

* FLOWER. *n. s.* [I know not the etymology.] A cleaving tool.—

A *frower* of iron for cleaving of lath,
With roll for a sawpit, good husbandry hath.
Tusser.

* FROWN. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A wrinkled look; a look of displeasure.—Patiently endure that *frown* of fortune, and by some notable exploit win again her favour. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*—

In his half-clos'd eyes
Stern vengeance yet and hostile terror stand;
His front yet threatens, and his *frowns* command.
Prior.

* To FROWN. *v. a.* [*frogner*, old French, to wrinkle, *Skinner.*] To express displeasure by contracting the face to wrinkles; to look stern.—

Say, that she *frowns*; I'll say she looks as clear
As morning roses newly wash'd with dew. *Shak.*

They chuse their magistrate;
And such a one as he, who puts his shall,
His popular shall, against a graver bench
Than ever *frown'd*. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

—How now, daughter, what makes that frontlet
on? You are too much of late i'th' frown.—

Thou wast a pretty fellow, when thou hadst no
need to care for her *frowning*. *Shak. King Lear.*
Heroes in animated marble *frown*. *Pope.*

The wood,
Whose shady horrors on a rising brow
Wav'd high, and *frown'd* upon the stream below.
Pope.

* FROWNINGLY. *adv.* [from *frown*.] Sternly; with a look of displeasure.—

What, look'd he *frowningly*?
A countenance more in sorrow than in anger.
Shakespeare's Hamlet.

* FROWY. *adj.* Musty; mossy. This word is now not used; but instead of it *frouzy*—

But if they with thy gores should yede,
They soon might be corrupted;
Or like not of the *frowy* fede,
Or with the weeds be glutted. *Spenser's Past.*

FROXFIELD, 2 villages: 1. in Hamph. N. of Peterfield: 2. in Wilts, 2 miles from Hungerford.

FROYEN, an island near the coast of Norway 35 m. in circuit. Lon. 9. 0. E. Lat. 63. 45. N.

FROYLE, a village in Hampshire.

* FROZEN. *part. pass.* of freeze. 1. Congealed with cold.—

What was the waste of war, what fierce alarms
Shook Asia's crown with European arms?

Ev'n such have heard, if any such there be,
Whose earth is bounded by the frozen sea. *Æn.*

Fierce Boreas, with his offspring, issues forth
To invade the frozen waggon of the North. *Ovid.*

A cheerful blaze arose, and by the fire
They warm'd their frozen feet, and dry'd their
wet attire. *Dryden's Flower and Leaf.*

2. Chill in affection.—Against whom was the fine
frozen knight, frozen in despair; but his armour
naturally representing ice, and all his furniture
lively answering thereto. *Sidney.*—

Be not ever frozen, coy;
One beam of love will soon destroy
And melt that ice to floods of joy. *Carew.*

3. Void of heat or appetite.—

Even here, where frozen chastity
Love finds an altar for forbidden fire
FROZES, a town of France, in the
of Vienne, 5 miles W. of Poitiers.

* F. R. S. *Fellow of the Royal Society*
Who *virtu* profess,
Shine in the dignity of F. R. S.

FRUCTESCENCIA, [from *fructus*
botany, literally signifies the growth of
but is used elliptically for the precise time
after the fall of the flowers, the fruit
maturity, and disperse their seeds
plants which flower in spring ripen in
summer, as rye; those which flower
have their fruits ripe in autumn as the
fruit of autumnal flowers ripens in winter
following spring, if kept in a stove, or
defended from excessive frosts. These
M. Adanson, are frequently so pernicious
olent, as to destroy the greatest part of
nial plants of Virginia and Mississippi
cultivated in France, even before they
bited their fruit. The plants which flower
our winter, such as those of the Cape
Hope, ripen their fruit in spring, in our

FRUCTIDOR, [*i. e.* the fruit month
tus, Lat.] the name of the 12th month
new French calendar. It begins Aug. 1
Sept. 16.

FRUCTIFER. See ACADEMY, §

* FRUCTIFEROUS. *adj.* [*fructi*
Bearing fruit. *Ainsworth*

(1.) * FRUCTIFICATION. *n. s.* [*fructi*
fy.] The act of causing or of bearing
cundation; fertility.—That the sap d
fully rise in the Spring, to put the pl
capacity of *fructification*, he that hath
many gallons of water may be drawn fr
tree, hath slender reason to doubt. *Br*

(2.) FRUCTIFICATION OF PLANTS,
by Linnæus to be the temporary part
ble appropriated to generation, termina
vegetable, and beginning the new. See
Index.

(1.) * To FRUCTIFY. *v. a.* [*fructi*
To make fruitful; to fertilize.—The
the sovereign raises are as vapours whi
exhales, which fall down in sweet show
tify the earth. *Howel's Vocal Forest.*—

Where'er the look, behold some fi
Adorns the trees, and *fructifies* the ear

(2.) * To FRUCTIFY. *v. n.* To bea
watereth the heart, to the end it m
maketh the virtuous, in trouble, full o
mity and courage; and serveth as a n
ved remedy against all doleful and be a
which befall men in this present life
Thus would there nothing *fructify*, eit
under them, the sun being horizontal t
Brown.

FRUCTISTÆ, } a sect of botanist
FRUCTISTS, } TANY, *Index.*

* FRUCTUOUS. *adj.* [*fructueux*
fructify.] Fruitful; fertile; impregnati
tility.—

Apples of price, and plenteous she
Oft interlac'd occur; and both im

congenial juice, so rich the soil,
 ch does *frugum* moisture o'erabound!

Philips.

IGAL. *a. j.* [*frugalis*, Lat. *frugal*, Fr.]

paring: parsimonious; not prodigal;
 ie; not lavish.—

Reasoning, I oft admire,
 pure wife and *frugal* coult' commit
 proportions, with superfluous hand
 y nobler bodies to create,
 a manifold to this one use. *Milton.*
 wing'd surveyors his sharp hunger fed
 ragal scraps of flesh and man's bread.

Harte.

rough mists he shoots his fallen beams,
 of light, in loose and straggling streams,
 a drifting day. *Dryden's Virgil.*

GALITY. *n. f.* [*frugalité*, Fr. *frugalitas*,
 Lat.; parsimony; good husbandry.—As
 several sort of men, *frugality* may be the
 making water; for that is no small sa-
 pation for one's drink. *Bacon.*—

and I county too,
 differing virtues, meet in you. *Waller.*

frugal, or your praises, some things I
 ad. *Dryden's Fables; Ded.*—The bound-
 virtues are indivisible lines: it is impos-
 sible to march up close to the frontiers of *frugali-*
 ty without entering the territories of parsimony.
John Bull

IG LLY. *adv.* [from *frugal*.] Parsimo-
 niously; thriftily —

time young Palimond his marriage press'd,
frugally resolv'd, the charge to shun,
 his brother's bride with his own. *Dryd.*

UGES, [Lat.] fruits, corn, herbs, &c.
 UGES, in geography, a town of France,
 partment of the Straits of Calais, 9 miles
 from.

IGIFEROUS. *adj.* [*frugifer*, Lat.] Bear-
 ing fruit.

ONI, Charles Innocent, an Italian poet,
 to the academy of arts at Parma; where
 in 1768. His works were printed in 9
 in 1779.

ITAN, an island near the W. coast of
 3 miles W. of Mafu Point.

FRUIT. *n. f.* [*fructus*, Lat. *frwyth*, Welsh;
] 1. The product of a tree or plant in
 which seeds are contained.—

strawberry grows underneath the nettle,
 wholesome berries thrive and ripen best,
 sour'd by fruit of baser quality. *Shak.*
 part of a plant which is taken for food.—

By tasting of that fruit forbid,
 they sought knowledge, they did error
 find. *Davies.*

how the rising fruits the gardens crown,
 the sun, and make his light their own.

Blackmore.

tion.—The fruit of the spirit is in all
 and righteousness, and truth. *Ephes. v. 9.*
 spring of the womb; the young of any

if thou their reck'nings keep? the time
 compute,

their swol'n bellies shall enlarge the fruit.

Sandys.

5. Advantage gained by any enterprise or conduct.

—What is become of all the king of Sweden's
 victories? Where are the *fruits* of them at this
 day? Or of what benefit will they be to posterity?
Swift.—Another *fruit*, from considering things in
 themselves, will be, that each man will pursue his
 thoughts in that method which will be most agree-
 able to the nature of the thing, and to his appre-
 hension of what it suggests to him. *Locke.* 6. The
 effect or consequence of any action.—She blushed
 when she considered the effect of granting; she
 was pale when she remembered the *fruits* of de-
 denying. *Sidney*—They shall eat of the *fruit* of their
 own way. *Prov.*

(II.) FRUIT, in its general sense, includes what-
 ever the earth produces for the nourishment of a-
 nimals, expressed by the Latins under the name
 FRUGES.

(III.) FRUIT, in botany, (§ I. *def. 1.*) called by
 the Greeks *καρπός*, in the Linnæan system, is one
 of the parts of fructification, and is distinguished
 into three parts, viz. the pericarpium, seed, and
 receptacle, or *receptaculum seminum*. See BOTANY.

(IV.) FRUITS, COLOURS EXTRACTED FROM.
 See COLOUR-MAKING, *Index*.

(V.) FRUITS, in commerce, (§ I. *def. 2.*) are dis-
 tinguished into *recent* or *fresh*, and *dry*.

1. FRUITS, DRY, are those dried in the sun, or
 by the fire, with other ingredients sometimes ad-
 ded to them to make them keep; imported chief-
 ly from beyond sea, and sold by the grocers. Such
 are raisins, currants, figs, capers, olives, cloves,
 nutmegs, pepper, and other spices; which see in
 their order. Under the denomination of *dry fruits*
 are also frequently included apples, pears, al-
 monds, filberds, &c.

2. FRUITS, FRESH, OR RECENT, are those sold
 just as they are gathered from the tree, without
 any farther preparation; as are most of the pro-
 ductions of our gardens and orchards, sold by the
 fruiterers.

(VI.) FRUITS, MISCHIEFS ARISING FROM
 SWALLOWING THE STONES OF. The dangers
 arising from swallowing the stones of plums and
 other fruits are very great. The *Philos. Transf.*
 give an account of a woman who suffered violent
 pains in her bowels for 30 years, returning once
 in a month or less. At length, a strong purge be-
 ing given her, the occasion of all these complaints
 was driven down from the bowels to the anus;
 where it gave a sensation of distension and stop-
 page, producing a continual desire of going to
 stool, but without voiding any thing. By proper
 assistance, there was taken out with a forceps a
 ball of an oval figure, of about 10 drachms in
 weight, and measuring 5 inches in circumference.
 This had caused all the violent fits of pain which
 she had suffered for so many years; and, after
 voiding it, she became perfectly well. The ball
 extracted looked like a stone, and felt very hard,
 but swam in water. On cutting it through with
 a knife, there was found in the centre, a plum
 stone, round which several coats of this hard and
 tough matter had gathered. Another instance is
 given in the same papers of a man, who, dying of
 an incurable colic which had tormented him many
 years, and baffled the effects of medicines, was
 opened after death; and in his bowels was found

a ball similar to that above-mentioned; but somewhat larger, being 6 inches in circumference, and weighing an ounce and a half. In the centre of this, as of the other, there was found the stone of a common plum, and the coats were of the same nature with those of the former. These and similar instances mentioned in the same work, sufficiently show the folly of that common opinion that the stones of fruits are *wholesome*. Even cherry stones, swallowed in great quantities, have occasioned death.

* **FRUITAGE**. *n. s.* [*fruitage*, Fr.] Fruit collectively; various fruits.—

In heav'n the trees
Of life ambrosial *fruitage* bear, and vines
Yield nectar. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Greedy they pluck'd
The *fruitage*, fair to fight, like that which grew
Near that bituminous lake where Sodom flam'd.
Milton.

—What is more ordinary with them than the taking in flowers and *fruitage* for the garnishing of their work? *More.*

* **FRUITBEARER**. *n. s.* [*fruit and bearer*.] That which produces fruit.—Trees, especially *fruitbearers*, are often infected with the measles, *Mort. H.*

* **FRUITBEARING**. *adj.* [*fruit and bear*.] Having the quality of producing fruit.—By this way graft trees of different kinds one on another, as *fruitbearing* trees on those that bear not. *Martin.*

* **FRUITERER**. *n. s.* [*fruitier*, Fr.] One who trades in fruit.—I did fight with one Sampson Stockfish, a *fruiterer*, behind Gray's inn. *Shak.*

Walnuts the *fruit'er's* hand in Autumn stain;
Blue plums and juicy pears augment his gain.
Gay.

(1.) * **FRUITERY**. *n. s.* [*fruiterie*, Fr.] 1. Fruit collectively taken.—

Oft, notwithstanding all thy care
To help thy plants, on the small *fruitery*
Exempt from ills, an oriental blast
Disastrous flies. *Philips.*

2. A fruit-loft; a repository for fruit.

(2.) A **FRUITERY**, (§ 1. *def* 2.) should be inaccessible to moisture; and should be as much as possible so, even to frost.

FRUIT-FLIES, a name given by gardeners and others to a sort of small black flies, found in vast numbers among fruit-trees, in the spring season, and supposed to do great injury to them. Mr Leeuwenhoek preserved some of these flies for his microscopical observations. He found that they did not live longer than a day or two, but that the females during this time laid a great number of longish eggs. The gardeners who suppose that these flies wound the leaves of the trees, are mistaken: it is true that they feed on their juices; but they have no instruments wherewith they can extract these for themselves: they feed on such as are naturally extravasated; and when there is not a sufficient quantity of these for their purpose, they haunt the places to which the pucerons resort, and feed on the juices which these little creatures extravasate, by means of the holes they bore in the leaves with their trunks.

* **FRUITFUL**. *adj.* [*fruit and full*.] 1. Fertile; abundantly productive; liberal of vegetable product.—If she continued child, he could do more

sustain his life, than the earth remain *fruitful* in the sun's continual absence. *Sidney.*—

The Earth,

Though in comparison of Heav'n, so
Nor glist'ring, may of solid good con-
More plenty, than the sun that barren
Whose virtue on itself works no effect
But in the *fruitful* earth.

2. Actually bearing fruit.—

Adonis' gardens,

That one day bloom'd, and *fruitful*
next.

3. Prolifick; childbearing; not barren.
Hear, Nature, hear; dear goddess,
ther!

Suspend thy purpose, if thou did'st in
To make this creature *fruitful*:

Into her womb convey sterility. *Shak.*
Male he created thee, but thy conf-
Female for race; then bless'd mankind.

Be *fruitful*, multiply, and fill the Earth
Subdue it, and throughout dominion have

—I have copied Nature, making the you-
rous and the damsels *fruitful*. *Gay.* 4. P
abounding in any thing.—

While you, my lord, the rural shade
And from Britannia's public posts reti-
Me into foreign realms my fate conve-
Thro' nations *fruitful* of immortal lay

* **FRUITFULLY**. *adv.* [from *fruitful*.]
such a manner as to be prolifick.—

How sacred seeds of sea, and air, a
And purer fire through universal night
And empty space did *fruitfully* unite.

2. Plenteously; abundantly.—You have
opportunities to cut him off: if your will
time and place will be *fruitfully* offered.

* **FRUITFULNESS**. *n. s.* [from *fruitful*.]
Fertility; fecundity: plentiful production
ther can we ascribe the same *fruitfulness*,
part of the earth, nor the same virtue to
thereon growing, that they had before
Raleigh's Hist. 2. The quality of being
or bearing many children.—

The goddess, present at the match
So bless'd the bed, such *fruitfulness* did
That ere ten moons had sharpen'd eit
To crown their bliss, a lovely boy was

Dryden.

3. Exuberant abundance.—The remedy
fulness is easy, but no labour will help
trary: I will like and praise some things in
writer, which yet, if he continues in,
but justly have him for. *Ben Jonson's Di-*

* **FRUITGROVES**. *n. s.* [*fruit and*
Shades, or close plantations of fruit trees

The faithful slave,

Whom to my nuptial train Icarus gave
To tend the *fruitgroves*. *Pope*

* **FRUITION**. *n. s.* [*fruor*, Lat.] En-
possession; pleasure given by possession.
Man doth not seem to rest satisfied with
fruition of that wherewith his life is pass-
with performance of such actions as adv-
most deservedly in estimation. *Hooker.*—

I'm driv'n, by breath of her reno-
Either to seek shipwreck, or to arrive
Where I may have *fruition* of her love.

riches and renown to men imparts,
 they wish; and yet their narrow hearts
 so great a fluency receive,
 in *fruition* to a stranger leave. *Sandys.*
 once, like beauty, without art or dress,
 and unadorn'd, could find success;
 in *fruition*, novelty destroy'd,
 must find new charms to be enjoy'd.

Granv.

on generally disables a man from pursuing
 in which the guilt of men consists: if
 ion be on his body, his appetites are
 , and capacity of *fruition* destroyed.

Termians.

FIVE. *adj.* [from the noun.] Enjoying;
 ; having the power of enjoyment. A
 legitimate.—To whet our longings for
 experimental knowledge, it is reserved
 the prerogatives of being in heaven, to
 happy we shall be, when there. *Boyle.*

ITLESS. *adj.* [from *fruit*.] 1. Barren of
 bearing fruit.—The Spaniards of Mexi-
 the first forty years, could not make our
 wheat bear seed; but it grew up as high
 es, and was *fruitless*. *Raleigh's History.*
 productive of no advantage; idle; un-

let me not, quoth he, return again
 to the world, whose joys so *fruitless* are;
 let me here for ay in peace remain,
 rightway on that last long voyage fare.

Spenser's Fairy Queen.

ent! we might have spar'd our coming
 ther;

to me, tho' fruit be here t'excels. *Milt.*
 ber is for entirely waving all searches in-
 ity, in relation to this controversy, as
 her needles or *fruitless*. *Waterland.* 3.
 o off-spring.—

on my head they plac'd a *fruitless* crown,
 at a barren sceptre in my gripe;

of mine succeeding. *Shakesp. Macbeth.*

ITLESSLY. *adv.* [from *fruitless*.] Vain-
 unprofitably.—After this fruit curiosity
 enquireth, and confidence blindly deter-

Brown's Vulgar Errors.—

ing they talk'd, and *fruitlessly* divin'd
 friend the priestess by those words de-
 n'd. *Dryden.*

IT-TIME. *n. f.* [from *fruit* and *time*.] The
 the time for gathering fruit.

UIT-TREE. *n. f.* [from *fruit* and *tree*.] A
 at kind whose principal value arises from
 produced by it.—

, by yonder blessed moon I vow,
 ips with silver all these *fruit-tree* tops.

Shakespeare.

possessed houses full of all goods, wells
 vineyards and oliveyards, and *fruit-trees*
 ince. *Neb. ix. 25.*—

with a border of rich *fruit-trees* crown'd,
 loaded branches hide the lofty mound.

Waller.

UIT-TREES, GENERAL OBSERVATIONS
 he cutting or pruning them when young,
 in bearing, though it contributes to the
 and flavour of the fruit, as well as to the

beauty of the tree. 2. Kernel fruit-trees come
 later to bear than stone fruit-trees: the time re-
 quired by the first, before they come to any fit
 age for bearing, being on an average 5 years; but
 when they do begin, they bear in greater plenty
 than stone fruit. 3. Stone fruit, figs, and grapes,
 commonly bear considerably in 3 or 4 years, and
 bear full crops the 5th and 6th years; and hold it
 for many years, if well ordered. 4. Fruit-trees
 in the same neighbourhood will ripen a fortnight
 sooner in some grounds than in others of a diffe-
 rent temperature. 5. In the same country, hot
 or cold summers set considerably forwards, or put
 backwards, the same fruit. 6. The fruit on wall
 trees generally ripen before those on standards,
 and those on standards before those on dwarfs.
 9. The fruit of all wall trees planted in the S. and
 E. quarters, commonly ripen about the same time,
 only those in the S. rather earlier than those in the
 E.; those in the W. are later by 8 or 10 days;
 and those in the N. by 15 or 20.

(III.) **FRUIT-TREES, GRAFTING, PLANTING,**
PRESERVING, &c. OF. See **GRAFTING, ORCH-**
ARD. PLANTING, TREE, &c.

(IV.) **FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S MANAGE-**
MENT OF. The following particulars relating to
 Mr William Forsyth of Kensington's management
 of fruit trees, communicated to the E. of Buchan
 by Dr James Anderson of Mounzie, Nov. 19, 1797,
 have been very obligingly transmitted to us by his
 Lordship.—“This subject falls to be considered
 under two points of view: I. That of recovering
 decayed trees, and eradicating the diseases to which
 fruit-trees are subjected: II. Pruning, so as to in-
 sure a constant succession of fruit-bearing buds.
 On each of these heads I shall offer such observa-
 tions as I have been able to pick up.”

I. **FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S METHOD OF**
CURING, WHEN DECAYED, OR INJURED.—“I. The
 recovering of decayed trees, is an operation pure-
 ly chirurgical, for it is in all respects analogous to
 what takes place in animal bodies, with this sin-
 gular difference in respect to vegetables, that life
 can be seemingly renovated, and the vigour of
 youth restored, after the vital powers are nearly
 annihilated, in consequence of the gradual decays,
 which were the natural effects of extreme senility.
 I mentioned to your lordship, if you recollect, at
 Dryburgh Abbey, a cherry tree which will afford
 a full illustration of what I here say. This cherry
 tree had been brought from abroad by an English
 admiral, with 3 more of the same sort, about the
 beginning of this century, and had been planted
 at Kensington, in the king's garden. The other 3
 were sent to different places. These 3 trees have
 been totally dead for many years, and that at Ken-
 sington was so much decayed, that it had not been
 known to carry any fruit within the memory of
 man, and it was so far reduced about 4 years ago,
 that it made no shoots at all, though it still conti-
 nued to send forth a few leaves. The king chanced
 to take notice of this decayed stump, and observed
 to Forsyth, that he supposed this tree was past his
 power to recover. Forsyth thought so himself,
 but merely to try what could be done, he exami-
 ned the tree with great care. He found that it
 was entirely dead in every part, unless upon one
 side,

side, where a strip of bark, not much above one inch in breadth, was still alive, and on cutting off the top of the tree, within about one foot of the root, he found the wood was totally dead, unless a small slip immediately under the living bark, a section of which you may conceive, from the annexed sketch; (see *Plate CLVIII, fig. 4.*) the whole part at A being all that was alive. His method is to pare off all the dead bark, near the place where it is alive, and to proceed onward till he comes to the *quick*. He cuts into the edges of this all round, till he feels he is every where at the *quick*; then scooping away the dead wood, leaving only a little at the back of the *quick* wood for the present to protect it, as in the section, represented on *Plate CLVIII, fig. 5.* He then covers the fresh cut edges of the bark, and the sound part of the wood that is left, with his composition. (See § 3.) The consequence of these operations are, that from the top of the bark, and the sound part of the wood, shoots of considerable vigour sprung out, which vigour was augmented by rubbing off all the buds that appeared, except 2 or 3. The edges of the bark all round begin to swell in the spring and to roll round, in the manner represented in *fig. 6.* Next year more of the dead wood next the edges is cut away, cutting into the *quick* at those places, and cutting off the inner edge of the new roll of bark next to the wood, and then covering the wound with the salve. Next year the roll at each side increases, as represented, *fig. 7.* And so on from year to year, till the decayed wood being scooped out to give room, till in a few years it assumes the form of *fig. 8.* And by continuing the same process the open is entirely closed, and the whole stem left as sound wood as any tree whatsoever. While this process is going on in the body of the tree, the branches advance with increasing vigour, and cover the top of the wound, while new roots spring out in the same manner from below; so that the tree becomes renewed in all its parts, and is for every purpose as vigorous as a young tree, and for the yielding of fruit much more beneficial, as he finds in general that an old decaying tree (not so far gone however as that just described, but past bearing good fruit) will produce commonly as much fruit in the 3d year after being cut over, as could be obtained from a young planted tree of the same kind in the 30th year from the time of planting. The cherry tree above described is now in full bearing, and produced last season some thousands of cherries of the finest sort. —Diseases affecting fruit trees are eradicated on the very same principle explained above. Cherries, plums, apricots, peaches, and other stone fruits, if they receive ever so slight a bruise upon the bark, become immediately covered with gum; and wherever that gum appears, it acts as a canker which kills the bark and the wood under it; and this spreads wider and wider, till in a short time the whole is destroyed. In order to guard against this, he watches his trees with care, and wherever he perceives the appearance of gum, at whatever season of the year it be, he takes his knife, cuts off the gum, and all the infected bark and wood under it, till he be at the *quick* every where, and immediately covers it with his salve. It heals over immediately, and in a very short time it is per-

fectly sound and beautiful. But when a tree, that has been long mis-managed, has its bark gangrened in many places in that case he scrapes off the whole bark entirely, leaving the inner bark it is sound, but in all the places where it is decayed, the whole of that decayed part and wood, is scooped entirely out, leaving nothing but the *quick*; and when this is thus gone over, it is entirely covered with the salve in every part. After this the wounded places soon skin over, and in two, the salve being gradually thrown off, the whole becomes covered with a new bark, and shining like the most healthy tree. This operation is peculiarly useful for old apple trees, whose bark has become covered with canker, and is besides rigid and unhealthy. It is to be headed down, if old and broken, and this process ought never to be omitted.

2. FRUIT-TREES. Mr FORSYTH'S PRUNING. II. "With regard to pruning trees, if standards, Mr Forsyth never shoots. He encourages a good number to push out round the stem, and leaves them at that state. In his garden, where cattle are kept, he heads them down very low, and keeps them rather as bushes than trees; seldom allowing them to grow so high as to be beyond his reach in gathering the fruit. And as he always shoots young, he can easily bend them in any way. From the tendency that young trees have to shoot out from old wood, which produce fruit, he seldom fails to have a crop year after it has been headed down. He shows me one pear tree, that had been headed down the 1st year, he gathered 2,500 pears the 3d year after it was cut; there were 3 young trees just beside it, about the same age, in high health and vigour, from which he did not gather more than 600. The difference between the fertility of these young trees and the real young ones is indeed astonishing. On this account he buys old trees and shoots them, in preference to young ones, and supplies those persons with young trees who wish to change for the old ones, which they would otherwise throw out of their gardens. As trees thus trained are in general very full of fruit, he takes care to cut out some of the strongest when they get too large, and lets the others spring up in their place, thus keeping them constantly in the wild state of a kind of bush rather than trees, which to my taste is the appearance of art about them, but generally irregular, is very beautiful, the fruit being intermixed with the branches every where. I scarcely add, that, wherever amputation is made, the wounds are immediately covered with salve. In stone fruit particularly, this must not be omitted or even delayed. In regard to this mode of pruning differs in some respects according to the diversity of the kind of fruit to be managed; for he finds, that to obtain a crop over the whole tree, a difference of treatment is required on every individual kind of fruit, as nectarine, peach, &c. but into the

I consider as of very great importance, I pretend to enter, because I do not know myself. All I can do is to develope what I take to be the general basis of his practice. He shortens a shoot during summer, unless the upright stem, which he sometimes cuts twice or even thrice in a season, if it grows to make it push out shoots for filling up part of the tree, which would be in some cases left bare without this precaution. All the shoots he lays in at full length, till September, when he shortens every shoot he means to take advantage of within about 6 inches of the stem from the top of the springs. In this state he leaves it till the next spring when he goes over the whole as convenient; and at that time he cuts it off close to the stem, so as to leave only one or at most two at the root of it, close at the stem of the tree. From these eyes, thus left, there generally push out only a couple of leaves next spring, which the year thereafter become fruitful and that with great certainty. After this the wood has ripened its fruit, he shortens that in winter, leaving only one eye or two at the top. These eyes also push out only leaves the next spring, which the year thereafter become fruitful; and so on he keeps the whole tree continually covered with fruit buds of this season, preparatory buds which are to come in their next season. Under this management there is no sign of woody branches sticking out from the tree, as of old; but an apple or pear tree is as close dressed as a peach. In shortening shoots of apples and pears in September, he takes no precautions; but for cherries and other fruits, he never omits to touch the tip of the shoot where cut over, with a brush dipped in lime, made of a due thickness for that purpose, and every wound at the last pruning is covered in the same manner, for kernel fruit as well as stone fruit. Mr Forsyth is in general very desirous of keeping all the wood on his trees young; and when the branches begin to get old, he cuts them off where a favourable shoot pushes forth, and reserves it perhaps for two seasons without touching it; and then cuts out the old branch, and lays this one in its stead. You will observe, that he never shortens any of the shoots along the wall for the purpose of bearing fruit, so that they have fewer branches, and are more ramifications of any sort, than is usual in the case; and these branches, when thus left to live, throw out more fruit buds and fewer leaves than they otherwise would have done. He also, that as Kensington gardens are richly manured, though the soil be not naturally favourable, tends greatly to the production of fruit. Mr Forsyth considers it as the inevitable ruin of a garden to be poor; nor does he imagine it possible to give it too much manure, if the production of fruit be the object aimed at. These, I think, are the principal hints that I have been able to pick up from Mr Forsyth, in going several times through the garden with him. He is, you will perceive, very communicative; but it takes some time for a person, who is not acquainted with the subject, to acquire consistent and correct notions of it."

3. FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S RECIPE FOR CURING THE DISEASES OF. Mr Forsyth received a reward from his majesty for publishing the following composition for curing diseases and injuries in all kinds of fruit and forest trees; with his method of preparing the trees, and laying on the composition. "Take one bushel of fresh cow dung, half a bushel of lime rubbish of old buildings, (that from the ceilings of rooms is preferable,) half a bushel of wood ashes, and a 16th part of a bushel of pit or river sand; the 3 last articles are to be sifted fine before they are mixed; then work them well together with a spade, and afterwards with a wooden beater, until the stuff is very smooth like fine plaster used for the ceilings of rooms. The composition being thus made, care must be taken to prepare the tree properly for its application, by cutting away all the dead, decayed, and injured part, till you come to the fresh, sound wood, leaving the surface of the wood very smooth, and rounding off the edges of the bark with a sharp knife, or other instrument, perfectly smooth, which must be particularly attended to: then lay on the plaster about one 8th of an inch thick, all over the part where the wood or bark has been so cut away, finishing off the edges as thin as possible; then take a quantity of dry powder of wood ashes, mixed with a 6th part of the same quantity of the ashes of burnt bones; put it into a tin box with holes in the top, and shake the powder on the surface of the plaster, till the whole is covered over with it; letting it remain for half an hour to absorb the moisture. Then apply more powder, rubbing it on gently with the hand, and repeating the application of the powder, until the whole plaster becomes a dry smooth surface. All trees cut down near the ground should have the surface made quite smooth, rounding it off in a small degree, and the dry powder directed to be used afterwards should have an equal quantity of powder of alabaster or stucco, commonly called *Paris plaster stone*, mixed with it, in order the better to resist the dripping of the trees and heavy rains. If any of the composition be left for a future occasion, it should be kept in a tub or other vessel, and urine, or *slate* of any kind, poured on it, so as to cover the surface, otherwise the atmosphere will greatly hurt the efficacy of the application. Where lime rubbish of old buildings cannot be easily got, take pounded chalk, or common lime *after having been slacked a month or so*. As the growth of the tree will gradually affect the plaster, by raising up its edges next the bark, care should be taken, where that happens, to rub it over with the finger when occasion may require, (which is best done when moistened by rain,) that the plaster may be kept whole to prevent the air and wet from penetrating into the wound."

(V.) FRUIT-TREES, Mr F. D. S. BUCKNALL'S COMPOSITION FOR CURING THE CANKER OF. "Take one 4th oz. of the corrosive sublimate, reduced to a fine powder by beating it with a wooden pestle or hammer, and then put it into a 3 quart earthen pipkin, with about a glass-full of gly, or other spirits, stirred well together, and the sublimate thus dissolved: the pipkin to be then filled with vegetable or common water, and the mixture stirred, till the mixture is blended together as

completely as possible. This quantity will be sufficient for 200 fruit trees."

(1.) * **FRUMENTACEOUS**. *adj.* [from *frumentum*, Lat.] Made of grain. *Diſt.*

(2.) **FRUMENTACEOUS** is applied by botanists to all such plants as have a conformity with wheat, in their fruits, leaves, ears, or the like.

FRUMENTARI, a kind of soldiers or archers under the western empire. The first mention we find made of these officers is in the reign of the emperor Adrian, who made use of them to inform himself of whatever passed. They did not make any particular corps distinct from the rest of the forces, but there was a certain number of them in each legion. It is supposed, that they were at first a number of young persons, disposed by Augustus throughout the provinces, particularly on all the grand roads, to acquaint the emperor, with all expedition, of every thing that happened. Afterwards they were incorporated into the troops themselves, where they still retained their ancient name. As their principal office was the giving intelligence, they were often joined with the *CURIOSES*, with whom they agreed in this part of their office. Their name is derived from their being also a sort of purveyors to the armies, cities, &c. collecting the *corn* from the several provinces.

FRUMENTATION, in Roman antiquity, a largess of corn bestowed on the people. This practice of giving corn to the people was very ancient among the Romans, and frequently used to sooth their turbulent humour. At first the number of those to whom this largess was given was indeterminate, till Augustus fixed it at 200,000.

FRUMENTIUS, *ST*, the first who preached the gospel in Ethiopia, except the eunuch who was converted by St Philip. (Acts, viii. 27.) Frumentius was ordained bishop of Ethiopia, by St Athanasius, A. D. 331. See **ETHIOPIA**, § 15.

* **FRUMENTY**. *n. s.* [from *frumentum*, corn, Lat.] Food made of wheat boiled in milk.

* **To FRUMP**. *v. a.* To mock; to browbeat. *Skinner. Ainsw.*

(1.) * **FRUSH**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A sort of tender horn that grows in the middle of the sole, and at some distance from the toe: it divides into two branches, running towards the heel, in the form of a fork. *Farrier's Diſt.*

(2.) **FRUSH**. See **FARRIERY**, Part V, Sect. IX.

* **To FRUSH**. *v. a.* [from *froisser*, French.] To break, bruise, or crush. *Hanmer.*—

I like thy armour well;

I'll *frush* it, and unlock the rivets all,

But I'll be master of it. *Shakesp. Troil. & Cress.*

FRUSTRANEA POLYGAMIA. See **BOTANY**, § 194.

* **FRUSTRANEOUS**. *adj.* [from *frustra*, Latin.] Vain; useless; unprofitable; without advantage.—Their attempts being so *frustraneous*, and the demonstrations to the contrary so perspicuous, it is a marvel that any man should be zealously affected in a cause that has neither truth nor any honest usefulness in it. *More.*—He timely withdraws his *frustraneous* baffled kindnesses, and sees the folly of endeavouring to stroke a tyger into a lamb, or to court an Ethiopian out of his colour. *South.*

* **FRUSTRATE**. *participial adj.* [from the

verb.]

1. Vain; ineffectual; useless able.—

He is drown'd

Whom thus we stray to find, and the
Our *frustrate* search on land. *S.*

—The ruler of the province of Jude order of Julian buſied in the re-edifying temple, flaming balls of fire iſſuing near dation, and oft consuming the workmen enterprize *frustrate*. *Raleigh's Hiſt.*—

All at once employ their thronging
But out of order thrown, in air they
And multitude makes *frustrate* the d

Dry.

2. Null; void.—Few things are so restrained one end or purpose, that, the same being they should forthwith utterly become *Hooker.*

* **To FRUSTRATE**. *v. a.* [from *frustror*, Lat. Fr.] 1. To defeat; to disappoint; to It is an axiom of nature, that natural not utterly be *frustrate*. *Hooker.*—

I survive,

To mock the expectations of the world
To *frustrate* prophecies, and to raze
Rotten opinion. *Shakeſp.*

Stern look'd the fiend, as *frustrate*
Not half ſuffic'd, and greedy yet to l

Not more almighty to resist our might
Than wise to *frustrate* all our plots and

2. To make null; to nullify.—The actment, which gave all his lands to the church cut off and *frustrate* all such conveyances

Now thou haſt aveng'd

Supplanted Adam; and by vanquishing
Temptation, haſt regain'd loſt paradice
And *frustrated* the conquest fraudulent

—The peculiar strength of the motive self perhaps contribute to *frustrate* the cause it, rendering it liable to be suspected whom it is addressed. *Atterbury.*

* **FRUSTRATION**. *n. s.* [from *frustror*, from *frustrate*.] Disappointment; it states notoriously irreligious, a secret and able power countermands their deepest splits their counsels, and smites their policies with *frustration*. with a curse. *South.*

* **FRUSTRATIVE**. *adj.* [from *frustror*, from *frustrate*.] Disappointing. *Ainsw.*

* **FRUSTRATORY**. *adj.* [from *frustror*, from *frustrate*.] That which makes any procedure void which vacates any former process.—But strains this to a *frustratory* appeal. *Ainsw.*

(1.) * **FRUSTUM**. *n. s.* [Latin.] A part cut off from a regular figure. A term of science

(II.) **FRUSTUM**, in mathematics, a part of a solid body separated from the rest. *Th.*

1. **The FRUSTUM OF A CONE** is the part that remains when the top is cut off by a plane parallel to the base; and is otherwise called *truncated cone*.

2. **The FRUSTUM OF A GLOBE**, or of any part thereof cut off by a plane, the contents of which may be found by multiplying the sum of the squares of the radii of the base and top, and the square of the height, by three times the square of the semidiameter of the base, and dividing the product by eight.

sum by the height, and this product multiplied by 6 gives the solidity of the frustum. **FRUSTUM OF A PYRAMID** is what remains when the top is cut off by a plane parallel

FRAX, a SHRUB. Shrubs, according to Linnaeus, make a branch of the 7th family in the kingdom; and are distinguished from trees in that they come up without buds. But this distinction is not universal, though it be general with regard to those of Europe. Nature made no absolute distinction between trees and shrubs. *Frutex*, in its general acceptation, is a plant whose trunk is perennial, gemmiferous, dividing and subdividing into a number of branches. In short, it is the epitome of a tree, exemplified in the rose-bush.

FRIGEN, a town and ci-devant bailiwick of the Helvetic republic, in the late canton of Fribourg, S. of Spietz, and 30 SE. of Fribourg.

FRUOR, a name of Venus, [from *fruo*, to enjoy,] a name of Venus.

FRYSK, n. f. [from *free*, foam, Danish. *Skin*.] The swarm of little fishes just produced from the spawn.—

—Come to us, but as love draws;
—Shows us, and never chaws;
—As by chain'd shot, whole ranks do
—Die;
—A tyrant pike, and we the fry. *Donne*.
—With the sounds and seas, each creek
—A bay,

—A innumerable swarm and shoals
—That with their fins and shining scales
—Under the green wave in sculls, that oft
—Come and go mid sea. *Milton's Par. Lost*.

—The elder had the hap to draw up a very little
—Among the fry. *L'Estrange*.—

—Behind some promontory lie
—The leviathans, t' attend their prey;
—There are no chace, but swallow in the fry,
—Who'er their gaping jaws mistake the way.

—*Dryden*.
—A swarm of animals; or young people in
—A fry.—Out of the fry of those rakehell horse-
—Flinging up in knavery and villany, are their
—Usually supplied and maintained. *Spenser*.—

—A fry before the fry of children young,
—When sports and childish mirth did play,
—The maidens sounding timbrels sung.

—*Fairy Queen*.

—I see no constellations there,
—Nor goat, nor bull, nor bear;
—Nor that monstrous fry
—That rock the sky. *Oldham*.

—A fry must be held at a distance, and
—Under the discipline of contempt. *Collier*.

FRY, n. f. A kind of sieve.—He dresseth
—The malt, by running it through a fan
—*Butcher's Highway*.

FRY, n. f. [from the verb.] A dish of
—Fry.

FRY, v. a. [from *frigo*, Lat. *frigo*, Welsh;
—To dress food by roasting it in a
—Fire.

—*Past I.*

(2.) * **To Fry, v. n.** 1. To be roasted in a pan
—on the fire. 2. To suffer the action of fire.—

—So when with crackling flames a cauldron
—*fries,*

The bubbling waters from the bottom rise;
—Above the brims they force their fiery way,
—Black vapours climb aloft, and cloud the day.

—*Dryden's Æn.*

3. To melt with heat.—

—Spices and gums about them melting fry,
—And, phoenix like, in that rich nest they die.

—*Waller*.

4. To be agitated like liquor in the pan on the fire.
—Oil of sweet almonds, newly drawn with sugar,
—and a little spice, spread upon bread toasted, is
—an excellent nourisher; but then, to keep the oil
—from frying in the stomach, drink mild beer after
—it. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

—Where no ford he finds, no water fries,
—Nor billows with unequal murmurs roar,
—But smoothly slide along, and swell the shore,
—That course he steer'd. *Dryden's Æn.*

FRYBERG, a town of Bohemia, in the circle
—of Prachatz, 9 miles W. of Rosenberg.

* **FRYINGPAN, n. f.** [from *fry* and *pan*.] The ves-
—sel in which meat is roasted on the fire.—If I pass
—by the sea, I may chance to fall from the frying-
—pan into the fire. *Hoguel's Voc. For.*—We under-
—stand by our of the fryingpan into the fire, that
—things go from bad to worse. *L'Estrange*—A free-
—man of London has the privilege of disturbing a
—whole street with the twanking of a brass kettle,
—or a fryingpan. *Spectator*.

FRY'S BAY, a bay on the SW. coast of Antigua.

(1.) **FRYTH, John,** a martyr to the Protestant
—religion, under Henry VIII. He was the son of
—an innkeeper at Seven-oaks in Kent; and educa-
—ted in the king's College, Cambridge, where he
—took the degree of B. A. Thence he removed to
—Oxford, and was made a junior canon of Wolfey's
—college. He there became acquainted with Wil-
—liam Tyndale, a zealous Lutheran, who converted
—him to Lutheranism. Avowing his opinions pub-
—licly, he was apprehended, examined, and con-
—fined to his college. At length having obtained
—his liberty, in 1528, he went over to Germany,
—where he continued about two years, and then
—returned to England. At last he was taken up at
—Reading as a vagrant, and set in the stocks, where
—he remained till he was nearly expiring for want
—of sustenance. He was at length relieved by the
—humanity of Leonard Cox, a schoolmaster, who
—procured his enlargement, and supplied his wants.
—He then set out for London, where he began to
—make proselytes, but was apprehended by order
—of Sir Thomas More, and sent prisoner to the
—Tower. Refusing to recant, he was burnt in
—Smithfield, on the 4th July 1533. He left several
—works, which were printed in folio, in 1573.

(2.) **FRYTH, a village in Middlesex,** between
—Barnet and Mill hill.

FUAGE, n. f. in old English writers, a tax of
—12d. for every fire, levied in the time of Edw. III.

* **FUB, n. f.** A plump chubby boy. *Shakspeare*.

* **To FUB, v. a.** To put off; to delay by false
—pretences; to cheat. It is generally written *fo*.
—See *FOS*.—A hundred mark is a long loan for a

poor lone woman to bear? and I have born, and born, and born, and have been *subb'd* off and *subb'd* off from this day to that day, that it is a shame to be thought on. *Shakesp. Henry IV.*

* FUCATED. *adj.* [*fucatus*, Latin.] 1. Painted; disguised with paint. 2. Disguised by false show.

FUCECCHIO, a town of Italy, in Tuscany, 18 miles SSW. of Pistoia.

FUCHSWINKE, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

(1.) FUCINUS, in ancient mythology, the god of the lake is named. His temple stood on its banks.

(2.) FUCINUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Italy in the country of the Marsh, now called CELANO, from a cognominal citadel, in the S. of Abruzzo Ultra. According to the testimony of ancient authors, it was subject to extraordinary risings and decreasings. The actual circumference is 47 miles: the breadth in the widest part is 10, in the narrowest 4; its depth 12 feet upon an average. But all these have varied prodigiously. Two miles up the plain, behind Avezzano, the fragments of boats, shells, and other marks of its ancient extent, have been casually discovered: and, on the other hand, there are people who remember when it did not flow nearer than within two miles of Avezzano. An immense tract of excellent land is lost at every increase of its level. All round this noble piece of water rises a circle of grand mountains, some of them the highest in Italy, except the Alps, and many of them covered with snow. At the foot of them are numerous villages with rich and well cultivated farms. The environs of the lake, Mr Swinburn describes as all well inclosed, and the sides of the hills as covered with fine woods; its waters abound with fish of various kinds, and thither repair at stated seasons innumerable flights of wild fowls. As the swelling of the lake was attended with incredible damage, the Mariti had often petitioned the senate to drain it; Julius Cæsar would have attempted it, had he lived longer. His successors were averse to the project, until Claudius, who delighted in expensive difficult enterprises, undertook it. During the space of 11 years he employed 50,000 men in digging a passage through the mountain; and when every thing was ready for letting off the water, exhibited a superb naval spectacle on the lake. A great number of condemned criminals were obliged to act the parts of Rhodians and Sicilians in separate fleets; to engage in earnest, and to destroy one another, for the entertainment of the court and the multitude of spectators that covered the hills. A line of well armed vessels and rafts loaded with soldiers surrounded the scene of action, to prevent any of the wretches from escaping; but it was with great difficulty and many threats that they could be brought to obey. When this savage diversion was ended, the operations for opening the outlet commenced, and the emperor was very near being swept away and drowned, by the sudden rushing of the water. However, either through the ignorance or negligence of the engineers, the work did not answer as was expected, and Claudius did not live long enough to have the fault amended. Nero abandoned the scheme through envy. Adrian is said to have let off the

waters of the Fucinus; but none now except thro' hidden channels formed by nature are probably subject to be obstructed, occasion a superabundance of water until some unknown cause remove the obstruction and again give free passage. Sir William ton, who visited the Fucinus in 1785, is the most beautiful lake he ever saw would be complete if the neighbouring rivers were better wooded. It furnishes abundance of fish, though not of the best quality. A few large trouts, with many tenches and dace. In the shallow water on the side of the lake, he saw thousands of water frogs feeding and preying upon a little kind of snail or thornbacks, but much better armed than their defensive weapons seemed to avail little against such ravenous foes. Claudius let he describes as still entire, though filled with earth and rubbish in many parts. He filled it with torches as far as he could. It was a covered canal, three miles long, and part through hard rock; and other parts supported by mason work, with wells to give light. He is said to have let off the waters of the lake. Our author is of opinion, that, if the canal were cleared and repaired, it would still answer its purpose, and thereby restore a great deal of land fit for cultivation.

(1.) * FUCUS. *n. s.* [Latin.] Paint for women. Not now in use —

Women chat

Of *fucus* this, and *fucus* that. B. — Those who paint for debauchery show the *fucus* pulled off, and the coarseness undiscovered. *Collier.*

(II.) FUCUS, in antiquity, a name given to certain dyes and paints; particularly to a plant used to dye woollens and linens of a blue. The dye, says Theophrastus, was useful, but not lasting; for it soon began to fade and in time went wholly off. The women used something called *fucus*, to stain the red; and many have supposed, from the word expressing both, that the same was used on both occasions. But this inquiry, proves not to be the case. The word called every thing *φαειν* that would stain the flesh. But this peculiar substance, the women to paint their cheeks, was distinguished from the others by the name of *κρίν* the more correct writers, from *κρίνον*, a lily, was indeed a root brought from Syria into Italy. The Latins, in imitation of the Greek called this root *radicula*; and Pliny erroneously founds the plant with the *radix liliaria*, the lily roots. The name *fucus* was in the such an universal name for paint, that the Greeks and Romans had a *fucus metallicus*, which was used for painting the neck and arms, after which they used the *purpura*, or of the *rizion* to give the colour to the face. In after-times they also used a *fucus* or the purpose, prepared of the *Crocus*, orange silver chalk, and some of the rich purple were in use at that time: and that seems to have been very little different from our rouge-pour used on like occasions.

Fucus, in botany, a genus of the morder of alga, belonging to the cryptogamous plants. All the species afford a pure alkaline salt. The most remarkable is the following.

Fucus CILIATUS, the ciliated or ligulated fucus, is found on the shores of Iona and other parts; it is not common. The colour is red, the substance membranous and pellucid, without veins; the ordinary height of the whole is about 4 or 5 inches. It is variable in its appearance according to the different stages of its growth. It is eaten by the Scots and Irish people, with dill. See No 5.

Fucus ESCULENTUS, the eatable fucus, or kelp, commonly called tangle in Scotland, is a native of the British shores. It is about 4 feet long, and 7 or 8 inches thick; sometimes found 3 yards or more in length and a foot in width. Small specimens are about 1 foot long, and two inches broad. The substance is thin, membranaceous, and pellucid, green or olive. The root consists of cartilaginous fibres. The stalk is about 1 foot long and half an inch wide, nearly square, situated in the middle between the root and the leaf, with 10 or 12 pairs of thick, jointed, oval obtuse, foliaceous ligaments, about 2 inches long, and crowded together. The leaf is of an oval lanceolate, or long elliptic shape and undivided, waved on the edges, and is ribbed in the middle from bottom to top, a rib running through its whole length, lying out on both sides of the leaf. It is eaten by the N. both by men and cattle. Its proper season is Sept. when it is in perfection. The root part is rejected, and the stalk only is used. It is recommended in the disorder called dyspepsia to strengthen the stomach, and restore the

Fucus FILUM, the thread fucus, or sea-maid, is found on the sea rocks, waving under the long strings, on many parts of the coast. The substance is opaque and cartilaginous, but eaten. The colour, when recent, is a dull olive; when dry, fuscous, or nearly black; and exposed for some time on the shores to wind and air, it becomes yellow, straw colour, &c. It consists only of a simple, naked, cylindrical stalk, 3 or 4 yards long, or less, from the size of a large adder's tail to that of a thick whip cord; smallest at the summit; smooth on the outside, full of mucous matter; often twisted, and always intercepted by transverse diaphragms, visible when the stalk is held between the eye and the light. The divisions have not yet been discovered; but the transverse septa in its structure, it is reasonable to suppose this plant to belong rather to the class of conserva than that of fucus. The stalk is eaten when half dry, and twisted, and is considered a degree of strength and health, that it is said, the Highlanders use them for the same intentions as Indian grass.

Fucus GIGANTEUS, the gigantic fucus, is found in the Straits of Le Maire; and grows on the ground, which in those countries is distant from sand or ouze by the enormous

length of the sea weeds that grow upon it. The stalks are 4 feet long, and some of the stalks, though not thicker than a man's thumb, are 12 in. Sir Joseph Banks and Dr Sanderford found some of them which were 84 feet long, and as they made a very acute angle with the bottom, they were thought to be at least one half longer.

Fucus PALMARIS, the palmated or forest fucus, commonly called *dill* or *dillie*, grows plentifully on our sea coasts, and is used. Its substance is membranaceous, thin, and pellucid; the colour red, sometimes green with a little mixture of red; its length generally about 5 or 6 inches, but varies from 3 to 12. It is fan shaped, or gradually ciliated from the base upwards. Its divisions are extremely various. The inhabitants both of Scotland and England take pleasure in eating this plant; and women of weak habits often recover an appetite by eating it raw. The inhabitants of the Archipelago also are fond of it, as we learn from Storer. They sometimes eat it raw, but esteem it most when added to ragouts, omelets, &c. to which it gives a red colour; and, dissolving, renders them thick and gelatinous. In the Isle of Skye, it is sometimes used in fevers to promote a sweat, being boiled in water with butter. In this manner it also frequently purges. The dried leaves infused in water, exhale the scent of violets.

Fucus PINNATIFIDUS, the jagged fucus, or pepper dillie, is frequent on sea rocks which are covered by the tides, both on the E. and W. coasts. It is of a yellow olive-colour, often tinged with red. The substance is cartilaginous, but tender and transparent; the height about 2 or 3 inches. This species has a hot taste in the mouth, and is therefore called *pepper dillie*, in this country. It is often eaten as a salad, like the preceding.

Fucus PLICATUS, the matted or Indian grass fucus grows on the sea shores in many places of Scotland and England. It is generally about 3 or 4, sometimes 6 inches long. Its colour, after being exposed to the sun and air, is yellowish, or ashy; its substance pellucid, tough, and horny, so as to bear a strong resemblance to what the anglers call *Indian grass*, that is, the tendrils issuing from the ovary of the daisy.

Fucus PECTINATUS, the peckin' fucus, is frequent on the sea rocks, and in basins of water left by the retreats of the tides. Its natural colour is a most beautiful bright red or purple, but is often variegated with white or yellow. Its substance is cartilaginous, but extremely thin, delicate and transparent; its height commonly about 3 or 4 inches. The stalk is compressed, about half a line in diameter, erect, but waved in its growth, and divided almost from the base into many wide expanded branches. These primary branches are very long, alternate, exactly like the stalk, and subdivided into alternate secondary branches, which are again frequently compounded in the same manner, and these divisions decorated with subulated teeth, growing in alternate rows, curiously pectinated or toothed on the upper side like a comb, the smallest of these teeth scarcely visible to the naked eye. The modifications are minute spherical capsules, or smooth dark-red globules, scattered without order on the sides of the branches;

ches; generally sessile, but some few of them supported on short peduncles. This species, on account of its elegant colours and fine divisions, is the species most admired by those who are fond of pictures and mimic landscapes, composed of marine vegetables.

9. *FUCUS PROLIFER*, the proliferous fucus, is found on the shores of the western coast, adhering to shells and stones. The colour is red; the substance membranaceous, but tough, and somewhat cartilaginous, without rib or nerve, though thicker in the middle, than at the edges. Its whole length is about 4 or 5 inches, the breadth of each leaf about a quarter of an inch. The growth of this fucus, when examined with attention, appears to be extremely singular and wonderful. It takes its origin either from a simple, entire, narrow, elliptic leaf, about an inch and a half long; or from a dilated forked one, of the same length. Near the extremity of the elliptic leaf, or the points of the forked one (but out of the surface, and not the edge), arises one or more elliptic forked leaves, which produce other similar ones, in the same manner, near the summits; and so on continually one or more leaves from the ends of each other, in a proliferous and dichotomous order, to the top of the plant; which in the manner of its growth much resembles the cactus opuntia, or flat-leaved Indian fig. Sometimes 2 or 3 leaves, or more, grow out of the middle of the disc of another leaf; but this is not the common order of their growth. The fructifications are red, spherical, rough warts, less than the smallest pin's head, scattered without order on the surface of the leaves. These warts, when highly magnified, appear to be the curled rudiments of young leaves; which in due time either drop off and form new plants, or continue on and germinate upon the parent. The plant is very much infested with the *flustra pilosa*, the *mandrepore verucaria*, and other corallines, which make it appear as if covered with white scabs.

10. *FUCUS SACCHARINUS*, the sweet fucus or sea belt, is very common on the sea coast. Its substance is cartilaginous and leathern; and the leaf is quite ribless. By these characters it is distinguished from the *FUCULENTUS*, (See N^o 2.) to which it is nearly allied. It consists only of one simple, linear, elliptic leaf, of a tawny green colour, about 5 feet long, and 3 inches wide in its full-grown state; but varies to exceedingly as to be found from a foot to 4 yards in length. The ordinary length of the stalk is two inches, but it varies even to a foot. The root is composed of branched fibres, which adhere to the stones like claws. This plant is often infested with the *fertularia ciliata*. The inhabitants of Iceland make a kind of pottage of it; boiling it in milk, and eating it with a spoon. They also soak it in fresh water, dry it in the sun, and then lay it up in wooden vessels, where it is soon covered with a white efflorescence of sea salt, which has a sweet taste like sugar. This they eat with butter; but if taken in too great a quantity, the salt is apt to irritate the bowels and bring on a purging. Their cattle feed and get fat upon this plant, both in its recent and dry state; but their flesh acquires a

bad flavour. It is sometimes eaten by the people on the coast of England, boiled as a pot-herb.

11. *FUCUS SERRATUS*, the serrated fucus, sea wrack, is frequent at all seasons upon the rocks at low water mark, but produces its fruit in July and August. It consists of a flat, radiate and dichotomous leaf, about two feet long; branches half an inch wide, serrated on the edges with dents of unequal size, and at unequal distances, having a flat stalk or rib divided like the branches, and running in the middle of it through all its ramifications. A small species of coralline, called by Linnæus, *Sertularia pumila*, frequently grows along the leaf. This species affords a much smaller quantity of alkaline salt than most others, the ashes yielding only 3 of fixed salt. The Dutch cover their crabs and lobsters with this fucus to keep them alive and moist; and prefer it to any other, as being destitute of those mucous vesicles with which some of the rest abound, which would sooner ferment and become putrid.

12. *FUCUS VESICULOSUS*, the bladder fucus, common sea wrack, or sea ware, grows in great abundance on the sea rocks about low water mark, producing its fructifications in July and August. It has the same habit, colour, and substance as the foregoing, (N^o 11); but the edges of the leaves have no serratures, being quite entire; in the middle or surface are immersed hollow, spherical, or oval air-bladders, hairy within, growing generally in pairs, but often single in the angles of the branches, which are probably destined to buoy up the plant in the water; and on the extreme segments of the leaves, appear tumid vesicles about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch long, sometimes oval and in pairs, sometimes single and bifid, with a clear viscid mucus interspersed with downy hairs.—This species is an excellent manure for land; for which purpose it is often applied in the maritime parts of Scotland and other countries. In the islands of Jura and Skye it serves as a winter food for cattle, which regularly come down to the shores at the recess of the tides to seek it. And sometimes even the stags, after a storm, descend from the mountains to the sea-shores to feed upon it. Linnæus informs us, that the inhabitants of Gotland boil it in water and mixing a little coarse meal or flour, feed the hogs with it; for which reason they call the plant *svintang*. And in Seana, he says, the poor people cover their cottages with it, and sometimes use it for fuel. In Jura, and some other of the Hebrides, the inhabitants dry their cheeses without salt, by covering them with the ashes of this plant; which abounds with such a quantity of salts, that from 5 oz. of the ashes, may be procured $2\frac{1}{2}$ of fixed alkaline salts. But the most beneficial use, to which the fucus vesiculosus is applied, is in making pot-ash, or KELP, a ware much practised in our Western Isles. There is a great difference in the goodness and price of this commodity, and much care and skill required in properly making it. That is esteemed the best which is hardest, finest grained, and free from sand or earth. The price of kelp in Jura is 10s. per ton, and about 40 or 50 tons are exported annually from that island. So great a value is set upon this plant by the inhabitants, that the

its of rocks and huge stones into the case the growth of it. Its medical virtues much celebrated by Dr Ruffel, in *his opinion concerning the use of Sea water in of the Glands*. He found the saponaceous, or mucus, in the vesicles of this plant, an excellent resolvent, extremely serviceable in all scorbutic and scrofulous swellings. He recommends the patient to pour with these vesicles bruised in his ear the mucus has thoroughly penetrated the earwards to wash with sea water. Or, 1 lb. of the tumid vesicles, in July, are full of mucus, and infuse them in sea-water, in a glass vessel, for 15 days, the liquor will have acquired nearly the consistence of honey. Then strain it off through a cloth, and rub this liquor 3 or 4 times a day on hard scrofulous swellings, washing afterwards with sea water, and nothing so efficacious to disperse them. Even the breasts, in women, have been cured by this treatment. By calcining in the open air, he made a very black powder, which he called *vegetable etheops*; a powder used as a resolvent and disobstruction, recommended also as an excellent demulcent to correct the scorbutic laxity of the gums, and the foulness of the teeth.

FUDDLE, *v. a.* [Of unknown etymology.] To make drunk.—

The table floating round,
The men faithless to the *fuddled* feet.

Thomson.

FUDDLE, *v. n.* To drink to excess.—
Whoring and *fuddling* on still. *L'Ecl.*
a small mountainous island of Scotland N. of BARRAY.

FUGO, or **FOGO**, one of the Cape de Verde Islands, in the Atlantic, so named from its being called also St PHILIP, from its having been discovered on St Philip's day. It is 15 miles long and is much higher than any of the islands at sea, to be one single mountain, the sides there are deep valleys. There is a fire at the top which burns continually, and is seen a great way off at sea. It vomits out of fire and smoke, and throws out of its top rocks to a vast height. Sometimes melted lava run down the sides. The first who inhabited it, brought negroes, and a stock of cows, horses, and their descendants are not now distinguishable from the negroes, the chief inhabitants are blacks, and of the Romish religion. *W. Lat.* 15. 10. N.

FOGO, or **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, a large island situated from the S. extremity of America, in the straits of Magellan. (See COOK, N° 1.) It consists of a chain of stupendous mountains, some of which are volcanoes, covered with eternal snow; notwithstanding which the natives go naked, and paint their bodies, and are naturally fair. Those on the S. side are barbarous and treacherous, but those on the N. perfectly simple and harmless. Dr Solander, and others, landed in 1768, which, though the summer

time of the island, was so cold, that two of their company perished by sleeping one night on it. The coast abounds with harbours. *Lon.* from 51. 20. to 58. W. *Lat.* from 52½. to 55. 35. S.

* **FUEILLEMORTE**, *n. f.* [French.] Corruptly pronounced and written *philomote*.—*Fueillemorte* colour signifies the colour of withered leaves in Autumn.

* **FUEL**, *n. f.* [from *feu*, fire, French.] The matter or aliment of fire.—This shall be with burning and *fuel* of fire. *Is.* ix. 5.—

This spark will prove a raging fire,
If wind and *fuel* be brought to feed it with.

Shakspeare. Henry VI.

Mov'd by my charms, with them your love
may cease;

And as the *fuel* sinks, the flame decrease. *Prior*

* **TO FUEL**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To feed fire with combustible matter.—

And yet she cannot waste by this,
Nor long endure this torturing wrong;

For more corruption needful is,

To *fuel* such a fever long

Donne.

Never, alas! the dreadful name

That *fuels* the infernal flame.

Corley.

The *fuel*'d chimney blazes wide.

Thomson's Aut.

2. To store with firing.—Some are plainly economical, as that the tent be well watered, and well *fuelled*. *Watts's Arith.*

FUELOE, one of the FARO islands.

FUEN, a river of China, which runs into the Hoang, in the province of Chanfi.

FUENCALIANTE, a town of Spain in Old Castile, near the Xalon, 9 miles N. of Sigüenza.

FUENHO, a river of China in Chanfi.

FUENHUA, a city of China, in the province of PEICHILI, celebrated for its extent and the number of its inhabitants, as well as for the beauty of its streets and triumphal arches. It is situated near the great wall, amidst mountains; and has under its jurisdiction 2 cities of the 2d, and 8 of the 3d class, and a great number of fortresses, which bar the entrance of China against the Tartars.

FUENSALIDA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 18 miles NNW. of Toledo.

FUEN-TCHEOU, or **FUEN-TCHEOU-FOU**, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the prov. of Chanfi, on the Fuen, famous for its hot baths and springs. It is 280 miles SW. of Pekin. *Lon.* 129. 6. E. of Ferro. *Lat.* 37. 20. N.

(1.) **FUENTE**, a town of Spain in the prov. of Asturia, 20 miles SW. of Santillane.

(2.) **FUENTE DE LA PIEDRA**, a village of Spain, in Granada, 6 miles from Antequiera, famous for its medicinal spring.

(3.) **FUENTE DEL SAHUCO**, or **SAHURRO**, a town of Spain, in Leon, 6 miles from Salamanca.

(4.) **FUENTE DUEGNA**, a town of New Castile, on the Tagus, 24 miles SE. of Madrid.

(5.) **FUENTE EL OLMO**, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, between Segovia and Aranda.

(6.) **FUENTE GINALDO**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, 16 miles NW. of Coria. It was plundered by the Portuguese, in 1734.

(7.) **FUENTE OVEJUNA**, a town of Spain, in Cordova, 32 miles NW. of Cordova.

FUEN-

FUENTELESO, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 32 miles N. of Avila.

(1, 2.) **FUENTES**, two towns of Spain; 1. in Arragon, on the Ebro, 20 miles SSE. of Saragossa: 2. in Leon, 13 miles NW. of Palencia.

(3.) **FUENTES DE ONORO**, a town of Spain, in Leon, 13 miles W. of Ciudad Rodrigo.

FUERSBRUNN, a town of Germany, in Austria, 2 miles NE. of Haderstorf.

FUERTEVENTURA, or **FORTAVENTURA**, one of the Canary islands, consisting of two peninsulas, joined by an isthmus 12 miles broad. It is 50 miles long according to Mr Cruttwell, but 65 according to Dr Brookes, and from 8 to 24 broad. The soil is fertile, producing wheat, barley, mastic, orchel, dates, olives, and various other fruits; particularly a species of fig tree, that yields a medicinal pulp as white as milk. It abounds in cattle and goats: 50,000 kids being bred annually. Lon. 14. 32 W. Lat. 28. 4. N.

FUERTY, a town of Ireland, in Roscommon.

FUSSEN, or **FUSSEN**, a town of Suabia, in the bishopric of Augsburg, on the Lech. In 1745, peace was settled here between Austria and Bavaria. It is 47 miles E. of Augsburg, and 65 E. of Constance.

FUFETIUS. See **METIUS SUFFETIUS**.

* **FUGACIOUS**. *adj.* [*fugax, fugacis*, Latin.] Volatile.

* **FUGACIOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [*fugax*, Latin.] Volatility; the quality of flying away.

* **FUGACITY**. *n. f.* [*fugax*, Latin.] 1. Volatility; quality of flying away.—Spirits and salts, which, by their *fugacity*, colour, smell, taste, and divers experiments that I purposely made to examine them, were like the salt and spirit of urine and foot. *Boyle*. 2. Uncertainty; instability.

FUGALIA, in Roman antiquity, a feast supposed by some to be the same with the **REGIVRUM**, held on the 24th of February, in memory of the expulsion of the kings, and the abolition of monarchy. Others think, that the *fugalia* was the same with *poplifugia*, or the feast of **FUGIA**, the goddess of joy, occasioned by the rout of an enemy; which was the reason the people abandoned themselves to riot and debauchery.

FUGAS, a river of Africa, which runs into the Indian ocean, near Juba, on the coast of Zanguebar.

FUGGER, Huldric, a liberal encourager of learning, born at Augsburg, in 1526, and descended of an illustrious family, though originally sprung from a weaver. He was chamberlain to Pope Paul III. but afterwards turned Protestant. He spent large sums in purchasing ancient MSS. and getting them printed by the celebrated Henry Stephens. His relations therefore raised an action against him, and got him declared incapable of managing his own affairs. "Thus (says Dr Watkins) what we should call wisdom was decreed by a German court a proof of idiotism." He died at Heidelberg, in 1584, and left his extensive library to the elector Palatine, with a fund to support six poor scholars.

* **FUGH**. *interj.* [perhaps from *feh*.] An expression of abhorrence. Commonly *feh*.—A very filthy fellow: how odiously he smells of his coun-

try garlick! *fugh*, how he stinks of Sp *Don Seb*.

(1.) * **FUGITIVE**. *adj.* [*fugitif*, *Fr* *tivus*, Latin.] 1. Not tenable; not to be detained.—Our idea of infinity is a *fugitive* idea, still in a boundless progress, can stop no where. *Locke*.—

Happiness, object of that waking
Which we call life, mistaking: *fugu*
Of my pursuing verse, ideal shade,

Notional good, by fancy only made
2. Unsteady; unstable; not durable.

apt to fly away.—The more tender a
parts, the leaves, of many of the most
getables, fall off for want of the support
neath: those only which are more tena-
king a shift to subsist without such rec-
ward's Nat. Hist. 4. Flying; running
ger.—

Whilst yet with Parthian blood t
warm,

The *fugitive* Parthians follow.

The Trojan chief

Thrice *fugitive* about Troy wall.

5. Flying from duty; falling off.—Can
daughter enjoy herself, while her pa-
tears? *Clarissa*. 6. Wandering; run-
gabond.—The most malicious surmise
tenanced by a libellous pamphlet of
physician. *Wotton*.

(2.) * **FUGITIVE**. *n. f.* [from the *ad*]
One who runs from his station or duty:
ried men are best friends, best master
vants, but not always best subjects;
light to run away, and almost all *fug*-
that condition. *Bacon*.—

Back to thy punishment

False *fugitive*! and to thy speed ad-
Just with a whip of scorpions I pur-
Thy ling'ring. *Milton*

We understand by some *fugitives*
commanded

The generals to return with victory.
A shameful death, *Dent*

7. One who takes shelter under arms
from punishment.—Too many, being
inheritance, are fled beyond the seas,
live under princes which are her majes-
ty's enemies; and convert and are
with other traitors and *fugitives* the
Spanker on Ireland.—Your royal high-
great and too just, either to want or to
homage of rebellious *fugitives*. *Dryden*
hard to be caught or detained.—

What mule but his can Nature's

Or catch that airy *fugitive*, call'd w

(3.) **FUGITIVE PIECES**, in literature
poems, or other short compositions,
newspapers, magazines, or the like per-
lections; or printed on loose sheets or
so called, because easily lost and soon

* **FUGITIVENESS**. *n. f.* [from *fi*]
Volatility; fugacity.—That divers salt
upon the analysis of many concretes, is
lative, is plain from the *fugitiveness* of
barthorn attending in distillation. *B*
stability; uncertainty.

FUGUE. *n. f.* [French; from *fuga*, Lat.]
, some point consisting of 4, 5, 6, or
number of notes begun by some one
, and then seconded by a 3d, 4th, 5th,
part, if the composition consists of so
beating the same, or such like notes, to
veral parts follow, or come in one after
the same manner, the leading parts still
re those that follow. *Harris*.—The re-
figures have an agreement with the figures
k of repetition and traduction. *Bacon*.
—The skilful organist plies his grave and
icant in lofty *fugues*. *Milt. on Educ.*—

His volant touch
through all proportions, low and high,
did purlu'd transverse the resonant *fugue*.
Milton.

has a race of heroes fill'd the stage,
not by note, and through the gamut rage;
and airs express their martial fire,

in trills, and in a *fugue* expire. *Addis.*
TORE is a piece of music sometimes long-
 sometimes shorter, in which, agreeable to
 harmony and modulation, the composer
 affects : or, in other words, what expresses
 great thought or sentiment of the piece.

it to pass successively and alternately part to another. These are the principles of the fugue; of which some are peculiar; and others common to it with what we call *imitation*. 1. The subject proceeds from the tonic to the dominant, or from the tonic to the tonic, in rising or descending. The fugue finds its response in the part immediately following that which commenced. 2. The response ought to resume the subject in the 2d, 3d, 4th or 5th above or below the key, rise it as exactly as the laws of harmony require; proceeding from the dominant to the tonic, or from the tonic to the dominant, as the subject is introduced from the tonic to the dominant, and moving in a contrary direction when the subject is introduced from the dominant to the tonic. One part may likewise repeat the same subject in the octave or unison ascending; but in that case, it is a repetition rather than a real response. 3. As the octave is divided into two unequal parts, of which the first has 4 gradations descending from the tonic to the dominant, and the other only three in the ascent from the dominant to the tonic, it renders it necessary to have some real change in the expression of the subject, to make some alterations in the response, so as not quit the cords that are essential to the subject. It is a different case when the command is to alter the modulation; for there the effects of the response itself, when taken in a new key, produces the alteration proper for the new key. 4. The fugue should be planned in such a manner, that the response may commence at the close of the best air, so that both the subject and the other may be in part heard at the same time; that, by this anticipation, the subject may seem to be connected with itself, and that the composer may discover it. It is this which is called a *double fugue*. It is absolute necessity, instead of imposing upon the hearers, the change of key, to transpose from one key to another,

without any other restraint than an accompaniment afterwards formed at pleasure. This deserves at best no better name than what the French call *imitation*. See IMITATION. Besides these rules, which are fundamental, there are others, which, though prescribed by taste alone, are not less essential. Fugues, in general, render music more noisy than agreeable; for this reason they are most agreeable in the chorus. As their chief merit consists in fixing the ear on the principal air or subject, which, for this reason, is made to pass incessantly from part to part, and from mode to mode, the composer ought to exert his care in preserving that air always distinct; or to prevent it from being absorbed in, or confounded with, the other parts. To produce this effect, there are two different ways; one in the movement, which must be incessantly contrasted with itself; so that, if the procedure of the fugue be accelerated, the other parts should be more grave and with protracted notes; or, on the contrary, if the motion of the fugue be slow and solemn, the accompaniments must have more and quicker business. The other method is to extend the harmony, by removing the parts at a greater distance from each other; but the others, too nearly approximated to that which contains the subject, should be confounded with it, and prevent it from being distinguished with sufficient clearness; so that what would be an imperfection any where else, becomes here a beauty. The unity of melody should be preserved: this is the great and general rule, which must frequently be practised by different means. The chords must be chosen, and the intervals, so that one particular sound may produce the chief effect; this can only result from the unity of the melody. It will sometimes be necessary to employ voices and instruments of different kinds, that the parts which ought to prevail may be easily distinguished; this is then done, to the necessity of preserving the unity of the melody. Another object of attention, not less necessary, is the different connections of modulation, which are introduced by the procedure and progress of the fugue, to make all these modulations to correspond at the same time with the parts, to connect the whole in its progress by an exact conformity of motion; lest, if one part be in one mode, and another in another, the general harmony should be in some degree, and for that reason should no longer be able to produce simple effects upon the ear, and the pleasure is thereby diminished; which is another reason for preserving the unity of melody. In a word, in every fugue the connection of modulations and modulations is what a composer has most to care in, and the greatest care is to be taken by him, and a great deal of manner is required, and a great deal of study, one may say, to keep the ear from being tired with the repetition of an exercise, and to make it a delightful task. There are several other kinds of fugues; such as the

(b) Process, Product:

[illegible]

from the tonic to the dominant, or from the dominant to the tonic, the counter fugue ought to be heard in descending from the dominant to the tonic, or from the tonic to the dominant, and *vice versa*. Its other rules are exactly like those of the common fugue.

(5.) FUGUE, PERPETUAL. See CANON, § VIII.

FUHME, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Mulda, 2 miles S. of Ragune.

FUHSANAH, a town of Tunis, 110 miles W. of Tunis.

FUHSE, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Allier, near Zell.

FUICHT, or WALDFUCHT, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, 3 miles E. of Susteren.

FUIDENTALL, a town of Silesia, taken by Frederick the Great, in 1741 and 1744.

FUILLEC, a town of France, in the dept. of the Lower Seine, 9 miles W. of Gournay.

FULA. See FOULA and THULE.

FULBECK, a small town in Lincolnshire.

FULBROOK, the name of 4 English villages: 1. in Bucks, SE. of Claydon: 2. in Lincolnshire, near Normanton: 3. in Oxford, N. of Burford: 4. near Warwick, *on the Avon*.

* FULCIMENT. *n. s.* [*fulcimen, fulcimentum*, Lat.] That on which a body rests, which acts or is acted upon at each end, as a balance or a lever. —The power that equiponderates with any weight must have the same proportion unto it, as there is betwixt their several distances from the center or *fulciment*. *Wilkins*.

(1.) FULCRUM, in mechanics, the prop or support by which a lever is sustained.

(2.) FULCRUM, in botany. See BOTANY, *Index*.

(1.) FULDA, or FULDE, an episcopal principality of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, bounded on the N. by Hesse cassel, E. by Henneberg, S. by Wurzburg, and W. by Isenburg and Hesse. It is 40 miles long, and from 7 to 25 broad; and is full of woods, mountains, medicinal springs, and rich arable lands. It was only erected into a bishopric, in 1752, by Boniface XIV.

(2.) FULDA, a river in the above bishopric, (N^o 1.) which passes by the town, (N^o 3.) and joining the Werra at Minden, they form the WESER.

(3.) FULDA, or } the capital of the above prin-

(3.) FULDE, } cipality, N^o 1. It has a celebrated abbey, erected by Benedictine Monks, in 744. The abbot is primate of the imperial abbeys, and chancellor to the emperor. It is seated on the river, (N^o 2.) 5 miles S. of Cassel, 58 N. of Frankfurt, and 63 ENE. of Mentz. Lon. 9. 53. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

* To FULFIL. *v. a.* [*full and fill*.] 1. To fill till there is no room for more. This sense is now not used.—

Six gates i' th' city, with massy staples,

And correspondent *fulfilling* bolts,

Sparre up the sons of Troy.

Shakespeare.

2. To answer any prophecy or promise by performance.—They knew him not, nor yet the voice of the prophets which are read every Sabbath day, they have *fulfilled* them in condemning him. *John* xiii. 27.—

The fury bath'd them in each others blood;

Then, having fix'd the fight, exulting
And bears *fulfill'd* her promise to th

D.

3. To answer any purpose or design.—
Here nature seems *fulfill'd* in all h

Mil

4. To answer desire by compliance c
tion.—

If on my wounded breast thou dro
Think for whose sake my breast that
bear;

And faithfully my last desires *fulfil*,
As I perform my cruel father's will.

5. To answer the law by obedience.—
eth no ill to his neighbour: therefore
fulfilling of the law. *Rom.* xiii. 10.—

This I my glory account
My exaltation, and my whole delight
That thou in me well pleas'd declar
Fulfil'd, which to *fulfil* is all my bliss
FULFILMENT. *n. s.* The act of fu
FULFORD, the name of two vill
vonshire, and one in Staffordshire.

* FULFRAUGHT. *adj.* [*full and*
Full stored.—

Thy fall hath left a kind
To mark thy *fulfraught* man, the be
With some suspicion.

Shake

* FULGENCY. *n. s.* [*fulgens*, Lat
dour; glitter. *Di*.

* FULGENT. *adj.* [*fulgens*, Latin.]
dazzling; exquisitely bright.—

As from a cloud his *fulgen*.

And shape star-bright appear'd.

—The illumination is not so bright an
to obscure or extinguish all perceptibi
son. *More's Div. Dial.*

FULGENTIUS, ST, an orthodox
the 5th century, born at Talepta, in
noble family. Though he had a libera
and a lucrative post, he left it and tun
In 507, he was elected bishop of Rusp
banished, with the other trinitarian
shops, by Thrasimond, the Arian k
Vandal; on whose death they were
Fulgentius died in 533. His works w
at Paris in 1 vol. 4to. 1684.

* FULGID. *adj.* [*fulgidus*, Latin.]
glittering; dazzling.

* FULGIDITY. *n. s.* [from *fulgi*
dour; dazzling glitter. *Di*.

FULGINIUM. See FOLIGNI.

FULGORA, in zoology, a genus of
longing to the order of hemiptera. T
ters are there: The front or fore part
is drawn extended and empty; the a
seated below the eyes, having two ar
whereof the exterior is larger, and of
form; the rostrum is inflected, or be
under the body; and the feet are mud
ing. There are 9 species, the most
of which is the

FULGORA CANDELARIA, or LANT
See *Plate* CLVIII. *fig.* 9. The head and
generally of a ruddy brown; and the
lour of the clatra is flesh green, but
guied with spots of a yellowish clay co

le, at other seasons of a deeper hue. The
of a deep and beautiful yellow, with a
nd of glossy black bordering the extre-
The tarsi of the feet are composed of 3
ons, and are paler than the legs and
which are brown. When the insect is on
the waving of the elytra (whose thin-
ers the spots thereon transparent), affixed
minous quality peculiar to the tribe, and
n yellow of the under wings, bordered
k, occasion, in Mr Barbut's opinion,
as they dart around in the night, and
ages beyond probability in the minds of
so ready to credit hyperboles. It is an
t of China.

GOUR. n. f. [*fulgor*, Latin.] Splen-
zzling brightness like that of lightning.
worms alive project a lustre in the dark;
fulgor, notwithstanding, ceaseth after
nocturn.—When I set my eyes on this side
there shines from them such an intel-
fulgor, that methinks the very glory of
comes visible through them. *Morr.*

GURATION. n. f. [*fulguratio*, Latin.]
of lightening.

**FULHAM. a village of Middlesex, 4 miles
don. The Danes in 869 wintered at this
they retired to the continent. In Wil-
Conqueror's time it was held of the king
mons of St Paul's; and there is an an-
le in it, which is moated about, and be-
he see of London, whose bishop has a
re, and the demesne has belonged to
de from 1067. From this place to Put-
is a wooden bridge over the Thames,
t only horses, coaches, and all carriages,
foot passengers, pay toll. The church
th a rectory and a vicarage.**

FULHAM. n. f. A cant word for false

—
cultures gripe thy guts, for gourd and *Ful-*
m's hold,
gh and low beguile the rich and poor.

Shakesp.

A. in ornithology, the GALLINULE and
genus of birds of the order of grallæ.
convex: the upper mandible fornicated
power at the edge; the lower mandible
behind the tip. The forehead is bald;
et have 4 toes, subpinnated. See *Plate*
ig. 10, 11. There are 25 species; 18 of
ong to the gallinule division, distinguish-
ing the toes furnished with broad scal-
mbranes; and 7 comprehend the coots
e the toes divided to their origin. The
are among the most remarkable:—

CA ATERRIMA, the GREATER COOT, is
size than the common coot, (Nº 2.)
image is blacker. This species is found
ire and Scotland; but is more plentiful
inent, being found in Russia and the
ria very common; also at Selegue and
ouring parts, where they call it *judelle*.
much esteemed.

ICA ATRA, the COMMON COOT, has a
lead, a black body and lobated toes;
ut 15 inches long. They frequent lakes

. **PART. L**

and still rivers; making their nests among the
rushes, with grass, reeds, &c. floating on the wa-
ter, so as to rise and fall with it. They lay 5 or
6 large eggs, of a dirty whitish hue, sprinkled o-
ver with minute deep rust-coloured spots; and it
is said, that they will lay 14 or more. The young
when just hatched are very deformed, and the head
mixed with a red coarse down. In winter they
often repair to the sea, and the channel near South-
ampton is sometimes observed almost covered with
them. They are often brought to that market,
where they are exposed to sale without their fea-
thers and scalded like pigs. This species is not nu-
merous, for vast numbers fall a prey while young to
the buzzards, which frequent the marshes. Their
food is small fish and water insects; but they some-
times eat the roots of the bulrush, and with it
feed their young; they are said likewise to eat
grain. This species is supposed to extend through-
out the old continent, and perhaps the new also.
It inhabits Greenland, Sweden, Norway, Russia,
Siberia, Persia, China, and many of the interme-
diate parts. It is also met with in Jamaica, Ca-
rolina, and other parts of N. America. The In-
dians about Niagara dress the skins, and use them
for pouches. They are called in Carolina, *Aylerers*.

3. **FULICA CHLOROPUS**, the COMMON GALLI-
NULE, is in length about 14 inches, and has a
bald forehead and broad flat toes. It gets its food
on grassy banks, and borders near fresh waters,
and in the very waters if they be weedy. It builds
upon low trees and shrubs by the water side;
breeding twice or thrice in a summer; and, when
the young are grown up, drives them away to
shift for themselves. The hen lays 7 eggs of a
dirty white, thinly spotted with rust colour. The
gallinule strikes with its bill, and in spring has a
shrill call. In flying, it hangs down its legs; and
in running, it often flirts up its tail, and shows
the white feathers. The bottoms of its toes are
so very flat and broad (to enable it to swim),
that it seems to be the species which connects the
cloven-footed aquatics with the fin-toed. It is
pretty common on the continent, and inhabits
America, from New York to Carolina; as well
as Jamaica and other islands in the W. Indies. It
feeds on plants and small fish, and the flesh is pret-
ty good.

4. **FULICA PORPHYRIO**, the PURPLE GALLI-
NULE, is about the size of a fowl, or 17 inches in
length. The bill is an inch and a half long, and
of a deep red colour. The forehead is bare and
red; the head and hind part of the neck are glos-
sy violet; the legs are very stout, and of the co-
lour of the bill. This species is more or less com-
mon in all the warmer parts of the globe. On
the coasts of Barbary they abound, as well as in
some of the islands of the Mediterranean. In Si-
cily they are bred in plenty, and kept for their
beauty. They are often met with in the S. of
Russia and W. of Siberia, among reedy places;
and near the Caspian sea; but in the cultivated
rice grounds of Ghilar in Persia, they are in great
plenty and high plumage. The female makes the
nest among the reeds in the middle of March;
lays 3 or 4 eggs, and sits from 3 to 4 weeks. That
they are common in China, the Chinese paper

T

Daug.

adings testify. They are also met with in the East Indies, the island of Java, Madagascar, &c. Our late navigators saw them at Tongataboo in vast numbers, as well as in the island of Tanna and other parts. They are also common in S. America. They are very docile, easily tamed, and feed with the poultry; scratching the ground with their feet, like our cocks and hens. They feed on fruits, roots and grain, but eat fish with avidity, dipping them in the water before swallowing. They often stand on one leg, and lift the food to their mouths with the other. A pair of them, kept in an aviary in France, made a nest of small sticks mixed with a quantity of straw, and laid 6 white eggs, perfectly round; but the hen was careless of them, and they produced nothing. The flesh is said to be exquisite.

* **FULIGINOUS.** *adj.* [*fuliginosus* *se*, Fr. *fuliginosus*, Lat.] Sooty; imoky.—Burrage hath an excellent spirit to repress the *fuliginous* vapours of dusky melancholy, and so cure madness. *Bacon*.—Whereas history should be the torch of truth, he makes her in divers places a *fuliginous* link of lies. *Howel*.

FULIGNO. See **FOLIGNI**.

FULIGO, in natural history, a species of pumice stone. See **PUMEX**.

(1.) * **FULIMART.** *n. s.* [This word, of which *Skinner* observes, that he found it only in this passage, seems to mean the same with *float*.] A kind of stinking ferret.—The fichtat, the *fulimart*, and the ferret, live upon the face, and within the bowels, of the earth. *Walton's Angler*.

(2.) **FULIMART**, in zoology. See **MUSTELA**.

FULK, William, D. D. an eminent English divine, born at London, in the 16th century. He was patronised by the E. of Leicester, who, in 1571, presented him to the livings of Warley and Diddington. He attended Leicester, when he went ambassador to France; and on his return was made master of Pembroke hall, and Margaret professor of divinity in Cambridge. His works are very numerous, and chiefly against the Papists; the most noted is his *Comment on the Rhenish New Testament*. He died in 1589.

(1.) * **FULL.** *adj.* [*fulle*, Sax. *vol*, Dut.] 1. Replete; without vacuity; having no space void.—Better is an handful with quietness, than both the hands *full* with travel and vexation of spirit. *Ecc.* iv. 6.—Valley *full* of chariots. *Isaiah*.—The trees of the Lord are *full* of sap. *Psalms*.—

Where all must *full* or not coherent be. *Pope*.

2. Abounding in any quality good or bad.—

With pretence from Strephon her to guard,
He met her full, but *full* of warefulness. *Sidney*.

You should tread a course

Pretty and *full* of view. *Shak. Cymbeline*.

—Followers, who make themselves as trumpets of the commendation of those they follow, are *full* of inconvenience; they taint business through want of secrecy, and export honour from a man, and make him a return in envy. *Bacon*.—

That must be our cure,

To be no more; sad cure; for who would lose,
Though *full* of pain, this intellectual being,
Those thoughts that wander through eternity?

Milton.

Gay religion's *full* of pomp and gold. *Milton*.

In that sweet season, as in bed I lay,
I turn'd my weary side, but still in vain
Tho' *full* of youthful health and void

—He is *full* of wants which he cannot surmount, compassed about with infirmities which he cannot remove. *Tillotson*.—

From yon bright heaven our author
his fire,

And paints the passions that your eyes
Full of that flame, his tender scenes he
And frames his goddesses by your matchless

3. Stored with any thing; well supplied thing.—

Full of days was he;

Two ages past, he liv'd the third to see
4. Plump; saginated; fat.—A gentleman's body having broken his shin by a fall, it was inflamed. *Wiseman's Surg.* 5. Saturated.—I am *full* of the burnt offerings of ram. *i. 11*.—The alteration of scenes feeds an eye, before it be *full* of the same object. 6. Crowded with regard to the imagination.—Every one is *full* of the miracle. cold baths on decayed and weak constitutions. *Lorkc.* 7. That which fills or makes full great in effect.—Water digesteth a *full* nectar than any liquor. *Arbutnot*. 8. Complete as that nothing further is desired or wanted.

That day had seen the *full* accomplishment
Of all his travels. *Daniel's C*

What remains, ye gods,

But up and enter now into *full* bliss?

—Being tried at that time only with a promise, he gave *full* credit to that promise, and the evidence of his fidelity as fast as occasions offered. *Hammond*.—The resurrection from the dead hath given the world *full* of another life. *Tillotson*. 9. Complete abatement; at utmost degree.—At the two *full* years Pharaoh dreamed. *Gen.* hard riding plunge the horses into water, them to drink as they please; but gallop speed, to warm the water in their bellies. 10. Containing the whole matter; expressed.—Where my expressions are not so *full* as your language or my art were desired, where mine are *fuller* than his, they are impressions which the often reading of leave upon my thoughts. *Denham*.—Sho go about with never so set study, to deliver a natural form of the year before the year that which is at present established, he can only do it in so few words, so fit and proper and express. *Woodward*. 11. Strong; not attenuated.—I did never know so great an issue from so empty a heart; but the effort makes the greatest sound. *Shakespeare*.—Entered under the floor of a chamber, making in the same more *full* and resounding. *Nat. Hist.*—

Dryden taught to join

The varying verse, the *full* resounding

12. Mature; perfect.—In the sultanry malukes, slaves reigned over families, and much like were the case, if you sur

re the custom were that after *full* age
ould expulse their fathers out of their
Bacon.—

appears imperfect, and but given
mpose to resign them in *full* time
better covenant.

Milton.

These thoughts
nsel must mature.

Milton.

ed to the moon.] Complete in its orb.
s the *full* moon, as he was coming home
ng, he felt his legs falter. *Wiseman's*
Not continuous, or a full stop.—There-
ded, making a *full* point of a hearty
r. 15. Spread to view in all dimensions.
ut the end of the third century, I do
ber to have seen the head of a Roman
awn with a *full* face: they always ap-
file. *Addison on Medals.*

ULL. *adv.* 1. Without abatement or
1.—

He *full*

lent all his Father manifest

d.
ity of place they are *full* as scrupulous;
y of their criticks limit to that very spot
, where the play is supposed to begin.
Dram. Poesy.—

dest blush she wears, not form'd by art;
m deceit his face, and *full* as free his
rt.

Dryden.

A judicious writer is sometimes mista-
ll his care; but the hasty critick, who
a view, is *full* as liable to be deceived.
ng.—

Since you may
Ey courage, if I should not lay,
m I proffer shall be *full* as good.

Dryd. *Virg.*

e whole effect.—'Tis the pencil, thrown
, upon the horse's mouth, to express the
ch the painter, with all his skill, could
n without it. *Dryd. Dufr.*—

harmony, from heavenly harmony,
verfal frame began:

harmony to harmony,
all the compass of the notes it ran,
ason closing *full* in man.

Dryd.

the centre of the sacred wood,
arise of the Stygian flood.

Addison on Italy.

nineteen sailors did the ship convey;
of nineteen dolphins round her play.

Addis. Ovid.

at her *full*, but full of warefulness. *Sid.*
e then confronts the bull,
his ample forehead aiming *full*,
dly stroke descending pierc'd the skull.

Dryden.

gth resolv'd, he throws with all his force
e temples of the warrior horse. *Æn.*
ed before adverbs and adjectives, to in-
ngthen their signification.—

ie why on your shield, so goodly scor'd,
the picture of that lady's head?

y is the semblant, tho' the substance
L

Spens.

I was set at work

Among my maids; *full* little, God knows,
looking

Either for such men or such business. *Shakesp.*
—*Full* well ye reject the commandment. *Mar. vii. 9.*

Adam was all in tears, and to his guide

Lamenting turn'd *full* sad. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—You *full* little think that you must be the be-
ginner of the discourse yourself. *More's Div. Dial.*

—*Full* little thought of him the gentle knight.
Dryden.—

Full well the god his sister's envy knew,

And what her aims and what her arts pursue.

Dryden.

—There is a porquiste *full* as honest, by which
you have the best part of a bottle of wine for
yourself. *Swift.*

(3.) * FULL. *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1.

Complete measure; freedom from deficiency.—

When we return,

We'll see those things affected to the *full*.

Shakesp. Henry VI.

—He liked the pomp and absolute authority of a
general well, and preserved the dignity of it to
the *full*. *Clarendon.*—The picture of Ptolemy
Philopater is given by authors to the *full*. *Dryd.*—

Sicilian tortures, and the brazen bull,

Are emblema, rather than exprels the *full*

Of what he feels.

Dryden's Pers.

If where the rules not far enough extend,

Some lucky licence answer to the *full*

Th' intent propos'd, that licence is a rule.

Pope.

2. The highest state or degree.—

The swan's down feather,

That stands upon the swell at *full* of tide,

Neither way inclines. *Shakesp. Ant. & Cleop.*

3. The whole; the total.—

The king hath won, and hath set out

A speedy pow'r to encounter you, my lord:

This is the news at *full*.

Shakesp. Hen. IV.

But what at *full* I know, thou knowest no part;

I knowing all my peril, thou no art. *Shakesp.*

4. The state of being satiated.—When I had fed

them to the *full*. *Jer. v. 7.* 5. [Applied to the
moon.] The time in which the moon makes a
perfect orb.—Brains in rabbits, woodcocks, and
calves, are fullest in the *full* of the moon. *Bacon's*

Nat. Hist.

(4.) * FULL is much used in composition to
intimate any thing arrived at its highest state, or
utmost degree.

* To FULL. *v. a.* [*fullo*, Latin.] To cleanse
cloth from its oil or grease.

* FULLAGE. *n. f.* [from *full*.] The money
paid for fulling or cleansing cloth.

FULLAN, an inland country of Africa, W. of
Cashna. The dress of the natives resembles our
highland tartan plaids.

* FULL-BLOWN. *adj.* [*full* and *blown*.] 1.
Spread to the utmost extent, as a perfect blossom.

My glories are past danger; they're *full blown*:

Things, that are blasted, are but in the bud.

Denham's Sophy.

My *full-blown* youth already fades apace;

Of our short being 'tis the shortest space.

Dryden's Juvenal.

2. Stretched by the wind to the utmost extent.—

He who with bold Cratinus is inspir'd,
With zeal and equal indignation fir'd;
Who at enormous villany turns pale,
And steers against it with a *full-blown* sail. *Dryd.*

* **FULL-BOTTOMED.** *adj.* [*full* and *bottom.*] Having a large bottom.—I was obliged to sit at home in my morning gown, having pawned a new suit of cloaths and a *full-bottomed* wig for a sum of money. *Guardian.*

FULL-BROOK, a river of Cheshire, which runs into the Wheelock at Maulbon.

* **FULL-EARED.** *adj.* [*full* and *ear.*] Having the heads full of grain.—

As flames roll'd by the winds conspiring force,
O'er *full-ear'd* corn, or torrents raging course.

Denham.

(1.) **FULLER**, Nicholas, prebendary of Salisbury, a learned English critic; who published in 1617 *Miscellanea Theologica* in 4 books, and afterwards two more of *Miscellanea Sacra*. He died in 1623; and there are some MSS. of his remaining in the Bodleian library, that show his great skill in Hebrew and philology.

(2.) **FULLER**, Thomas, D. D. a learned English historian and divine, born at Alwinkle, Northamptonshire, in 1608. He studied at Cambridge, and was chosen minister of St Bennet's there. In his 23d year, his merit procured him a fellowship in Sidney college, and a prebend in Salisbury cathedral. He was afterwards appointed rector of Broad Windsor, and lecturer of the Savoy in London: but upon the pressing of the covenant, he retired to Oxford; and soon after accompanied Hopton as his chaplain in the army, which he attended in their marches. Upon the restoration, he recovered his prebend, was appointed chaplain extraordinary to Charles II, and created D. D. His memory was so amazingly tenacious, that he could repeat a sermon, *verbatim*, if once he heard it. He once undertook, in passing to and from Temple-bar to the Poultry, to tell at his return every sign as it stood in order, on both sides of the way, repeating them either backwards or forwards; and this task he actually performed. He wrote, 1. A History of the Holy War. 2. The Church History of Britain, in folio. 3. Andronicus, or the Unfortunate Politician, in 8vo. 4. A Pisgah sight of Palestine. 5. A History of English Worthies; and other works. He died in August 1661. He was fond of punning; but once attempting to play off a joke upon a gentleman named *Sparrowhawk*, he met with a retort in his own file. "What is the difference, said the Dr, (who was very corpulent) between an *owl* and a *sparrowhawk*?" "It is, replied the other, *fuller* in the head, *fuller* in the body, and *fuller* all over."

(3.) * **FULLER.** *n. f.* [*fullo*, Latin.] One whose trade is to cleanse cloth.—

The clothiers have put off

The spinsters, carders, *fullers*, weavers. *Shak.*
—His raiment became shining, exceeding white as snow; so as no *fuller* on earth can whiten them. *Mark*, ix. 3.

(4.) **FULLER.** See **FULLING**.

FULLERBY, a village in Lincolnshire, NE. of Horncastle.

(1.) * **FULLER'S EARTH.** *n. f.* *Fuller's earth* is

a marl of a close texture, extremely soft and glutinous to the touch: when dry it is of a greenish brown colour, in all degrees, from very pale almost black, and generally has a greenish cast. The finest *fuller's earth* is dug in our own country. See *Hill's Materia Medica*.—The *fuller's earth* of our land very much exceeds any yet discovered abroad in goodness; which is one great reason why English surpass all other nations in the woollen manufacture. *Woodward on Fossils.*

(2.) **FULLER'S EARTH**, in natural history, a species of clay, of a greyish ash-coloured in all degrees, from very pale to almost black, and it has generally something of a greenish tinge. See **CLAY**, § I, 4. It is very hard and firm, of a compact texture, of a rough and somewhat uneven surface, that adheres slightly to the tongue, but is very soft to the touch, not staining the hands, and breaking easily between the fingers. It has a great hardness between the teeth, and melts in the mouth. Thrown into water, it makes a great ebullition or hissing; but swells gradually, and falls into a fine soft powder. It makes a green tinge with aquafortis. The greatest quantity, and the finest earth of this kind in the world is dug in the pits at Wavedon, near Woburn Bedfordshire. The strata in these pits lie from the surface to the depth of six feet, and are several layers of sand, all reddish, but lighter coloured than others. Under these is a thin stratum of a sand-stone, which they dig through, and then they find the *fuller's earth*. The upper stratum of this is about a foot thick, the workmen call it *cledge*, and throw it away as useless; being commonly fouled with the matter which covered it, and which it sinuates in a good way into it. After this they come to the fine *fuller's earth*, which lies 8 feet deep. This matter of this is divided into several layers, being commonly about a foot and a half thick, and one horizontal fissure and another. Of these several layers, the upper half, where the earth breaks itself, is tinged red; which seems to be owing to the running of the water upon it, and among the sands above; some of which are probably of a ferruginous nature, or have ferruginous matter among them. This reddish *fuller's earth* the workmen call *crop*; and between the *crop* and this there is a thin stratum of matter, less than an inch, which in taste, colour, and appearance, resembles the terra Japonica of the shops. The lower half of the strata of *fuller's earth* they call *waile earth*. This is untinged, and has the red colour of the other, and seems the proper for tilling. Under the *fuller's earth* is a stratum of white and coarse stone about 2 feet thick. They seldom dig through this, if they do, they find more strata of sand. This *fuller's earth* is of great use in scouring cloths, stuffs, and imbibing all the grease and oil used in preparing, dressing, &c. of the wool; for which reason it is made a contraband commodity, and is not exported under the penalty of 1s. for every weight. See **FULLING**.

(1.) * **FULLER'S THISTLE, or WEEB.** [*Lipfacus*.] A plant.

(2.) **FULLER'S THISTLE, or TEAZLE.** in some parts called **FULLER'S WEEB**, or **WEEB**. See **DIP**.

ERTON POINT, a cape on the W. coast of N. Lon. 61. 35. W. Lat. 17. 13. N.

FULLERY, *n. f.* [from *fuller*.] The place or trade of a fuller is exercised.

FULLERY. See **FULLING**.

FULL-EYED, *adj.* [*full* and *eye*.] Having large eyes.

FULL-FED, *adj.* [*full* and *fed*.] Sated; fat; —

is a partridge, plump, *full-fed* and fair, m'd this image of well-bodied air. *Pope*.

FULLING, *n. f.* the art or act of cleansing, and pressing cloths, stuffs, and stockings,

making them stronger, closer, and firmer: called **FULLING**.

Pliny (*lib. vii. cap. 56.*) assures us that *Nicias*, the son of *Hermus*, was the inventor of the art of fulling: and it appears

from a description, quoted by *Sir G. Wheeler*, in his travels through Greece, that this *Nicias* was

born in Greece in the time of the Romans. The art of fulling of cloths and other stuffs is performed

at a fulling-mill, thence called a **FULLING-MILL**, or *fulling mill*. These mills, excepting

what relates to the mill-stones and hopper, are the same with corn mills: and there are

others which serve indifferently for either use: the one for grinding corn, and the other for fulling

by the motion of a large wheel. Whence, in some places, the fullers are called *mill-grinders*

and *mill-millers*. The principal parts of the fulling-mill are, the wheel, with its trundle; which gives

motion to the tree or spindle, whose teeth connect it to the pestles or stampers, which are

raised and made to fall alternately, according to the teeth catch on or quit a kind of latch

in the middle of each pestle. The pestles and stampers are of wood; each trough having at least

three or four pestles, at the discretion of the fuller, according to the force of the stream of

water. In these troughs are laid the cloths, stuffs, &c. to be full'd: then, letting the cur-

rent fall on the wheel, the pestles are successively let fall thereon, and by their weight and

stamp and press the stuffs very strongly, thus become thickened and condensed. In

the course of the operation, they sometimes make use of fuller's earth, and sometimes

of soap. To prepare the stuffs to receive the impressions of the pestle, they are usually laid

first in fuller's earth and water; and, secondly, in soap dissolved in hot water. Soap alone

does not serve very well; but this is expensive: tho' fuller's earth, in the way of our dressing, is scarce

valuable thereto; but then it must be well cleared from stones and grittinesses, which are apt to

enter into the stuff. As to urine, it is certainly

judicial, and ought to be entirely discarded; much on account of its ill smell, as of its

stink and saltiness, which qualities are apt to render the stuffs dry and harsh.

FULLING OF CLOTHS AND WOOLLEN STUFFS WITH SOAP. The best method of fulling

is delivered by *M. Colinet*, in an *memoir* on that subject, supported by extracts, made by order of the *marquis de Lou-*

vois superintendant of the arts and manufactures of France. 1. The substance of it is as

follows:—A coloured cloth, of about 45 ells, is to be laid in the usual manner, in the trough of a fulling mill; without first soaking it in water, as is commonly practised in many places. To full this trough of cloth, 15 lb. of soap are required; one half of which is to be melted in two peals of river or spring water, made as hot as the hand can bear it. This solution is to be poured by little and little upon the cloth in proportion as it is laid in the trough: and thus it is to be full'd for at least two hours: after which it is to be taken out and stretched. This done, the cloth is immediately returned into the same trough, without any new soap, and there full'd two hours more. Then taking it out, they wring it well, to express all the grease and filth. After the second fulling, the remainder of the soap is dissolved as in the former, and cast 4 different times on the cloth; remembering to take out the cloth every two hours, to stretch it, and undo the palls and wrinkles it has acquired in the trough. When they perceive it sufficiently full'd, and brought to the quality and thickness required, they scour it for good in hot water, keeping it in the trough till it be quite clean. As to white cloths, as these full more easily and in less time than coloured ones, a third part of the soap may be spared.

(3.) **FULLING OF STOCKINGS, CAPS, &c.** should be performed somewhat differently; viz. either with the feet or the hands; or a kind of rack or wooden machine, either armed with teeth of the same matter, or else horses or bullock's teeth. The ingredients made use of herein are, urine, green soap, white soap, and fuller's earth. But the urine is also reckoned prejudicial here. Woven stockings, &c. should be full'd with soap alone: for those that are knit, earth may be used with the soap. Indeed it is common to full these kinds of works with the mill, after the usual manner of cloth, &c. But that is too coarse and violent a method, and apt to damage the work, unless it be very strong.

(1.) * **FULLINGMILL**, *n. f.* [*full* and *mill*.] A mill where the water raises hammers which beat the cloth till it be cleansed.—By large hammers, like those used for paper and *fullingmills*, they beat their bar p. *Apertures*.

(2.) **FULLINGMILL**. See **FULLING**, § 1.

FULLINGTON, a village in Hampshire, near Bullington.

* **FULL-LADEN**, *adj.* [*full* and *laden*.] Laden 'till there can be no more added.—It were unfit that so excellent a reward as the Gospel promises should stoop down, like fruit upon a *full-laden* bough, to be plucked by every idle and wanton hand. *Tillotson*.

FULLIO, Peter, an heretical bishop of Antioch, in the 5th century, who embraced the Eutychian heresy, to which he added a singular notion of his own, that all the persons in the Trinity suffered on the cross; whence his followers were stiled **THEOPASCHATITES**. He usurped the see of Antioch from *Martyrius* in 471, for which he was afterwards deposed, but the emperor *Zeno* restored him. He died in 486.

* **FULL-SPREAD**, *adj.* [*full* and *spread*.] Spread to the utmost extent.—

How easy 'tis, when destiny proves kind,
With

With full-spread sails to run before the wind;
But those that 'gainst stiff gales lavecreeing go,
Must be at once relolv'd and skilful too. *Dryd.*

* FULL SUMMED. *adj.* [*full* and *summed*.] Complete in all its parts.—The cedar stretched forth his branches, and the king of birds nested within his leaves, thick feathered, and with full-summed wings fattening his talons East and West; but now the eagle is become half naked. *Howell's Forest*.

FULL-SUTTON, a town W. of Wilton, Yorks.

* FULLY. *adv.* [from *full*.] 1. Without vacuity. 2. Completely; without lack; without more to be desired.—There are many graces for which we may not cease hourly to sue, graces which are in bestowing always, but never come to be fully had in this present life; and therefore, when all things here have an end, endless thanks must have their beginning, in a state which bringeth the full and final satisfaction of all such perpetual desires. *Hooker*.—He fully possessed the entire revelation he had received from God, and had thoroughly digested it. *Locke*.—
The goddess cry'd
It is enough, I'm fully satiate'd. *Add. Ovid.*

(1.) FULMAR, in ornithology, a species of PROCELLARIA.

(2.) FULMAR, in zoology. See MUSTELA.

* FULMINANT. *adj.* [*fulminant*, Fr. *fulminans*, Latin.] Thundering; making a noise like thunder.

(1.) * To FULMINATE. *v. a.* To throw out as an object of terror.—As excommunication is not greatly regarded here in England, as now fulminated; so this constitution is out of use among us in a great measure. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(2.) * To FULMINATE. *v. n.* [*fulmino*, Latin, *fulminer*, Fr.] 1. To thunder.—

I cannot fulminate nor tonitruate words,
To puzzle intellects; my ninth lap affords
No Lycophronian bulks. *Tho. Randolph.*

2. To make a loud noise or crack.—Whilst it was in fusion we cast into it a live coal, which presently kindled it, and made it boil and flash for a pretty while; after which we cast in another glowing coal, which made it fulminate atress. *Boyle*.—In damps one is called the suffocating, and the other the fulminating damp. *Woodward's Natural Hist.*

3. To issue ecclesiastical censures.

(1.) FULMINATING, *part. adj.* thundering, or making a noise resembling thunder.

(2.) FULMINATING GOLD, } See CHEMIS-

(3.) FULMINATING SILVER, } TRY, Index.

(1.) * FULMINATION. *n. f.* [*fulminatio*, Lat. *fulmination*, French, from *fulminate*.] 1. The act of thundering. 2. Denunciations of censure.—The fulminations from the Vatican were turned into ridicule. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

(2.) FULMINATION, in chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, Index; DETONATION, and NITRE.

(3.) FULMINATION, in the Romish canon law, a sentence of a bishop, official, or other ecclesiastical, appointed by the pope, by which it is decreed that some bull sent from the pope shall be executed.

* FULMINATORY. *adj.* [*fulmineus*, Latin; from *fulminate*.] Thundering; striking horror.

FULNEK, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Prerau, 30 miles NW. of Freyburg.

* FULNESS. *n. f.* [from *full*.] 1. of being filled so as to have no part. Your heave-offering shall be reckoned of the wine press. *Numb. xviii. 27.*—I roar and the fulness thereof. *Deut.*—To sea I wished nothing more than safety, freedom. *King Charles.* 2. The state of being in any quality good or bad. 3. Com such as leaves nothing to be desired—joyments are so complete, I turn wisher tulations, and congratulating their full with their continuance. *South.* 4. Cos from the coalition of many parts.—Th forwards to London, receiving the ac and applauses of the people as he we indeed were true and unfeigned, as migl pear in the very demonstration and ful cry. *Bacon's Henry VII.* 5. Completeness from deficiency.—In thy presence of joy. *Psalms*—

He is the half part of a blessed mar
Left to be finished by such as she;
And she a fair divided excellence,
Whose fulness of perfection lies in his
6. Repletion; satiety—I need not instil habitual intemperance of rich tables, accidents and effects of fulness, pride wantonness and softness. *Taylor.* 7. Plent To laple in fulness

Is sorer than to lie for need; and fall
Is worse in kings than beggars. *St*
8. Struggling perturbation; swelling in
—A principal fruit of friendship is the charge of the fulness of the heart, which of all kinds do cause and induce. *Bacon*
9. Largeness; extent—There wanted of a plot, and variety of characters to it it ought; and perhaps something might added to the beauty of the style. *Dr.*
Force of sound, such as fills the ear;
This sort of pastoral derives almost its wh from a natural ease of thought and sm verse; whereas that of most other kind in the strength and fulness of both. *Pope*

* FULSOME. *adj.* [from *fulle*, Sax 1. Nauseous; offensive.—

He that brings fulsome objects to m
With nauseous images my fancy fills,
And all goes down like oxymel of squi
How half the youth of Europe are
How fulsome must it be to stay behind
And die of rank diseases here at home
2. Rank; gross: to the smell.—White of a dainty smell, if the plant puts fo flowers only, and those not thin or dry commonly of rank and fulsome smell. 1 Lussful.—

He stuck them up before the fulsom

4. Tending to obscenity.—A certain which is ascribed to the emperor, is mc than any passage I have met with in *Dryden*.

* FULSOMELY. *adv.* [from *fulsom* ously; rankly; obscenely.

* FULSOMENESS. *n. f.* [from *fu* Nauseousness. 1. Rank smell. 3. —No decency is considered, no fulsomen

recom is wanting, as far as dulness can
Dryden.

FUMADO. *n. f.* [*fumus*, Latin.] A smoked
h that serve for the hotter countries, they
rst to fume, by hanging them upon long
e by one, drying them with the smoke
nd continual fire, from which they pur-
e name of *fumadoes*. *Carew.*

FUMAGE. *n. f.* [from *fumus*, Latin.]
oney. *Diß.*

FUMARIA, FUMITORY, a genus of the pen-
der, belonging to the diadelphia class of
id in the natural method ranking under
rder, *Corydalis*. The calyx is diphyllous ;
a ringent ; and there are two membran-
ments, each of which has three antheræ.
many different species, all low, shrubby,
s and evergreen plants, growing from 2
7 feet high, adorned with small simple
nd papilionaceous flowers of different

The most remarkable is the
FUMARIA OFFICINALIS, or common fumitory.
naturally in shady cultivated grounds,
luces spikes of purplish flowers in May
. It is very juicy, of a bitter taste, with-
remarkable smell. Its medical effects are,
hen the tone of the bowels, gently loosen
, and promote the natural secretions. It
recommended in melancholic, scorbutic,
neous disorders, for opening obstructions
iscera, attenuating, and promoting the
m of viscid juices. Hoffman had a great
f it as a purifier of the blood ; and assures
in this intention scarce any plant exceeds
s and sheep eat it ; goats are not fond of
s and swine refuse it.

FUMATORY. *n. f.* [*fumaria*, Lat. *fume-*
| An herb.—

Her fallow leas
amel, hemlock, and rank *fumatory*,
oot upon. *Shakespeare's Henry V.*
LY, a town of France, in the dep. of
1. Its chief trade is in slates.

TO FUMBLE. *v. a.* To manage auk-

many farewells as be stars in heav'n,
listinct breath and consign'd kisses to them,
bles up all in one loose adieu. *Shak.*

His greasy bald pate choir
fumbling o'er the beads, in such an agony
told 'em false for fear. *Dryd. Sp. Fryar.*

TO FUMBLE. *v. n.* [*fommelen*, Dutch.]
tempt any thing awkwardly or ungainly.
mechanick theists will have their atoms
e to have *fumbled* in these their motions,
ve produced any inept system. *Cudworth.*
uzzle ; to strain in perplexity.—Am not
I to help you out ? You would have been
half an hour for this excuse. *Dryden's*
Fryar.

3. To play childishly.—I saw him
ith the sheets, and play with flowers, and
on his finger's end. *Shak. Henry V.*

FUMBLER. *n. f.* [from *fumble*.] One who
wardly.

FUMBLINGLY. *adv.* [from *fumble*.] In an
manner.

FUMÉE. *n. f.* [*fumée*, French ; *fumus*, Latin.]
e.—

Thus fighting fires a while themselves con-
sume ;

But streight, like Turks, forc'd on to win or die,
They first lay tender bridges of their *fume*,
And o'er the breach in unctuous vapours fly.

Dryden.

2. Vapour ; any volatile parts flying away.—

Love is a smoke rais'd with the *fume* of sighs ;
Being purg'd, a fire sparkling in lovers eyes. *Sb.*
—It were good to try the taking of *fumes* by pipes,
as they do in tobacco, of other things, to dry and
comfort. *Bacon.*—In Winter, when the heat with-
out is less, breath becomes so far condensed as to
be visible, flowing out of the mouth in form of a
fume, or crasser vapour ; and may, by proper
vessels, set in a strong freezing mixture, be collec-
ted in a considerable quantity. *Woodw. Nat. Hist.*

3. Exhalation from the stomach.—The *fumes* of
drink discompose and stupify the brains of a man
overcharged with it. *South.*—

Plunged in sloth we lie, and snore supine,
As fill'd with *fumes* of undigested wine. *Perf.*
Pow'r, like new wine, does your weak brain
surprize,

And its mad *fumes* in your discourses rise ;
But time these yielding vapours will remove :
Mean while I'll taste the sober joys of love.

Dryden's Aurengzebe.

4. Rage ; heat of mind ; passion.—The *fumes* of
his passion do really intoxicate and confound his
judging and discerning faculty. *South.* 5. Any
thing unsubstantial.—

When Duncan is asleep, his two chamberlains
Will I with wine and wassail so convince,
That memory, the warder of the brain,
Shall be a *fume*. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

6. Idle conceit ; vain imagination.—Plato's great
year would have some effect, not in renewing the
state of like individuals ; for that is the *fume* of
those, that conceive the celestial bodies have more
accurate influence upon these things below, than
they have, but in gross. *Bacon.*—To lay aside all
that may seem to have a show of *fumes* and fancies,
and to speak solids, a war with Spain is a mighty
work. *Bacon.*

(1.) **TO FUME.** *v. a.* 1. To smoke ; to dry in
the smoke.—Those that serve for hot countries
they used at first to *fume*, by hanging them upon
long sticks one by one, and drying them with the
smoke of a soft fire. 2. To perfume with odours
in the fire.—

She *fum'd* the temples with an od'rous flame,
And oft before the sacred altars came,

To pray for him who was an empty name. *Dryd.*

—The *fuming* of the holes with brimstone, garlick,
or other unfavory things, will drive moles out of
the ground. *Mortim.* 3. To disperse in vapours.
—The heat will *fume* away most of the scent. *Mort.*

(2.) * **TO FUME.** *v. n.* [*fumer*, French ; *fumo*,
Latin] 1. To smoke.—

Their prayers pass'd
Dimensionless through heav'nly doors ; then clad
With incense, where the golden altar *fum'd*
By their great intercessor ; came in sight
Before the Father's throne. *Milton's Par. Lost.*
From thence the *fuming* trail began to spread,
And lambent glories danc'd about her head.

Dryden's Æn.
e.

Strait hover round the fair her airy band ;
Some, as she sipp'd, the *fuming* liquor fann'd.

Pope.

2. To vapour ; to yield exhalations, as by heat.
Tie up the libertine in a field of feasts,
Keep his brain *fuming*. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*
Silenus lay,
Whose constant cups lay *fuming* to his brain,
And always boil in each extended vein. *Rosc.*

3. To pass away in vapours.—

We have

No anger in our eyes, no storm, no lightning ;
Our hate is spent and *fum'd* away in vapour,
Before our hands be at work. *B. Jonson's Cat.*
—Their parts are kept from *fuming* away by their
fixity, and also by the vast weight and density of
the atmospheres incumbent upon them. *Cheyne's*
Phil. Princ.—

The first fresh dawn then wak'd the gladden'd
race

Of uncorrupted man, nor blush'd to see
The sluggard sleep beneath its sacred beam ;
For their light slumbers gentle *fum'd* away.
Thomson's Spring.

4. To be in a rage ; to be hot with anger.—

When he knew his rival free'd and gone,
He swells with wrath ; he makes outrageous
moan :
He frets, he *fumes*, he stares, he stamps the
ground,
The hollow tow'r with clamours rings around.
Dryden.

FUMEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot
and Garonne, 9 miles N. of Tournon.

* FUMET. *n. f.* The dung of the deer.

* FUMETTE. *n. f.* [French.] A word intro-
duced by cooks, and the pupils of cooks, for the
stink of meat.—

A haunch of ven'son made her sweat,
Unless it had the right *fumette*. *Swift.*

* FUMID. *adj.* [*fumidus*, Latin.] Smoky ;
vaporous.—A crafts and *fumid* exhalation is caused
from the combat of the sulphur and iron with the
acid and nitrous spirits of *aquafortis*. *Brown's*
Vulg. Err.

* FUMIDITY. *n. f.* [from *fumid*.] Smokiness ;
tendency to smoke.

* To FUMIGATE. *v. n.* [from *fumus*, Latin ;
fumiger, Fr.] 1. To smoke ; to perfume by smoke
or vapour.—

Wouldst thou preserve thy fami'h'd family,
With fragrant thyme the city *fumigate*,
And break the waxen walls to save the state.
Dryden's Virgil.

2. To mediate or heal by vapours.

* (1.) FUMIGATION. *n. f.* [*fumigatio*, Latin ;
fumigation, French ; from *fumigatus*.] 1. Scents
raised by fire. — *Fumigations*, often repeated, are
very beneficial. *Arbuthnot.*—

My *fumigation* is to Venus, just
The fumes of roses, and red cedar's dust :
And, last, to make my *fumigation* good,
'Tis mixt with sparrows brains and pigeons
blood. *Dryden.*

2. The application of medicines to the body in
fumes.

* (2.) FUMIGATION, in chemistry, a kind of cal-
cination, when metals or other hard bodies are

corroded or softened by receiving ce
for that purpose.

(3.) FUMIGATION, in medicine.
The fumes produced by burning certain
much benefit or prejudice may be pr
ording to the nature of the case, and
tution on which the effects are to be
is evident from the palsies produced at
gilders, workers in lead-mines, &c. at
the benefits received in many cases v
is impregnated with salutary material
and colds, for instance, are relieved
ceived with the breath ; by the same
peccoration is assisted in the asthma
ulcers in the lungs have been relieved
thod. This is still more strongly ext
the common practice of curing ven
and exciting the general action of q
the system, by inclosing the naked
patient in a box fitted to receive t
quicksilver, raised by sprinkling cinn
red hot iron, or, what is still better
gyrus precipitatus cinereus of the Ph
Chirurgica, which, not emitting any
vapours, proves less inconvenient to

* FUMINGLY. *adv.* [from *fume*.]
in a rage.—That which we move for
learning and instruction sake, turneth
and choler in them ; they grow altog
quietness with it ; they answer *fuming*
are ashamed to defile their pens with m
to such idle questions. *Hooker.*

- (1.) * FUMITER. *n. f.* A plant.—

Why, he was met even n
As mad as the vexed sea ; singing al
Crown'd with rank *fumiter* and fur

- (2.) FUMITER, or } in botany. See
FUMITORY,

* FUMOUS. } *adj.* [*fumeux-se*, Fr.]
* FUMY. } Producing fumes.—

From dice and wine the youth re
And puff'd the *fumy* god from out
Ev'n then he dreamt of drink and
More lucky had it lasted 'till the d

* FUN. *n. f.* [A low cant word.]
merriment ; frolicksome delight.—

Don't mind me, tho', for all my f
You bards may find us bloodsgood-

FUNAMBULUS, among the Romans
we call a *rope-dancer*, and the Greeks
See ROPE-DANCER. There was a fune
performed at the time when the He
rence was acted ; and the poet con
the spectacle prevented the people fr
to his comedy. *Ita populus studio d*
nambulo, animam occuparat. At Ro
nambulo first appeared under the con
pkins Patiens and Licinius Stolo, w
first introducers of the scenic re
They were first exhibited in the islan
ber, and the censors Metella and C
was promoted them to the theatre.
ralia, or *ludi Florales*, held under
were funambulatory elephants, as w
ed by Suetonius. Nero also showed

of his mother Agrippina. Vopiscus relates the same of Carinus and Numerianus.

HAL, or FUNCHIAL, the capital of Malabar, strong, handsome, and populous with two castles, and several fine churches. Principal trade consists in sweetmeats and sugar. It belongs to the Portuguese, but the most French catholics are most numerous. There are also many free negroes and Mulattoes. Situated in a fertile valley, at the foot of a mountain, on the S. coast of the island. Lon. 16. Lat. 32. 32. N.

HEON, a river of Ireland in Cork, which joins the Blackwater, 5 miles N. of Rathcor-

FUNCTION. n. f. [*functio*, Lat.] 1. Discharge or performance.—There is hardly a greater difference between two things than there is between representing commoner in the *function* of each calling, and the same person in common life. 2. Employment; office.—The minister is now bound to any one tribe: now none is bound from that *function* of any degree, state, or office. *Whitgift*.—You have paid the heavens their *function*, and the prisoner the very debt of his *function*. *Shak*.—Nor was it any policy, or object of partiality of affection either to the men or the *function*, which fixed me. *King Charles*.—The *function* of the goddess gives a complexion of light and beauty to the ode which Horace addressed to her. *Addison on Italy*.—Let not ignominies discourage us from asserting the majesty and pre-eminence of our holy *function*. *Atterbury*. 3. Single act of any kind. Without difference those *functions* cannot, but they must, be executed. *Hooker*.—They have offered up prayers against fire, tempests, and misery for the dead, in which *functions* they adorned garments. *Stillington*. 4. Trade; office.—Follow your *function*; go, and but old bits. *Shak*. 5. Office of any particular part of the body.—The bodies of men and animals, are excellently well fitted for life and labour; and the several parts of them well adapted to their particular *functions*. *Bentley*. 6. Faculty: either animal or intellectual.—He is in his eyes, distraction in his aspect, broken voice, and his whole *functions* suiting forms to his conceit. *Shak. Hamlet*.

Nature seems
her *functions* weary of herself:
The race of glory run, and race of shame;
I shall shortly be with them that rest. *Milt*.
Whatever warms the heart, or fills the head,
The mind opens, and its *functions* spread,
The nation plies her dang'rous art,
And pours it all upon the peccant part. *Pope*.
In every human constitution is morbid,
Their diseases consistent with the common
of life. *Arbutnot*.

FUNCTION, in the animal œconomy, (§ 1, &c.) by physicians divided into vital, animal, and natural.

FUNCTIONS, ANIMAL, include the senses, judgment, and voluntary motions; without all of which an animal may live but not comfortably. The animal functions perform the motion of the body by the action of the

X. PART I.

muscles; and this action consists chiefly in the shortening the fleshy fibres, which is called *contraction*, the principal agents of which are the arteries and nerves distributed in the fleshy fibres. All parts of the body have their own functions, or actions, peculiar to themselves. Life consists in the exercise of these functions, and health in the free and ready exercise of them.

2. **FUNCTIONS, NATURAL**, are such as it cannot subsist any considerable time without; as the digestion of the aliment, and its conversion into blood.

3. **FUNCTIONS, VITAL**, are those necessary to life, and without which the individual cannot subsist; as the motion of the heart, lungs, &c.

(1) * **FUND. n. f.** [*fund*, Fr. *funda*, a bag, Lat.] 1. Stock; capital; that by which any expence is supported.—He touches the passions more delicately than Ovid, and performs all this out of his own *fund*, without diving into the arts and sciences for a supply. *Dryden*.—

Part must be left, a *fund* when foes invade,
And part employ'd to roll the wat'ry tide. *Dryden*.
—In preaching, no men succeed better than those who trust entirely to the stock or *fund* of their own reason, advanced indeed, but not overlaid by commerce with books. *Swift*. 2. Stock or bank of money.—As my estate has been hitherto either lost upon seas, or fluctuating in *funds*, it is now fixed in substantial acres. *Addison*.

(2.) **FUND, SINKING**, that part of the national revenue, which is set aside for the payment of the NATIONAL DEBT.

(3.) **The FUNDS**, those large sums which have been lent to government, and constitute the national debt; and for which the lenders, or their assignees, receive interest from revenues allotted for that purpose. The term stock is used in the same sense, and is also applied to the sums which form the capital of the bank of England, the East India and South Sea companies; the proprietors of which are entitled to a share of the profits of the respective companies. The practice of funding was introduced by the Venetians and Genoese in the 16th century, and has been adopted since by most of the nations in Europe. Princes had often borrowed money, in former times, to supply their exigencies, and sometimes mortgaged their territories in security: but these loans were generally extorted, and their payment was always precarious; for it depended on the good faith and success of the borrower, and never became a regular burden on posterity. The origin of funds is derived from the peculiar manners and circumstances of modern Europe. Since the invention of gunpowder, and the progress of commerce, the military occupation has become a distinct employment in the hands of mercenaries; the apparatus of war is attended with more expence; and the decision of national quarrels has often been determined by command of money rather than by national bravery. Ambitious princes have therefore borrowed money, to carry on their projects with more vigour. Weaker states have been compelled, in self-defence, to apply to the same resource; the wealth introduced by commerce has afforded the means; the regularity of administration, established in consequence of the progress of civiliza-

tion, has increased the confidence of individuals in the public security; the complicated system of modern policy has extended the scenes of war, and prolonged their duration; and the colonies established by the mercantile nations have rendered them vulnerable in more points, and increased the expence of defending them. When a greater sum has been required for the annual expence, than could easily be supplied by annual taxes, the government have proposed terms, to their own subjects, or foreigners, for obtaining an advance of money, by mortgaging the revenue of future years for their indemnification. This mortgage may either be for a limited period, or perpetual. If the sum allotted annually for the benefit of those who advance the money, be considerably greater than the interests of the sums advanced, they may agree to accept of such allowance, for a limited time, as a full equivalent. Thus, they may either agree for the casual produce of the revenue assigned; or a fixed annuity for a greater or less number of years; or a life annuity to themselves or nominees; or an annuity for two or more lives; or an annuity, with the benefit of survivorship, called a *jointure*, in which scheme, the whole sum to which the original annuitants were intitled continues to be distributed among the survivors. The establishment of the funds was introduced in Britain at the Revolution; and has since been gradually enlarged, and carried to an amazing extent. The various methods above-mentioned have been used in their turns, but perpetual annuities have been granted for the greatest part: and, even when the money was originally advanced on other conditions, the lenders have been sometimes induced, by subsequent offers, to accept of perpetual annuities, instead of the former terms. The debt, for which perpetual annuities are granted, is called the *redeemable debt*, and the other is called the *irredeemable debt*. Although the debts thus contracted by government are seldom paid for a long term of years; yet any creditor of the public may obtain money for what is due him when he pleases, by transferring his property in the funds to another; and regular methods are appointed for transacting these transfers in an easy manner. By these means, the stocks become a kind of circulating capital: they have the same effect, in some respects, as the circulating money in the nation. When a stockholder transfers his share, he may sometimes be able to obtain a greater price than the original value, and at other times be obliged to accept of a less one. The value of the funds depends on the proportion between the interest they bear, and the benefit which may be obtained by applying the money to other purposes. It is influenced by the plenty or scarcity of money, and by the greatness or smallness of the public debt; and it is impaired by any event which threatens the safety, or weakens the credit, of the government. The business of STOCK JOBBING is founded on the variation of the prices of stock. Persons possessed of real property may buy or sell stock, according to their notion that the value is likely to rise or fall, in expectation of making profit by the difference of price. And a practice has taken place among persons who often possess no property in the funds, to contract for the sale of

stock against a future day, at a price on. For instance: A agrees to sell bank stock, to be transferred, in 20 days. A has, in fact, no such stock; but, if bank stock, on the day appointed for should be only 118 per cent, A may much as will enable him to fulfil his contract for 120 per cent, and thus he gains 20 per cent. on the contrary, if the price of bank stock, on the day appointed, be 120 per cent, he will lose 20 per cent. The business is settled without any actual purchase or sale of stock, by A paying to B, or receiving from B, the difference between the current price of stock, on the day appointed, and the price by which A contracted to sell. This practice, which is really nothing more than a bet concerning the price of stock, is carried on to a great extent in the Exchange-alley, where many kinds of business are transacted, the buyer is called the *bull*, and the seller a *bear*. As neither party is compelled by law to implement these bargains, the sense of honour, and the disgrace attending a breach of the principles by which the business is conducted, are the only motives. When a person declines to pay his loan, he is called a *lame duck*, and dare never afterwards appear in the Alley. This opprobrious appellation, however, is not bestowed on those who are unable, owing to want of ability, providing the same surrender of their property voluntarily as the law would have exacted if the debt was entitled to its sanction. The interest on the stock is paid half-yearly; and the lender has the benefit of the interest due on his loan, from the last term to the time when the next term falls due. Therefore the prices of the stocks rise or fall, *ceteris paribus*, from term to term, according to the term when the interest is paid. In comparing the prices of the different stocks, it is necessary to convert them to the term when the last interest was paid, and allowance being made for this, the prices of all the government stocks, which bear interest at the same rate, must be the same, as they all depend on the same principle. When a loan is proposed, such terms are offered to the lenders, as may render the loan beneficial: and this is now regulated by the prices of the old stocks. If the stocks bear interest at 4 per cent, sell at par, or above par, the government may expect to borrow at that rate; but, if these stocks are under par, the government must either grant a higher interest, or some other advantage to the lenders, to compensate for the difference. For this purpose, besides the perpetual annuity, another annuity has sometimes been granted for life, or for a certain number of years. Lotteries have frequently been used to facilitate the loan, by entitling the lender to a certain number of tickets, for which a small price is charged than the exact value of the prizes, though their market price is sometimes 20 or 30 per cent higher. Sometimes an abatement of a certain proportion of the capital has been granted, and a lender entitled to hold 1000 l. in reality he advanced no more perhaps. It belongs to the Chancellor of the Exchequer to propose the terms of the loan in parliament, and he generally makes a previous agree-

althy merchant, who are willing to ad-
 ce money on the terms proposed. The
 ers to the loan deposite a certain part of
 subscribed; and are bound to pay the rest
 ments, or stated proportions, on appoint-
 , under pain of forfeiting what they have
 d. For this they are entitled, perhaps, not
 hold their share in the capital, but to an
 for 10 years, and to the right of receiving
 a number of lottery tickets on advantage.
 na. They may sell their capital to one
 their annuity to a second, and their right
 ckets to a third. The value of all these in-
 ogether is called *annuity*; and, in order to
 ready subscription, it ought to amount
 or upwards, on 100l. of capital. This
 is called the *bonus* to the subscribers.
 ital advanced to the public, in the form
 scorable stocks, and bearing interest from
 propriated for that purpose, is called the
lot. Besides, there is generally a con-
 sum due by government, which is not dif-
 in that manner, and therefore is distin-
 by the appellation of the *unfunded debt*.
 y arise from any sort of national expence,
 ch no provision has been made, or for
 e provision has proved insufficient. The
 nches are, 1. EXCHEQUER BILLS. These
 d from the exchequer, generally by ap-
 nt of parliament, and sometimes without
 ointment, when exigencies require. They
 rest from the time when issued, and are
 by the bank of England, which promotes
 mation. See EXCHEQUER, § 4. 2. NAVY
 The sums annually granted for the navy
 ays fallen short of what that service re-
 To supply that deficiency, the admiralty
 is in payment of victuals, stores, and the
 ch bear interest six months after the time
 The debt of the navy thus contracted is
 d, from time to time, by parliament. In
 war, the public expences, since the revo-
 ave always been much greater than the
 venue; and large sums have consequent-
 borrowed. In time of peace, the revenue
 the expence, and part of the public debts
 uently been paid off. But, though there
 u more years of peace than of war since
 s were established, the debts contracted
 ach war have much exceeded the pay-
 ing the subsequent peace. This will
 the following abstract of the progress of
 nal debt.

peace of Ryswick, 1697	L. 21,515,472
the beginning of war, 1701	16,394,701
debted during peace, 1697 to	5,121,071
the peace of Utrecht 1714,	
ing value of annuities af-	
ds subscribed to South Sea	
	55,282,978
ed during war 1701 to 1714	38,888,277
beginning of war 1740, in-	
g L. 1,000,000 charged on	
	47,954,623
ed during peace 1714 to	7,328,355

Debt at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle,
 1748

Contracted during war 1740 to 1748	L. 99,193,313
Debt at beginning of war 1756	31,238,690
Paid off during peace 1748 to 1756	73,289,673
Debt funded at the peace 1763, in-	5,903,649

cluding L. 9,839,597 then owing,
 which was funded in the subse-
 quent years 133,957,270

Besides this, about L. 6,000,000 of
 of debt was paid off, without ever
 being funded.

Funded debt, 1775 125,000,000

Paid off during peace 1763 to 1775,
 besides the above unfunded debt 8,959,270

Funded debt at the peace 1783 211,363,254

The unfortunate and destructive war, now carry-
 ing on against the French Republic, has added
 most enormously to the public debt. Some even
 suppose it has increased it by a sum of above two
 hundred millions.

(1.) * FUNDAMENT. *n. f.* [*fundamentum*,
 Latin.] The back part of the body.

(2.) FUNDAMENT, in anatomy, the lowest part
 of the intestinum rectum, called by anatomists the
 ANUS. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

(1.) * FUNDAMENTAL. *adj.* [*fundamentalis*,
 Lat. from *fundament*.] Serving for the foundation;
 that upon which the rest is built; essential; im-
 portant; not merely accidental.—Until this can
 be agreed upon, one main and *fundamental* cause
 of the most grievous war is not like to be taken
 from the earth. *Raleigh's Essays*.—

You that will be less fearful than discreet,
 That love the *fundamental* part of state,
 More than you doubt the charge of't. *Sh. Cor*
 —Others, when they were brought to allow the
 throne vacant, thought the succession should go
 to the next heir, according to the *fundamental*
 laws of the kingdom, as if the last king were ac-
 tually dead. *Swift*.—Gain some general and *fun-*
damental truths, both in philosophy, in religion,
 and in human life. *Watts*.—

Such we find they are, as can controul
 The servile actions of our wav'ring soul,
 Can fright, can alter, or can chain the will;
 Their ills all built on life, that *fundamental* ill.

Prior.

Yet some there were among the sounder few,
 Of those who less presum'd, and better knew,
 Who durst assert the juster ancient cause,
 And here restor'd wit's *fundamental* laws. *Pope*,

(2.) * FUNDAMENTAL. *n. f.* Leading proposi-
 tion; important and essential part which is the
 groundwork of the rest.—We propose the ques-
 tion, whether those who hold the *fundamentals* of
 faith may deny Christ, and be damnable in respect
 of superstructures and consequences that arise from
 them. *South*.—It is a very just reproach, that there
 should be so much violence and hatred in re-
 ligious matters, among men who agree in all *fun-*
damentals, and only differ in some ceremonics, or
 mere speculative points. *Swift*.

(3.) FUNDAMENTAL BASS, in music, that which
 serves for a foundation to the harmony. This
 part is according to Rousseau, and all authors
 who have proceeded upon M. Rameau's experi-

ment, in its primary idea, that bass which is formed by the fundamental notes of every perfect chord that constitutes the harmony of the piece; so that under each chord it causes to be heard, or understood, the fundamental sound of that particular chord; that is, the sound from whence it is derived by the rules of harmony. From whence we may see, that the fundamental bass can have no other contexture than that of a regular and fundamental succession, without which the procedure of the upper parts would be illegitimate. To understand this well, it is necessary to be known, that, according to the system of Rameau, which Rousseau has followed in his dictionary, every chord, though composed of several sounds, can only have one which is its fundamental, viz. that which produces this chord, and which is its bass according to the direct and natural order. (See § 4, 5.) Now, the bass which prevails under all the other parts, does not always express the fundamental sounds of the chords: for amongst all the sounds which form a chord, the composer is at liberty to transfer to the bass that which he thinks preferable; regard being had to the procedure of that bass, to the beauty of the melody, and above all to the expression, as afterwards explained. In this case the real fundamental sound, instead of retaining its natural station, which is in the bass, will either be transferred to some of the other parts, or perhaps even entirely suppressed, and such a chord is called an *inverted* chord. In reality, says Rameau, a chord inverted does not differ from the chord in its direct and natural order from which it was produced: but as these sounds form different combinations, these combinations have long been taken for fundamental chords; different names have been given them, which may be seen at the word ACCORD, in *Rousseau's Dictionary*. These names, by the persons who bestowed them, were thought to create and sanctify their distinctions; as if a difference in names could really produce a difference in the species. M. Rameau in his *Treatise of Harmony* has shown, and M. d'Alembert in his *Elements of Music* has still more clearly evinced, that many of these pretendedly different chords were no more than inversions of one single chord. Thus the chord of the 6th is no more than the perfect chord of the 3d transferred to the bass; by adding a 5th, we shall have the chord of the 6th and 4th. Here there are three combinations of a chord, which only consists of 3 sounds; those which contain 4 sounds are susceptible of 4 combinations, since each of these sounds may be transferred to the bass. But in adding beneath this another bass, which, under all the combinations of one and the same chord, always presents the fundamental sound; it is evident, that consonant chords are reduced to the number 3, and the number of dissonant chords to 4. Add to this all the chords by supposition, which may likewise be reduced to the same fundamentals, and you will find harmony brought to a degree of simplicity, in which no person could ever hope to see it, whilst its rules remained in that state of confusion where M. Rameau found them. It is certainly, as that author observes, an astonishing occurrence, that the practice of this art could be carried so

far as it really was, without knowing the reason; and that all the rules were so exact without having discovered the principles they depended. After having shewn the fundamental bass beneath the chords, now treat of its procedure, and of the way in which it connects these chords among. Upon this point the precepts of the 1st are reduced to the six following rules. 1. The fundamental bass ought never to sound notes, than those of the series or tone in which the composer finds himself, or at least those series or tone to which he chooses to maintain. This of all the rules for the fundamental bass is the first and most indispensable. 2d, its procedure ought to be so imbricated to the laws of modulation, as never to suffer the idea of a former mode to be lost, or of a subsequent one can be legitimately introduced: that is to say, that the fundamental bass never to be devious, or suffer us to be ignorant of the mode at a loss in what mode we are. 3d, it is subjected to the connection and the preparation of dissonances: a connection which, as we shall afterwards see, is not but a method of producing this connection which of consequence is only necessary. 4. By the 4th it is necessary to prepare every dissonance, to pursue that career of resolution of the dissonance indispen- scribes. See RESOLUTION. 5. By the 5th it is nothing else but a consequence of the fundamental bass ought only to move by consonant intervals; except alone in the case of a broken cadence, or after a chord of diminished, where it rises diatonically. 6. The motion of the fundamental bass is illegitimate. By the 6th, in short, the fundamental bass ought not to be syncopated; but to distinguish the bars and the times which they mark by changes of chords properly marked. 7. In such a manner, for instance, dissonances which ought to be prepared, their preparation in the imperfect time, so that all the repeses may happen in the same time. This sixth rule admits of an infinite number of exceptions; but the composer must ever to be attentive to it, if he would succeed in which the movements are proper and in which the bars may end gracefully. 8. Whenever these rules are observed, the harmony is regular and without fault: this, however, does not hinder the music from being detestable. POSITION, § 7. An illustration of the 5th rule may be useful. Whatever turn may be given to the fundamental bass, if it is properly formed, these alternatives must always be found in perfect chords moving by consonant intervals without which their efforts would have no effect; or, dissonant chords in operation: in every other case, the dissonance neither be properly placed nor properly prepared. Hence it follows, that the fundamental bass must not move regularly but in one of these three ways. 1st, To rise or descend by a 3d or a 4th. 2d, By a 4th or a 5th. 3dly, To rise diatonically by means of the dissonance which forms it.

by a licence upon a perfect chord. With to a diatonic descent, it is a motion absolutely prohibited to the fundamental bass; or, at least, severely tolerated in cases where two perfect are in succession, divided by a close expression understood. This rule has no other exception, it is from not discerning the foundation in transitions, that M. Rameau has caused fundamental bass to descend diatonically upwards of the 7th; an operation which is impossible in legitimate harmony. See **CADENCE**, § III, and **DISCORD**, § 2. The fundamental bass, which they add for no other reason, serve as a proof of the harmony, must be heeded in execution, and often in practice it have a very bad effect; for it is, as M. Rameau properly observes, intended for the eye, and not for the ear. It would at once produce a monotony extremely nauseous by its returns of the same chord, which they avoid and vary more agreeably, by combining it in different manners upon the continued bass, and reckoning upon the different inversions of the chord, which furnish a thousand means of new beauties to the music and new energy of expression. See **CHORD**, § II; and **INVERSION**.

But it may be objected, If the fundamental bass is not useful in composing good music, if it even be retrenched in practice, what good can it then, can it serve? We answer, that, in its place, it serves for a rule to scholars, upon which they may learn to form a regular harmony, and to give to all the parts such a diatonic movement; procedure as is prescribed them in the fundamental bass. 2dly, It proves whether harmony already formed be just and regular; harmony which cannot be subjected to the fundamental bass, must according to all be bad. 3dly, It serves for the investigation of continued bass under a given air; though, in it, he who cannot directly form a continued bass will scarcely be able to form a fundamental which is better; and much less still will he be able to transform that fundamental bass into a new continued bass. These which follow, however, the principal rules which M. Rameau prescribes for finding the fundamental bass under an air. 1. To ascertain with precision the point at which the composer begins, and those points at which he passes. There are also rules respecting the modes; but so long, so vague, and incomplete, that with respect to this, the ear is formed long before the rules are acquired; he dances who should try to use them without improvement, but the habit of proceeding always note by note, without even knowing what he is. 2. To try in succession, under each of the principal chords of the mode, beginning those which are most analogous, and passing to the most remote, when the composer feels it under a necessity of doing so. 3. To consider whether the chord chosen can suit the upper part in what precedes and in what follows, by a natural succession: and when this is impossible, to return the way he came. 4. Not to change the note of the fundamental bass till having exhausted all the notes which are allowed in succession in the upper part, and which can

enter into its chord; or till some syncopated note in the air may be susceptible of two or a greater number of notes in the bass, to prepare the dissonance which may be afterwards resolved according to rule. 5. To study the intertexture of the phrases; the possible succession of cadences, whether full or avoided; and above all, the pauses which for ordinary return at the end of every 4, or of every 2 bars, so that they may always fall upon perfect and regular cadences. 6. To observe all the rules formerly given for the composition of the fundamental bass.—These are the principal observations to be made for finding one under any given air; for there are sometimes several different ones which may be investigated. But, whatever may be said to the contrary, if the air has accent and character, there is only one just fundamental bass which can be adapted to it. After having given a summary explication of the manner in which a fundamental bass should be composed, it should remain to suggest the means of transforming it into a continued bass; and this would be easy, if it were only necessary to regard the diatonic procedure and the agreeable air of this bass. But let us not imagine that the bass, which is the guide and support of the harmony, the soul, and as it were the interpreter of the air, should be limited to rules so simple: there are others which depend upon principles more certain and radical; fruitful, but latent principles, which have been felt by every artist of genius, without having been detected by any one. Rousseau hopes, that, in his letter upon French music, he has insinuated this principle. For those who understand him, he imagines he has said enough concerning it, and can never say enough of it for those who do not. See *Rousseau's Miscellaneous*, Vol. II. p. 1. He does not here mention the ingenious system by M. Serre of Geneva, nor his double fundamental bass; because the principles, which, with a sagacity meritorious of praise, he had half detected, have afterwards been unfolded by M. Tartini, in a work of which Rousseau has given an account in his article **SYSTEM**.

(4.) A **FUNDAMENTAL CHORD**, is that whose bass is fundamental, and in which the sounds are ranged in the same order as when they are generated, according to the experiment so often repeated by M. d'Alembert, in his Preliminary Discourse and Element of Music. See **MUSIC**. But as this order removes the parts to an extreme distance one from the other, they must be approximated by combinations or inversions; but if the bass remains the same, the chord does not for this reason cease to bear the name of *fundamental*. Such an example is this chord, *ut mi sol*, included in the interval of a fifth: whereas, in the order of its generation, *ut sol mi*, it includes a tenth, and even a seventeenth; since the fundamental *ut* is not the fifth of *sol*, but the octave of that fifth.

(5.) A **FUNDAMENTAL SOUND** is that which forms the lowest note of the **CHORD**, and from whence are deduced the harmonical relations of the rest; or, which serves for a key to the tone. See **TONIC**.

* **FUNDAMENTALLY**. *adv.* [from *fundamental*.] Essentially; originally.—As virtue is seated *fundamentally* in the intellect, so perspective is in

in the fancy; so that virtue is the force of reason, in the conduct of our actions and passions to a good end. *Grew*.—Religion is not only useful to civil society, but *fundamentally* necessary to its very birth and constitution. *Bentley*.—The unlimited power placed *fundamentally* in the body of a people, the legislators endeavour to deposit in such hands as would preserve the people. *Swift*.

FUNDAON, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Beira; 22 miles W. of Alfayates.

FUNDI, in ancient geography, a town of Latium, on the Via Appia, near Cajeta; enjoying all the privileges of Roman citizens, except the right of suffrage and of magistracy; now called FONDI.

FUNDO, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, 44 miles WNW. of Birlat.

FUNDY, a bay of N. America, between New England and Nova Scotia, remarkable for its tides, which rise to the height of 50 or 60 feet, and flow so rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the shore. It has a good fishery.

FUNEN, FIONIA, or FYEN, a considerable island of Denmark, in the Baltic sea, separated from Jutland by a strait called the *Lesser Belt*, and from the island of Zealand by the *Great Belt*. It is 340 miles in circuit; is fertile in wheat and barley, and abounds in grain cattle, horses, game, and fish. Odensee is the capital. Lon. from 9. 40. to 10. 50. E. Lat. 55. 7. to 55. 42. N.

(1.) * FUNERAL. *adj.* Used at the ceremony of interring the dead.—

Our instruments to melancholy bells,
Our wedding cheer to a sad funeral feast. *Shak.*
Let such honours
And funeral rites, as to his birth and virtues
Are due, be first perform'd. *Denham's Sophy.*
Thy hand o'er towns the fun'ral torch displays,
And forms a thousand ills ten thousand ways.

Dryden.

(2.) * FUNERAL. *n. s.* [*funus*, Latin; *funerailles*, French.] 1. The solemnization of a burial; the payment of the last honours to the dead; obsequies—

Here, under leave of Brutus, and the rest,
Come I to speak in Cæsar's funeral. *Shak.*
All things that we ordained festival,
Turn from their office to black funeral. *Shak.*
—He that had cast out many unburied, had none to mourn for him, nor any solemn funerals, nor sepulchre with his fathers. 2 *Mac.* v. 10.—

No widow at his funeral shall weep. *Sandys.*
2. The pomp or procession with which the dead are carried.—

The long funerals blacken all the way. *Pope.*
—You are sometimes desirous to see a funeral pass by in the street. *Swift.* 3. Burial; interment.—

May he find his funeral
I' th' sands, when he before his day shall fall.

Denham.

(3.) FUNERAL GAMES, a part of the ceremony of the ancient funerals. It was customary for persons of quality, among the ancient Greeks and Romans, to institute games, with all sorts of exercises, to render the death of their friends more remarkable. This practice was general, and is often mentioned by ancient writers. Patroclus's

funeral games take up the greatest part of Homer's *Iliads*; and Agamemnon's games, introduced by the same poet, telling the Greeks, that he had been a spectator at a number of such solemnities. The celebrated games among the Greeks mostly consisted of races; the prizes were of different sort according to the quality and magnificence of the person that celebrated them. The games to victors on such occasions were usual, which was thought to have some relation to the dead. Those games, the Romans, consisted chiefly of processions, sometimes of mortal combats of gladiators, and sometimes of the funeral pile. They, as well as the Greeks, had also a custom, though very ancient, of sacrificing the throats of a number of captives to the pile, as victims to appease the manes of the deceased. Cæsar relates, that the Gauls used this custom. The funeral games were also instituted by the emperor Claudius.

(4.) FUNERAL ORATION, a discourse delivered in praise of a person deceased, at the time of his funeral. This custom is very ancient, and the annexed account of the Egyptian interment, (See § 6.) may be perceived to be the subject of them, which were afterwards adopted by the Romans, who adopted this custom. I omit remarking, that those funeral orations were attended not only with orations in praise of the deceased, but with prayers for him, and for one who personated the deceased. An example of one of these is preserved by Porphyry (says he) they (the Egyptians) embalmed the deceased nobles, they privately take out the heart, and lay them up in an ark or chest: among other things which they do for the deceased, lifting up the ark or chest, they invoke him; one of the Libyans, having a prayer for the deceased, which he has translated out of the Egyptian language is as follows:—O lord, the sun, and the gods who give life to man, receive me, and admit me into the society of the immortal ones; as I lived in this world, I religiously worshipped the gods whom my parents showed me, and I always honoured those who begat me, nor have I killed any man, nor have I defiled myself with what has been committed to my trust, nor have I done any thing which is inexpiable whilst I was alive, if I have sinned either by eating or drinking any thing which was not lawful, nor through myself have I sinned, but through others, showing the ark and chest which I have made, and the trails were. And having thus spoke, they throw the ark and chest into the river, but the rest of the balms as pure." The Grecians received this custom of superstition and idolatrous worship from the Egyptians, by Cecrops, Cadmus, Demochares, and Erechtheus, coming into Greece; and other customs transplanted from Egypt to Greece, and solemnities used at the burial of the dead, these, an encomium on the deceased added a part. From the Egyptians and especially the latter, the Romans received many of their laws and customs, as well as

polytheism and idolatrous worship. It is now, that the custom of making funeral orations in praise of the dead obtained among the Romans, and the manner in which their funeral services performed will be found described in § 9. The corpse being brought into their great oratory, the *Rostra*, the next of the kin *laudabat deum pro reſtris*, i. e. made a funeral oration, commendation principally of the party deceased, but touching the worthy acts also of those decessors whose images were there present. Tacitus says, that: "In all the funerals of especially in the public or indistinctive, the custom was first brought with a vast train of followers to the Forum; here one of the nearest relatives ascended the rostra, and obliged the audience with an oration in praise of the deceased. If not of the kindred undertook the office, it was performed by some of the most eminent persons for learning and eloquence, as Appianus of the funeral of Sylla. And Pliny the younger reckons it as the last addition to the honour of a very great man, that he had the honour of being praised at his funeral by the most eloquent man, then consul; which is agreeable to Livy's account of this matter, *Nam et sanctum*. For the funeral orations (says he) were very often on some public office, and by order of senate are many times given in charge to magistrates to be performed by themselves in public. The invention of this custom is generally ascribed to Valerius Poplicola, soon after the fall of the regal family. Plutarch tells us, honouring his colleague's obsequies with a funeral oration, it so pleased the Romans, that it became customary for the best men to celebrate the funerals of great persons with speeches in their commendations." Thus Julius Cæsar, according to Plutarch, made an oration in the rostra, in praise of his wife Cornelia, and his aunt Julia, when wherein he showed, that his aunt's descent, from his mother's side, was from kings, and by her was from the gods. Plutarch says, that "he was of the law of the Romans, which orderable praises to be given to women as well as men after death." Though by what he says of their place, it seems that the old Roman law was that funeral orations should be made only by elder women; and therefore he says, that this was the first that made one upon his own wife, it not being then usual to take notice of men or women in that way: but by that action he obtained much favour from the populace, who all ranks looked upon him, and loved him as a mild and good man. The reason why such a custom was made in favour of the women, Livy tells us, was this, That when there was such a want of money in the public treasury, that the king was forced upon to give the Gauls to break up the siege of the city and capitol could not be raised, the women collected among themselves and made a fund, who hereupon had not only thanks given but this additional honour, that after death, they should be solemnly praised as well as the men, which looks as if, before this time, only men had those funeral orations made for them.

FUNERAL RITES, ceremonies accompany-

ing the burial of any person. See **BURIAL**, § 2. The Latin word, *funus*, is derived from the Greek, *φύσις*, death. These rites differed among the ancients according to the different genius and religion of each country. See § 6—14.

(6.) **FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS.** The first people who seem to have paid any particular respect to their dead, were the Egyptians, the posterity of Ham; as they were the first cultivators of idolatrous worship and superstition after the flood, they were also the first who asserted the immortality of the soul, in its migration into all kinds of animals in earth, air, and sea, and its return to the human body; which they supposed to be within the term of 3000 years. Hence proceeded their very great care in embalming their dead bodies, (see **CATACOMBS**, § 2; and **EMBALMING**), and their being at such vast expence in building proper repositories for them; for they were more solicitous about their graves than their houses. This gave birth to those wonders of the world, the pyramids, which were built for the burial of their kings, with such vast charges, and almost incredible magnificence. See **PYRAMID**. Whenever a person died among the Egyptians, his parents and friends put on mournful habits, and abstained from all banquets and entertainments. This mourning lasted from 40 to 70 days, during which time they embalmed the body. See **EMBALMING**. The embalmed body was restored to the friends, who placed it in a kind of open chest, which was preserved either in their houses, or in the sepulchres of their ancestors. But before the dead were deposited in the tomb, they underwent a solemn judgment, which extended even to their kings. Of this remarkable custom we have a particular account in the 1st book of Diodorus Siculus. "Those, who prepare to bury a relation, give notice of the day intended for the ceremony to the judges, and to all the friends of the deceased; informing them, that the body will pass over the lake of that district to which the dead belonged: when, on the judges assembling, to the number of more than 40, and ranging themselves in a semicircle on the farther side of the lake, the vessel is set afloat, which those who superintend the funeral have prepared for this purpose. This vessel is managed by a pilot, called in the Egyptian language **CHARON**; and hence they say, that Orpheus, travelling in old times into Egypt, and seeing this ceremony, formed his fable of the infernal regions, partly from what he saw, and partly from invention. The vessel being launched on the lake, before the coffin which contains the body is put on board, the law permits all, who are so inclined, to produce an accusation against it. If any one steps forth, and proves that the deceased has led an evil life, the judges pronounce sentence, and the body is precluded from burial; but if the accuser is convicted of injustice in his charge, he falls himself under a considerable penalty. When no accuser appears, or when the accuser is proved to be an unfair one, the relations, who are assembled, change their expressions of sorrow into encomiums on the dead; yet do not, like the Greeks, speak in honour of his family, because

because they consider all Egyptians as equally well born; but they set forth the education and manners of his youth, his piety and justice in maturer life, his moderation, and every virtue by which he was distinguished; and they supplicate the infernal deities to receive him as an associate among the blest. The multitude join their acclamations of applause in this celebration of the dead, whom they consider as going to pass an eternity among the just below." Such is the description which Diodorus gives of this funeral judicature, to which even the kings of Egypt were subject. The same author asserts, that many sovereigns had been thus judicially deprived of the honours of burial by the indignation of their people: and that the terrors of such a fate had the most salutary influence on the virtue of their kings.

(7.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT GREEKS. It was usual sometimes before the interment, to put a piece of money into the mouth of the deceased, which was thought to be Charon's fare for wafting the departed soul over the infernal river. This ceremony was not used in those countries which were supposed to be situated in the neighbourhood of the infernal regions, and to lead thither by a ready and direct road. The corpse was likewise furnished with a cake, composed of flour, honey, &c. which was designed to appease the fury of Cerberus, the door-keeper of hell, and to procure the ghost a safe and quiet entrance. During the time the corpse continued in the house, there stood before the door a vessel of water: the design of which was, that those concerned about the body might purify themselves by washing; it being the opinion of the Greeks, as well as of the Jews, that pollution was contracted by touching a dead body. The ceremonies by which they expressed their sorrow for the death of their friends were various; but it seems to have been a constant rule to recede as much as possible in habit and behaviour from their ordinary customs. For this reason they abstained from banquets and entertainments; they divested themselves of all ornaments; they tore, cut off, or shaved their hair, which they cast into the funeral pile, to be consumed with the body of their deceased friend. Sometimes they throw themselves on the ground, and relied in the dust, or covered their head with ashes; they beat their breasts, and even tore their flesh with their nails, upon the loss of a person they much lamented. When persons of rank, such as public magistrates or great generals, died, the whole city put on a face of mourning; all public meetings were intermitted; the schools, baths, shops, temples, and all places of concourse, were shut up. After interment followed the *epulæ* or feasts, at which the company used to appear crowned; when they spoke in praise of the dead, so far as they could go with truth, it being esteemed a notorious wickedness to lie upon such an occasion. And not only at those feasts, but even before the company departed from the sepulchre, they were sometimes entertained with a panegyric upon the dead person. The Grecian soldiers, who died in war, had not only their tombs adorned with inscriptions, showing their names, parentage, and

exploits, but were also honoured with in their praise. The custom among them in the interment of their soldiers was namely, "They used to place the bodies of the dead in tents 3 days before the funeral, that persons might have opportunity to finish their relations, and pay their last respects. Upon the 4th day a coffin of cypress was made from every tribe, to convey the bodies of the dead to their own relations; after which went a cortege in memory of those whose bodies could not be found. All these, accompanied with the chief body of the people, were carried to the burying place, called *Ceramicus*, and there interred. One oration was spoken in commemoration of them all, and their monuments adorned with pillars, inscriptions, and all other ornaments about the tombs of the most honourable persons. The oration was pronounced by the chief of those deceased persons, who behaved most valiantly. Thus, after the famous battle of Marathon, the fathers of Callimachus and Pindarus were appointed to make the funeral oration. And upon the return of the fleet from the Sicilian expedition, which the solemnity was first held, the funeral oration was constantly repeated every year, when the Athenians were returning or laying the dead in the ground. It has been the most ancient practice among the Greeks; though burning came afterwards generally used among them. It was usual to throw into the funeral pile those garments which the deceased usually wore. The pile was kindled by one of the deceased's nearest relations, who made prayers and vows to the gods, that the body might quickly be consumed to ashes; and during the time of burning, the dead person's friends poured libations of wine, and called out the name of the deceased. See BURNING, § 5.

(8.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT JEWS, were solemn and magnificent. When a person was dead, his relations and friends gathered about his body, and dressed it in their clothes; which custom is but followed by the modern Jews, who only cut off a lock of their garment, in token of affliction. When they were to bend the dead person's thumb into the palm, and fasten it in that posture with a cord, to signify the name of God, they thought the devil dared not to approach it. When they carried the body to the burying place, they made a speech to the following terms: "Blessed be God who formed thee, fed thee, maintained thee, and taken away thy life. O dead! be thou remembered, and shall one day restore you. Then they spoke the elegiac, or funeral oration of the deceased; after which they said, 'The soul of the deceased is called the *righteousness of judgment*; and the face of the deceased towards his friends is called out, "Go in peace."

(9.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT ROMANS, were very numerous. The body was kept 7 days; and every day was sprinkled with hot water, and sometimes with incense. The deceased were only in a slumber, and thus waked; and every now and then their friends meeting, made a horrible noise about, with the same view; which

ned CONCLAMATIO. The last conclamation on the 7th day; when, if no signs of life shew'd, the defunct was dressed and embalmed by POLLINCTORES; placed in a bed near the door, with his face and heels towards the street; outside of the gate, if the deceased were of high station, was garnished with cypress boughs. At the close of these 7 days, an altar was raised at the head-side, called ACERRA; on which his family every day offered incense; and the libations provided things for the funeral. On the 7th day a crier was sent about the city, to invite the people to the solemnization of the funeral in these words: *Exequias L. Tit. L. filii, quibus est commotum, jam tempus est. Ollus* (i. e. ille) *ex adibus*. The people being assembled, and the conclamation ended, the bed was covered with a purple cloth: a trumpet-bearer marched forth, followed by women called *præfixæ*, singing longes in praise of the deceased: lastly, the bed followed, borne by the next relations; and if the person were of high rank and office, the waxen images of all his ancestors were carried before him on poles. The bier was followed by his children, kindred, and friends, *rati*, i. e. in mourning: from which act of mourning the funeral rites were called *præfixæ*. The body thus brought to the rostra, the orator made an oration in his praise and that of his ancestors. This done, the body was carried to the funeral pile, and there burnt: the first cutting off a finger, to be buried as a second solemnity. The body consumed, the friends were gathered; and the priest sprinkling the body thrice with clean water, the eldest son crying aloud, *ilicet*, dismissed the company, who took their leave of the deceased in these words, *Vale, vale, vale: nos te ordine quo permiserit sequemur*.—The ashes, inclosed in a leaden box, were laid in the sepulchre or tomb.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE CHINESE. See CHINESE, § 36, and CHINESE, § 12.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS. See AMERICANS, § 9.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE PRIMITIVE CHRISTIANS. The ancient Christians testified their abhorrence of the Pagan custom of burning the dead, and always deposited the body in the ground: and it was usual to give the honour of embalming upon the male sex, if not upon others. They prepared the body for burial, by washing it with water, and dressing it in a funeral attire. The carrying of the body was performed by near relations, or persons of such dignity as the circumstances of the deceased required. Singing of psalms was a ceremony used in all funeral processions by the ancient Christians.

FUNERAL RITES IN THE CHURCH OF ROME.

When a Roman catholic is dead, they lay out the body, and put a crucifix in its hand. Next stands a vessel full of holy water, and the priest, that they who come in may sprinkle themselves and the deceased. In the meanwhile the priest stands by the corpse, and prays for the deceased till it is laid in the earth. In the funeral procession, the exorcist walks first, carrying a vessel of holy water; next the crossbearer; after which the friends of the deceased, and

towards the rest of the clergy, and last of all the officiating priest. They all sing the *miserere*, and some other psalms; and at the end of each psalm a *requiem*. We learn from Alet's ritual, that the faces of deceased laymen must be turned towards the altar, when they are placed in the church; and those of the clergy towards the people. The corpse is placed in the church surrounded with lighted tapers; after the office for the dead, mass is said; then the officiating priest sprinkles the corpse thrice with holy water, and as often throws incense on it. The body being laid in the grave, the friends and relations of the deceased sprinkle the grave with holy water.

(14.) The FUNERAL RITES OF THE GREEK CHURCH are much the same with those of the Latin. See § 13. It needs only to be added, that, after the funeral service, they kiss the crucifix, and salute the mouth and forehead of the deceased: after which each of the company eats a bit of bread and drinks a glass of wine in the church, wishing the soul a good repose, and the afflicted family all consolation.

(15.) FUNERAL SERMONS. The custom of the pagan Romans, in pronouncing funeral orations in praise of their deceased heroes, (§ 4,) appears to have been very early adopted by the Christians. Some of their funeral sermons or orations are still extant, as that of Eusebius on Constantine; those of Nazianzen on Basil and Cæsar; and of Ambrose on Valentinian, Theodosius, and others. Gregory, the brother of Basil, made a funeral oration, for Melitius bishop of Antioch: in which orations, they not only praised the dead, but addressed themselves to them, which seems to have introduced the custom of praying to departed saints. Now these orations were usually made before the bodies of the deceased were committed to the ground; which custom has been more or less continued ever since, to this day. Though this practice is now considerably improved, and cleared of many things which would smell too rank of paganism, and is even thrown into a method which, perhaps, may be of some service to Christianity; yet, notwithstanding this new dress, its original may very easily be discerned. The method in which the characters of deceased persons are given in our funeral sermons, is very much the same with that observed in those pagan orations; where first an account is given of the parentage of the deceased, then of his education; after that, we hear of his conduct in riper years: then his many virtues are reckoned up, with his generous, noble, and excellent performances.—Nor let the practice be condemned because of its rise and original; for why may not the custom of heathens, if just and laudable in themselves, and nowise pernicious to Christianity in their consequences, be followed by Christians? Only, since we are come into this practice, there is one thing we should take care to follow them in; and that is, not to make those funeral sermons or orations for every one; but for those only whose characters are distinguished, as eminently useful in the world, and in the church of Christ. The old heathens honoured those alone with this part of the funeral solemnity, who were men of probity and justice, renowned for their

wisdom and knowledge, or famous for warlike exploits: This, as Cicero informs us, (*De Legib.* l. 2.) being part of the law for burials; which directs, that the praises only of honourable persons shall be mentioned in the oration. It would be much more agreeable, therefore, if our funeral discourses were not so common, and if the characters given of the deceased were more just; devoid of that fulsome flattery with which they too often abound.

* **FUNERAL.** *adi.* [*funerea*, Latin.] Suits a funeral; dark; dismal.—

But if his soul hath wing'd the destin'd flight,
Inhabitant of deep disastrous night,
Homeward with pious speed repass the main,
To the pale shade *funereal* rites ordain. *Pope.*

FUNSKIRCHEN, or **FIVE CHURCHES**, a town of Hungary, and bishop's see, between the Drave and the Danube; 110 miles W. of Belgrade.

FUNGANDO, or } a kingdom of Africa, be-
FUNGENDO, } tween the Zaire and Coanza, subject to the king of Anliko.

(1.) **FUNGI**, [from *φύγος*, *fungus*,] in botany, the 4th order of the 24th class of vegetables, in the Linnæan system: comprehending all those which are of the mushroom kind, and which in Tournefort's constitute the 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th, genera of the first section in the class xvii. This order contains 10 genera. See **AGARICUS**, **BOLETUS**, **CLAVARIA**, **LYCOPERDON**, &c. and **BOTANY**, *Index*.

(2.) **FUNGI**, an order of plants in the *Fragmenta Methodi Naturalis* of Linnæus. See **BOTANY**, *Index*. The ancients called fungi *children of the earth*, to indicate the obscurity of their origin. The moderns have likewise been at a loss in what rank to place them; some referring them to the animal, some to the vegetable, and others to the mineral kingdom. Messrs Wilek and Minchausen have not scrupled to rank these bodies among animal productions; because, when fragments of them or their seeds were macerated in water, these gentlemen perceived a quantity of animalcules discharged, which they supposed capable of being changed into the same substance. It was an ancient opinion, that *bees could produce bees*; but it was reserved to Messrs Wilek and Minchausen to suppose, that *bees could produce bees*. Wilek asserts, that fungi consist of innumerable cavities, each inhabited by a polype; and he does not hesitate to ascribe the formation of them to their inhabitants, in the same way as it has been said that the **CORAL**, the lichen, and the mucor, were formed. Hedwig has lately shown how ill founded this opinion is with respect to the lichen; and M. Durande has demonstrated its falsity with regard to the corallines. “Indeed (says M. Bonnet, talking of the animality of fungi) nothing but the rage for paradox could induce any one to publish such a fable; and I regret that posterity will be able to reproach our times with it. Observation and experiment should enable us to overcome the prejudices of modern philosophy; now, that those of the ancients have disappeared and are forgotten.” It cannot be denied that the mushroom is one of the most perishable of all plants, and it is therefore the most favourable for the generation of insects. Considering the quickness of its growth, it

must be furnished with the power of absorption; the extremity of its vessels much dilated than in other plants. Its root in many cases, to be merely intended for support, for some species grow upon stones or sand, from which it is impossible they can derive much nourishment. We must therefore conclude that it is chiefly by the stalk that they are nourished. These stalks grow in a moist and fair soil, in which float multitudes of eggs, so small that very insects they produce are with difficulty seen by the microscope. These eggs may be compared to the particles of the Byssus, 100,000 as M. Gleditsch says, are not equal to 1 grain. May we not suppose that a quantity of these eggs are absorbed by the vessels of the stalk, and that they remain there, without any change, until the plant begins to decay? Besides, the eggs may only be deposited on the surface of the plant, and may exist in the water into which they fall, for examination. Do not we see that seeds dispersed through the air, are hatched in paste, &c. and wherever they find a proper nidus for their development? Can we be surpris'd then, that the corruption of the water should make the water capable of sustaining beings that are really foreign to it? It is not more easy to acquiesce in the opinion of the naturalists who place the fungi in the mineral kingdom, because they are found growing upon stones, thence called *Lapides Fungar*, however, must be covered with a little water, and be watered with tepid water, in order to promote the growth. Such mushrooms are no more the produce of the stone, than the lichen of the rock to which it adheres, or the moss of the stone on which it is found. We have only the growth of mushrooms, to be convinced that this happens by development, and not by combination of parts as in mineral productions. In the opinion of Boeccone, who attributed the growth of mushrooms to a unctuous matter performing the function of the seed, and acquiring extension by apposition of parts; and that of Morison, who conceived that they grew spontaneously out of the earth, from a certain mixture of salt and sulphur, joined with the dung of quadrupeds, have never any adherents. Fungi are produced by development; they are subject to those vicissitudes natural to the duration of life which characterize living beings; they perish and die. They extract, by the extremity of their vessels, the juices with which they are nourished; they elaborate and assimilate these into their own substance. They are, therefore, to be considered as living beings, and consequently as belonging to the vegetable kingdom. But whether they are real plants, or only the production of a certain matter in dispute with the ablest philosophers, is still a matter in dispute with the ablest philosophers. Some ancient authors have pretended that the seed of mushrooms; but the opinion is never generally received. Petronius, laughing at the ridiculous magnificence of Trimalchio, relates, that he had written to the Indies for the seed of the morelle. The productions were generally attributed to the excessive humidity of rotten wood, or of other substances. The opinion took its rise from

grew most copiously in rainy weather. is the opinion of Tragus, of Bauhin, and columnna, who, talking of the peziza, says, substance was more solid and harder, but did not originate from rotten wood, but *pirrita* of the earth. It is not surprising times when the want of experiment rivation made people believe that insects : generated by putrefaction, we should opinion general, that fungi owed their o- he putrescence of bodies, or to a viscous analogous to putridity. Malpighi could y himself as to the existence of seeds which staniita had pretended to discover. He , that these plants must have them, or perpetuate themselves and shoot by frag- Micheli, among the moderns, appears to played himself most successfully on this

He imagined, that he not only saw the it even the stamina, as well as the little nt bodies destined to favour the dissemi- id the fecundation of these seeds. Before or, Lister thought he perceived seeds in us *perojus crassus magnus* of John Bauhin : round bodies that are found in the pezi- helvellæ, at that time, passed for seeds ; d not appear at all probable to Marfigli, ng that the eye, when assisted with the microscopes, could perceive nothing si- much larger fungi. Indeed these bodies the capsules or covers of the seeds, if not the seeds themselves. However this Marfigli, observing that fungi were often roots or branches, and that they wanted nd seeds, the means which nature em- the production of perfect plants, thought rarranted in doubting whether these be- d be ranked in the number of vegetables. bts of Marfigli prompted him to observa- tion of fungi. Their matrix he called he imagined they grew in places where with an unctuous matter, composed of xed with nitrous salt, which, by ferment- reduced heat and moisture, and insinua- between the fibres of wood ; that is, he them the production of a viscous and t humour. Lancini, in like manner, con- ngi as owing their existence to the pu- of vegetables, and supposed them a dif- e plant ; but he imagined, " that the fi- he tree were necessary to their produc- is the case in the formation of galls ; he l them to the warts and other excrescen- e human body. He added, that such vegetable tumors must necessarily assume rms and figures, from the fluids which : tubes and vessels relaxed by putrescence, ductility of the fibres and their direction, the action of the air. This opinion has ted by the celebrated naturalist M. de n the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences*

He maintains, that the fungi have a ogy with the lichen, which is allowed getable ; that, like the lichen, they are f stalk, branches, and leaves : that, like ow and are nourished upon the trunks of pieces of rotten wood, and on all sorts vegetables ; that they resemble the lichen

too in the rapidity of their growth, and the faci- lity with which many of them may be dried and restored to their former figure, upon being immer- sed in water ; and, lastly, that there is a great simila- rity in the manner in which their seeds are produced. He affirms, that only the warts and excrescences which grow on animal bodies, and the knots and other tumors that are to be found on trees, can be compared with one another ; for they are com- posed equally of the solid and liquid substance of the plant or animal on which they grow ; where- as, the matter of the fungi is not only quite dis- tinct from that of the plants on which they are found, but often entirely similar to the substance of those that spring immediately from the earth. The organization, says M. de Jussieu, which dis- tinguishes plants and other productions of nature, is visible in the fungi ; and the particular organi- zation of each species is constant at all times and in all places ; a circumstance which could not happen, if there were not an animal reproduction of species, and consequently a multiplication and propagation by seed. This is not, he says, an i- maginary supposition ; for the seeds may be felt like meal upon mushrooms with gills, especially when they begin to decay ; they may be seen with a magnifying glass, in those that have gills with black margins : and, lastly, says he, botanists can have no doubt that fungi are a distinct class of plants ; because, by comparing the observations made in different countries with the figures and descriptions of such as have been engraven, the same genera and the same species are every where found. Not- withstanding this refutation by M. de Jussieu, a- nother naturalist, M. de Necker, has lately main- tained, in his *Mycitologia*, That the fungi ought to be excluded from the three kingdoms of na- ture, and be considered as intermediate beings. He has observed, like Marfigli, the matrix of the fungi : and has substituted the word *carchte* (ini- tium faciens) instead of *fitus* ; imagining that the rudiment of the fungus cannot exist beyond that point in which the developement of the filaments or fibrous roots is perceived. He allows, that fungi are nourished and grow like vegetables ; but he thinks that they differ very much from them in respect of their origin, structure, nutrition, and rapidity of growth. He says, that the various vessels which compose the organization of vegeta- bles are not to be found in the fungi, and that they seem entirely composed of cellular substance and bark ; so that this simple organization is nothing more than an aggregation of vessels endowed with a common nature, that suck up the moisture in the manner of a sponge ; with this difference, that the moisture is assimilated into a part of the fun- gus. Lastly, That the fructification, the only es- sential part of a vegetable, and which distinguish- es it from all other organized bodies, being want- ing, fungi cannot be considered as plants. This he thinks confirmed, by the constant observation of those people who gather the morelle and the mushroom, and who never find them in the same spots where they have formerly grown. As the generation of fungi (says M. Necker) is always performed when the parenchymatous or cellular substance has changed its nature, form, and func- tion, we must conclude that it is the degeneration

of that part which produces these bodies. But if fungi were owing merely to the degeneration of plants, they would be still better entitled to constitute a new kingdom. They would then be a decomposition, not a new formation, or new bodies. Besides, we cannot deny, that in those bodies, which form the limit between the animal and vegetable kingdoms, the organization becomes simple, as the organs destined for nutrition are multiplied: but, as the last in the class of insects belongs to the animal kingdom, fungi ought, notwithstanding the simplicity of their organization, still to belong to the vegetable kingdom. The parenchymatous or cellular substance, which, as M. Bonnet says, is universally extended, embraces the whole fibrous system, and becomes the principal instrument of growth, must naturally be more abundant in these productions; and this accounts for the rapidity of their enlargement. Besides, growth, whether slow or rapid, never was employed to determine the presence or absence of the vegetable or animal character. The *draba verna*, which, in a few weeks shoots, puts forth its leaves, its flowers, and fruit, is not less a plant than the palm. The insect that exists but for a day, is as much an animal as the elephant that lives for centuries. As to the seeds of the fungi, it is probable that nature meant to withdraw from our eyes the dissemination of these plants, by making the seeds almost imperceptible; and it is likewise probable that naturalists have seen nothing but their capsules. Since, however, from the imperfection of our senses, we are unable to perceive these seeds, ought we to infer that they do not exist? Are we authorised to conclude this, because we do not find mushrooms where we have found them a year before? Undoubtedly not; for the greater part of plants require a particular soil, and the same mould that this year will foster a rare plant, will next year allow it to perish. Neither are we at liberty to deny the existence of these seeds, because those bodies which have been called their seeds, and the fragments or cuttings of the plants themselves, have not produced others of the same species. Nature seems to have reserved for herself the care of disseminating certain plants: it is in vain, for instance, that the botanist sows the dust found in the capsules of the orchis, which every one allows to be the seed. But, after all, what are those parts in the fungi casually observed by naturalists, and which they have taken for the parts of fructification? These are quite distinct from the other parts, and whatever may be their use, they cannot have been formed by prolongation of the cellular substance, or of the fibres of the tree on which the fungus grows: they are, therefore, owing, like flower and fruit, to the proper organization of the plant. These plants, therefore, have a particular existence, independent of their putrefying nidus. The gills of certain fungi, which differ essentially from the rest of the plant in their conformation, would be sufficient to authorize this latter opinion. But can putrefaction create an organic substance? Nature undoubtedly disseminates through the air and over the surface of the earth, innumerable seeds of fungi, as well as eggs of insects. The plant and the animal are excluded, when the nidus or the

temperature is favourable for their development. No fortuitous concurrence, either of atoms could produce bodies so exquisitely and so highly organized. It is sufficient to throw one on the beautiful plates which Schæffer has made of them, and compare them by the glass with warts and other excrescences of animals, to be convinced that they have not the same origin. The function of the cellular substance in vegetables is greatly superior to that in animals, if it produce any thing but deformities. The part of fungi exhibit a configuration muscular, constant, and uniform, to be the effect of chance or putrefaction. As this form is the same in all places where fungi have been found, it follows, that they contain the principles of their reproduction. They resemble mistletoe, and other parasitic plants, which are perfectly distinct from the trees on which they grow. The fungi, therefore, are organic living substances, or true plants. If the mode of their production is unknown, that of their seeds is so too.

FUNGIBLES, in Scots law, are such as are estimated by number, weight, or measure, as coin, butter, ale, &c.

FUNGITÆ, in natural history, a kind of file coral, of a conic figure, though flattened and striated longitudinally.

* **FUNGOSITY**. *n. f.* [from *fungus*.] An excrescence. *Dist.*

* **FUNGOUS**. *adj.* [from *fungus*.] Excessively spongy; wanting firmness.—It is often used to keep down the *fungous* lips that sprout from the bone; but it is much more painful in escharotick medicines. *Sharp's Surg.*

(1.) * **FUNGUS**. *n. f.* [Latin.] Strictly, a room: a word used to express such excrescent flesh as grow out upon the lips of wounds, or other excrescence from trees or plants not naturally belonging to them; as the agarick on the larch-tree, and auriculæ Judææ from elder.—The surgeon ought to vary the diet as long as the ulcers are too fluid, and produce *funguses*, or as they harden and produce *Arbuth. on Diet*.—This eminence is composed of little points, or granula, called *fungus*, or *flesh*. *Sharp*.

(2.) **FUNGUS**. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

* **FUNICLE**. *n. f.* [*funiculus*, Lat.] A cord; a small ligature; a fibre.

* **FUNICULAR**. *adj.* [*funiculaire*, *funicle*.] Consisting of a small cord or fibre.

(1.) * **FUNK**. *n. f.* A stink. A low.

(2.) **FUNK** in geography, a small island in the Atlantic, near the NE. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 52. 15. W. Lat. 50. 0. N.

FUNICABUN, a town of Persia, in the province of Mazanderan, 15 miles W. of Fareha.

(1.) * **FUNNEL**. *n. f.* [*infundibulum*, whence *fundible*, *fundle*, *funnel*.] 1. A hollow cone with a pipe descending from the top, by which liquors are poured into vessels with mouths; a tundish.—If you pour a glass of wine upon a bottle, it receives little of it; but if you pour it through a *funnel*, and by degrees, you shall fill the bottle. *Ben Johnson*.—

the long *funnel's* curious mouth extend, which ingested meats with ease denied.

Blackm. Forward ear or auricula is made hollow, acted by degrees, to draw the sound in as much as may be of it, as we used to pour liquor into any vessel. *Ray.* For passage of communication.—To the middle are two large *funnels*, bored in the roof of the grotto, to let in light or addition.

SMOKE OF A CHIMNEY, the shaft or part of the waste, where it is gathered in dimensions. Palladio directs, that the chimneys be carried throughout the house five feet at least, that they may carry clear from the house into the air. See FIRE-PLACE, &c. He also advises, that chimneys be not made narrower than 15 inches, nor broader than 15; for if wider, the smoke will not be able to make its way, and if too wide the wind will drive it into the room.

Lat. adi. Full of fun; merry. *Asb.*

FERMUNSTER, or FINSTERMINSTER, a town of the Helvetic republic, in Engadina; French, under Massena and Lecourbe, taken on the 26th March, 1799, but afterwards dislodged by the Austrians. A town of Naples, in the province of Terra, 21 miles SSE. of Solmona.

FUR. *n. f.* [*fourrure*, French.] 1. Skin or hair, with which garments are lined for warmth or covered for ornament.—December pressed with a horrid and fearful countenance, as also at his back a bundle of holly, a fur mittens the sign of Capricorn. —'Tis but dressing up a bird of prey in a fur to make a judge of him. *L'Est.*—A lordly gout wrapt up in fur, freezing asthma, loth to stir.

Swift. Furs of beasts found in cold countries, where they provide coats suitable to the weather; &c. &c.—

At night, wherein the cubdrawn bear would lie,

And the belly-pinched wolf
Seeks fur dry, unbonnetted he runs,
Which what will take all.

Shak. K. Lear. Animals as feed upon flesh qualify it, the one by allowing the hair or fur of the beasts upon, the other by devouring some of the feathers of the birds they gorge themselves. *Ray.* 3. Any moisture exhaled to great distance as that the remainder sticks on the

links I am not right in every part;
Kind of trembling at my heart:
The air unequal, and my breath is strong;
A filthy fur upon my tongue. *Dryd. Pers.*
FUR. *adv.* [It is now commonly written
at a distance.—

The white lovely dove
In her wings her utmost swiftness prove,
The gripe of falcon fierce not fur.

Sidney. FUR, or FURR, (§ 1. def. 1.) in commerce, the skins of wild beasts, dressed in alum

with the hair on; and used as a part of dress, by princes, magistrates and others. The kinds most in use are those of the ermine, sable, castor, hair, coney, &c. See CASTOR, § IV.; CAVIA, LEPUS, MUSTELA, &c. It was not till the later ages that the furs of beasts became an article of luxury. The refined nations of antiquity never made use of them; those alone who were stigmatized as barbarians were clothed in the skins of animals. Strabo describes the Indians covered with the skins of lions, panthers, and bears; and Seneca, the Scythians clothed with the skins of foxes and the lesser quadrupeds. Virgil exhibits a picture of the savage Hyperboreans, (*Georg. lib. 3. l. 382.*) similar to that which our late circumnavigators witnessed in the clothing of the wild Americans. Most part of Europe was then in similar circumstances. Cæsar might be as much amazed with the skindressed heroes of Britain, as our celebrated Cook was at those of his new-discovered regions. What time hath done to us, it may also effect for them; and it is to be hoped with much less bloodshed. Civilization may take place; and those spoils of animals, which are at present essential for their clothing, become merely objects of ornament and luxury. It does not appear that the Greeks or ancient Romans ever made use of furs. It originated in those regions where they most abounded, and where the severity of the climate required that species of clothing. At first it consisted of the skins only, almost in the state in which they were torn from the body of the beast; but as soon as civilization took place, and manufactures were introduced, furs became the lining of the dress, and often the elegant facing of the robes. It is probable that the northern conquerors introduced the fashion into Europe. We find, that about A. D. 522, when Totila king of the Visigoths reigned in Italy, the Suethons (or natives of Sweden) found means, by help of the commerce of numberless intervening people, to transmit, for the use of the Romans, *saphirinas pelles*, the skins of the sables. As luxury advanced, furs of the most valuable species, were used by princes as linings for their tents. Marco Polo, in 1252, found those of the Cham of Tartary lined with ermines and sables. He calls the last *Zibelines* and *Zambolines*. He says that those and other precious furs were brought from countries far north; from the land of Darkness, and regions almost inaccessible by reason of morasses and ice. The Welsh set a high value on furs, as early as the time of Howel Ddha, who reigned about 940. In the next age, furs became the fashionable magnificence of Europe. When Godfrey of Bologna and his followers appeared before the emperor Alexius Comnenus, on their way to the Holy Land, he was struck with the richness of their dresses, *tam ex ostro quam aurifrigio et nigro opere harmelino et ex mardrino grifinoque et vario*. How different was the advance of luxury in France from the time of their great monarch Charlemagne, who contented himself with the plain fur of the otter! King Henry I. wore furs; yet, in his dress was obliged to change them for warm Welsh flannel. But in 1337, the luxury had got to such a head, that Edward III. enacted, that all persons who could not spend 100l. a year should be prohibited the use of this kind of finery.

These,

These, from their great expence, must have been foreign furs, obtained from the Italian commercial states, whose traffic was at this period boundless. How strange is the revolution in the fur trade! The north of Asia at that time supplied us with every valuable kind; at present, we send, by means of the possession of Hudson's Bay, furs to an immense amount, to Turkey, and even to China.

(4.) FURS, VOYAGES LATELY MADE IN SEARCH OF. During Capt. Cook's last voyage to the Pacific Ocean, besides the various scientific advantages derived from it, a new source of wealth was laid open to future navigators, by trading for furs of the most valuable kind on the NW. coast of America. The first vessel which engaged in this new branch of trade, was equipped by some gentlemen in China. She was a brig of 60 tons and 20 men, commanded by James Hanna. She sailed from the Typa the end of April, 1785: proceeded northward, along the coast of China; passed through Diemen's Straits, the S. end of Japan; and arrived at Nootka in August following. Soon after her arrival, the natives, whom Capt. Cook had left unacquainted with the effects of fire arms, tempted probably by the diminutive size of the vessel (scarce longer than some of their own canoes), and the small number of her people, attempted to board her in open day; but were repulsed with considerable slaughter. This was the introduction to a firm and lasting friendship. Capt. Hanna cured such of the Indians as were only wounded; an unreserved confidence took place; they traded fairly and peaceably; a valuable cargo of furs was procured; and the bad weather setting in, he left the coast in the end of September, touched at the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Macao, in the end of December. In May 1786, Captain Hanna sailed again from Macao, in the snow Sea Otter of 120 tons and 30 men, and returned to Macao in Feb. 1787. In this 2d voyage he followed his former track, and arrived at Nootka in August: traced the coast from thence as far as 53°, and explored the extensive sound discovered a short time before by Mr. Strange, and called by him Queen Charlotte's Sound, the latitude of which is 51° north, longitude 128 west. The snow Lark, Captain Peters, of 210 tons and 40 men, sailed from Macao in July 1786. Her destination was Kamtschatka (for which she was provided with a suitable cargo of arrack, tea, &c.) Copper Islands, and the NW. coast. Captain Peters was directed to make his passage between Japan and Corea, and examine the islands to the north of Japan, said to be inhabited by hairy people. No account having been received of this vessel since her departure, there is every reason to fear she has perished. In the beginning of 1786, two coppered vessels were fitted out at Bombay, under the direction of J. Strange, Esq. who was himself a principal owner. These vessels were, the snow Captain Cook, of 300 tons, and snow Experiment of 100 tons. They proceeded in company from the Malabar to Batavia; passed through the Straits of Macassar, where the Experiment was run upon a reef, and was obliged to haul ashore upon Borneo to repair; from thence they steered to the E. of the Palaos Islands; made Sulphur Island;

and arrived at Nootka the end of June following. From Nootka, where they left their surgeon-mate (Mackay) to learn the language and collect skins against their intended return (but which was brought away in the Imperial Eagle the following year), they proceeded along the coast to Charlotte's Sound, of which they were the first discoverers; from thence in a direct course to William's Sound. After some stay there, the Experiment proceeded to Macao (their vessels provided with passes by the governor general of Goa): the Captain Cook endeavoured to visit Copper Island, but without success, being prevented by constant west winds. Two coppered vessels were also fitted out by a society of gentlemen in Bengal, viz. the snow Nootka of 200 tons and snow Sea Otter of 100 tons, commanded by John Meares and William Tipping, lieutenants in the royal navy. The Nootka sailed in May 1786, from Bengal; came through the China Sea, touched at the Bathes, where they were very badly treated by the Spaniards, who had taken possession of these islands; arrived at Oonalashish the beginning of August; found there a Russian ship and some furriers; discovered accidentally Cape Greville a new strait into Cook's River, 10 leagues wide, and 30 long; saw some Aleutian hunters in a small bay between Cape Elizabeth and Cape Bear; and arrived in Prince William's Sound the end of September. They determined on wintering in Snug Corner Cove, lat. 60. N. (which seem placed by providence for the convenience and refreshment of the adventurers in the fur trade,) and were frozen up in this gloomy and frightful spot from the end of November to the end of May. By the severity of the winter they lost their 3d and 4th mates, surgeon, boatman, carpenter, and cooper, and 12 of the foremen; and the remainder were so enfeebled, that they were under the necessity of applying to the commanders of the K. George and Q. Charlotte, which just at this time arrived in the sound, for assistance and hands to assist in carrying the vessel to the Sandwich Islands, where, giving over all further trade, they determined, (after getting a few barrels of fish off Cape Edgecumbe) immediately to proceed. The Nootka arrived at Macao in the end of October, 1787. The Imperial Eagle, Capt. Barkley, fitted out by a society of gentlemen at Ostend, sailed from Ostend the end of November, went into the bay of All Saints; thence to the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Nootka the beginning of June; thence to the S. as far as 53°, in which space he discovered some good and spacious harbours. In lat. 47° 46', lost his 3d mate, purser, and two seamen, who were on a trading party with the long-boat, and were accidentally trusting themselves ashore, unarmed, cut off by the natives. This place seems to be the same that Don Antonio Mourelle calls the *Los Dolores*, where the Spaniards going ashore for water, were also attacked and cut off. The K. George of 320, and the Queen Charlotte of 200 tons, commanded by Capt. Portlock and Dr. Ross, who served under Captain Cook, in his last voyage, were fitted out by a society of gentlemen in England, who obtained a privilege to trade

of America, from the South Sea and companies. Those vessels sailed from the beginning of Sept. 1785; touched at the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Cook's River in August. From thence, taking a few furs, they steered, in the direction for Prince William's Sound, intending to land there; but were prevented by heavy weather which obliged them to bear away, and to winter at the other part of the coast. The weather accompanied them till they arrived at Nootka Sound, when they were so near that a canoe came off to them; but as they were near accomplishing their purpose, a storm came on, and obliged them finally to return for the Sandwich Islands, where they spent the winter months; and returning again in May, arrived in Prince William's Sound in May. The King George remained in Prince William's Sound; and during her stay, Captain Cook discovered a new passage from the Cook's River. The Queen Charlotte sailed along the coast to the south; looked into the Bay, where the Russians have now a settlement; examined that part of the coast from Dixon's, Queen Charlotte's Islands, at a distance from the Main, which is farther than it was supposed to be: some part of it may, however, be seen from the English islands; and it is probable the distance does not exceed any where 50 leagues. On the 10th, Hudson's House, lat. 53° lon. 106° will not be more than 80 miles distant from this part of the coast in the same parallel. It is not improbable, that the enterprising Canadian furriers may penetrate to this communication with which is probably situated by lakes and rivers), and add to the comforts and luxuries of Europe this valuable trade in warmth, beauty, and magnificence, the richest furs of Siberia. These ships, bringing off their furs in China, were loaded on account of the English company, sailed from Amboyna in the end of February, and arrived in England a short time since, after an absence of two years. The year after the departure of the King George and Queen Charlotte, the same company sent out other two vessels, viz. the Prince of Wales, of 60 tons, and the Prince of Wales, commanded by Captains Colnet and the former of whom had served under Cook. These vessels left England in August, and arrived at New Year's harbour on Staten Land where they left an officer and 12 men to await the arrival of a vessel which was expected from England: from thence they sailed directly to Nootka, where they arrived in July, sickly and in bad condition; and the Imperial Eagle, which had left Europe before them. Leaving Nootka, they sailed along the shore to the northward, and soon met with the Queen Charlotte. In the beginning of the year 1788, Capt. Mears sailed with two other vessels, the Felice, which he commanded himself, and the Iphigenia, Captain Cook, to Nootka Sound. But the history of

his settlement at Nootka, with the insolent behaviour of Don Martinez, the Spanish commander, (which had nearly occasioned a war between Britain and Spain, but was at last amicably settled,) will be found under the article NOOTKA. We have only to add here, that some accounts of the voyages above-mentioned, the fur trade in those parts, had at first been greatly magnified. In that published by Captain Portlock, however, he observes, that "the gains hitherto have certainly not been enviably great; though the merchants have no doubt found the trade lucrative." And later accounts assure us, that it is now become extremely advantageous.

* *To FUR. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To line or cover with skins that have soft hair.—How mad a sight it was to see Dametas, like rich tissue *furred* with lambskins? *Sidney*.—

Thro' tatter'd cloaths small vices do appear;
Robes and *furr'd* gowns hide all.

Shakesp. K. Lear.

You are for dreams and slumbers, brother priest;

You *fur* your gloves with reasons. *Shakesp.*

2. To cover with soft matter.—To make lamp-black, take a torch and hold it under the bottom of a latten basin; and as it groweth to be *furred* and black within, strike it with a feather into some shell. *Peacham*.—

Three sisters, mourning for their brother's loss,
Their bodies hid in bark, and *furr'd* with moss.

Dryden.

Their frying blood compels to irrigate

Their dry *furr'd* tongues. *Philips.*

A dungeon wide and horrible; the walls
On all sides *furr'd* with mouldy damp, and
hung

With clots of ropy gore. *Addison.*

FURA, a small island on the W. coast of Scotland, 4½ miles W. of Udrigill Head.

* *FURACIOUS. adj.* [*furax*, Lat.] Thievish; inclined to steal. *Diſ.*

* *FURACITY. n. f.* [*furax*, Lat.] Disposition to theft; thievishness.

FURANS, a river of France, which runs into the Meuse, near Romans.

FURBECK, a village in Yorkshire, near Blith.

* *FURBELOW. n. f.* A piece of stuff plaited and puckered together, either below or above, on the petticoats or gowns of women. This, like a great many other words, is the child of mere caprice. *Trev. Diſ.*—

Nay, oft in dreams invention we bestow

To change a flounce, or add a *furbelow*. *Pope.*

To FURBELOW. v. a. [from the noun.] To adorn with ornamental appendages of drets.—

When arguments too fiercely glare,

You calm them with a milder air;

To break their points, you turn their force,

And *furbelow* the plain discourse. *Prior.*

—She was flounced and *furbelowed*; every ribbon was crinkled, and every part of her garments in curl. *Addison.*

* *To FURBISH. v. a.* [*furbir*, French.] To burnish; to polish; to rub to brightness.—

It may enter Mowbray's waxen coat,

And *furbish* new the name of John o' Gaunt.

Shakesp.

—*Fur-*

—*Furbish* the spears, and put on the brigandines. *Jer.* xlv. 4.—Some others who *furbish* up and reprint his old errors, hold that the sufferings of the damned are not to be, in a strict sense, eternal; but that, after a certain period of time, there shall be a general gaol delivery of the souls in prison, and that not a farther execution, but a final release. *South.*—

As after Numa's peaceful reign,
The martial Ancus did the sceptre wield;
Furbish'd the rusty sword again,
Resum'd the long-forgotten shield,
And led the Latins to the dusty field. *Dryden.*
Inferior ministers, for Mars repair
His broken axle-tree, and blunted war;
And send him forth again, with *furbish'd* arms. *Dryden.*

* **FURBISHER.** *n. s.* [*sourbisseur*, French; from *furbish*.] One who polishes any thing.

FURCA, in antiquity, a piece of timber resembling a fork, used by the Romans as an instrument of punishment. The punishment of the *furca* was of three kinds: the first only ignominious, when a master, for small offences, forced a servant to carry a *furca* on his shoulders about the city. The 2d was penal, when the party was led about the circus, or other place, with the *furca* about his neck, and whipped all the way. The third was capital, when the malefactor having his head fastened on the *furca*, was whipped to death.

* **FURCATION.** *n. s.* [*furca*, Lat.] Forkiness; the state of shooting two ways like the blades of a fork.—When stags grow old they grow less branched, and first lose their brow-antlers, or lowest *furcations* next the head. *Brown's Vul. Err.*

FURCHE, in heraldry, a cross forked at the ends.

FURETIERE, Antony, a learned French lawyer, born at Paris in 1620. He was eminent in the civil and canon law, and an advocate in the parliament. Afterwards taking orders, he became abbot of Chalvey, and prior of Chuines. He wrote many works, but is chiefly valued for his *Universal Dictionary of the French Tongue*, in which he explains the terms of art in all sciences; and which was published after his death. He was of the French academy, and the disputes he had with some members of it made much noise. He died in 1688.

* **FURFUR.** *n. s.* [Latin.] Husk or chaff, or scurf or dandriff, that grows upon the skins, with some lickness to bran. *Quincy.*

* **FURFURACEOUS.** *adj.* [*furfuraceus*, Lat.] Husky; branny; scaly.

FURIA, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes zoophyta. There is but one species, viz. the

FURIA INFERNALIS. It has a linear smooth body ciliated on each side, with reflexed feelers pressed to its body. In Finland, Bothnia, and the northern provinces of Sweden, people were often seized with a pungent pain, confined to a point, in the hand or other exposed part of the body, which presently increased to a most excruciating degree, and sometimes proved suddenly fatal. This disorder was particularly observed in Finland, especially about boggy and marshy places,

and always in autumn. At length it was discovered that this pain instantly succeeded some that dropped out of the air, and in a moment penetrated and buried itself in the flesh. The landers had tried a variety of applications for purpose, until at length a poultice of curd cheese was found the most effectual in easing pain; and the event confirmed that the insect allured by this application to leave the flesh on its removal; this worm, no longer than sixteenth of an inch, was found in it, and the cause of this painful disease explained. What means this creature is raised into the air as yet unknown.

FURIAE, } in Pagan mythology, goddesses
FURIES, } whose offices it was to punish guilty after death. They sprang from the blood of the wound which Coelus received from Saturn. According to others, they were daughters of Earth, and conceived from the blood of Saturn. Some make them daughters of Aëther and Night, or Pluto and Proserpine. According to the more received opinions, they were three in number, Tisiphone, Megæra, and Alecto, which some add Nemesis. Plutarch mentions only one called *Adrasta*, daughter of Jupiter and Necessity. They were supposed to be the ministers of the vengeance of the gods; stern and terrible; always employed in punishing the guilty upon earth, as well as in the infernal regions. They were also called **EUMENIDES** and **ERINYES**. The Athenians stilled them *epourneiai*, very good goddesses. Their worship was almost universal, and people dared not to mention their names without fix their eyes upon their temples. They were honoured with sacrifices and libations; and at Chaia they had a temple, which, when entered by any one guilty of a crime, suddenly rendered him furious and deprived him of the use of reason. In the sacrifices, the votaries used branches of cedar and of alder, hawthorn, saffron, and juniper; and the victims were generally turtles and sheep, with libations of wine and honey. They were usually represented with a grim and frightful aspect, with a black and bloody garment, and with serpents wreathing round their heads instead of hair. They held a burning torch in one hand, to discover the guilty, and iron chains and whips of scorpions in the other to punish the guilty, and were always attended by Terror, Rage, Madness, and Death. In hell they were seated at Pluto's throne, as the ministers of his vengeance. They were worshipped at Casina, in Arcadia, at Carmia in Pelopponesus. They had a temple at Athens near the Areopagus, and their priests were chosen from amongst the judges of that city. At Telphusa, a city in Arcadia, a black ewe was sacrificed to them.

* **FURIOUS.** *adj.* [*furieux*, Fr. *furius*, L. *furiosus*.] 1. Mad; frantick.—No man did ever think the hurtful actions of *furious* men and innocents unpunishable. *Hooker.* 2. Raging; violent; transported by passion beyond reason.—

Who can be wise, amaz'd, temperate,
furious,
Loyal and neutral in a moment? No man.

Alexander Pope.

To be *furiosus*,

: frightened out of fear; and in that mood,
we will peck the estridge. *Shakesp.*
e, other than the sound of dance or song,
nt, and loud lament, and *furiosus* rage.

Milton.

; impetuously agitated.—

: clamour thence the rapid currents drive,
is the retreating sea their *furiosus* tide.

Milton.

IOUSLY. *adv.* [from *furiosus*.] Madly;
vehemently.—

h when his brother saw, fraught with
at grief

ath, he to him leapt *furiously*. *Fairy Q.*
bserve countenance to attend the prac-

this carries them on *furiously* to that
if themselves they are inclined. *South.*—
heard not half, so *furiously* she flies;

ve her wings. *Dryden.*

OUSNESS. *n. s.* [from *furiosus*.] Frenzy;
transport of passion.

RIUS *BIACULUS*, a Latin poet, who
about A. A. C. 103. He wrote annals

of which Macrobius recites some frag-
uetonius also relates some verses of his

is Cato, in his *Illustrious Grammarians*.

UES *CAMILLUS*. See *CAMILLUS*, N° 1.

INBERG, a town of Lower Saxony, in
urg. 35 miles N. of Spandau.

JRL. *v. a.* [*fresler*, Fr.] To draw up;

l.—
i fortune sends a stormy wind,
ew a brave and present mind;

en with too indulgent gales
ls too much, then *furl* thy sails. *Creech.*

NI. See *FRIULI*, N. 1.

NG, in the sea language, signifies the
up and binding any sail close to the yard;

done by hawling upon the clew lines,

&c. which wraps the sail close toge-
being bound fast to the yard the sail is

IRLONG. *n. s.* [*farlang*, Sax] A mea-
gth; the eighth part of a mile.—If a

n the middle of a field and speak aloud,
heard a *furlong* in round, and that in

bounds. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*—Coming

n furlongs of the temple, they passed
very thick grove. *Addison's Freeholder.*

LONG is also used in some law-books

part of an acre.

OUGH. *n. s.* [*verloef*, Dutch.] A tem-
ission from military service; a licence

oldier to be absent.—
and Cato might discharge their souls,

them *furl's* for another world;
like sentries, are oblig'd to stand

ights, and wait th' appointed hour.
Dryden.

ENTY. *n. s.* [More properly *frumenty*,
of *frumentum*, Latin.] Food made by

at in milk.—
iber, wife, therefore, tho' I do it not,

cake, the pasties, and *furmenty* pot.
Tusser.

ON, a town of Maritime Austria, in the
enetician Iliria; 18 m. ESE. of Unago.

PART. I.

(1.) * FURNACE. *n. s.* [*furnus*, Lat.] An in-
closed fireplace.—

Heat not a *furnace* for your foe so hot

That it may singe yourself. *Shak. Henry VIII.*

—The fining pot is for silver, and the *furnace* for
gold. *Prov.*—We have also *furnaces* of great di-

versities, that keep great diversity of heats. *Bacon.*

—The kings of Spain have erected divers *furnaces*
and forges, for the trying and fining of their gold.

Abbot.—Whoso falleth not down and worshippingeth,
shall the same hour be cast into the midst of a

burning fiery *furnace*. *Daniel.*—

A dungeon horrible, on all sides round,

As one great *furnace*, flam'd. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

(2.) A FURNACE is intended to contain fire, or
to raise and maintain a vehement fire, whether of

coals or wood. Of these there are great variety,
according to the different uses to which they are

applied.

(3.) A FURNACE, CHIEF OBJECTS TO BE AT-
TENDED TO, IN ERECTING. In all furnaces the

principal things to be attended to are, 1. To con-
fine the heat as much as possible to the matter to

be operated upon; 2. To prevent its being dissi-
pated; 3. To produce as much heat with as little

fuel as possible; and, 4. To have it in our power
to regulate the degree of heat according to our

pleasure. To answer the first intention, the fire is
usually confined in a chamber or cavity built on

purpose for it, and furnished with a door for put-
ting in the fuel; a grate for supporting it, and al-

lowing air to pass through, as well as the ashes to
drop down into a cavity provided on purpose, and

called the *ash pit*. Thus the heat produced by
the inflamed fuel is confined by the sides of the

furnace, and obliged to spend great part of its
force upon the subject inclosed. The 2d inten-

tion, viz. to prevent the dissipation of the heat, is
obtained by shutting the door of the furnace;

taking care that the chimney be not too wide, and
that the matter to be acted upon be placed in such

a manner, that the fire may have its full effect upon
it as it goes up the chimney. The 3d intention,

which is the most important, is at the same time
the most difficult to answer, and depends entirely

upon the proportion between the spaces betwixt
the furnace bars and the wideness and height of the

chimney. This will appear from a consideration of
the principles on which the degrees of inflamma-

tion are produced. These depend entirely on the
current of air which passes through the inflamed

fuel. As soon as the fuel is set on fire, a certain
degree of heat is produced; but unless a constant

influx of air is admitted through the burning fuel,
the fire is instantly extinguished; nor is it possible

by any means to renew the inflammation until we
admit a stream of fresh air among the fuel. When

this is done, a rarefaction commences in the air of
the fire-place of the furnace; so that it is no longer

a counterpoise to the external air, and is therefore
driven up the chimney by that which enters at the

ash pit. This again passing through the fuel, is
rarefied in its turn; and giving place to fresh

quantities, there is a constant flow of air up the
chimney. In proportion to the rarefaction of the

air in the fire-place, the greater is the heat. But
by a certain construction of the furnace, the un-

der part of the chimney will become almost as
strongly

strongly heated as the fire-place; by which means, though a very strong current of air is forced thro' the fuel, yet as great part of the heat is spent on the chimney, where it can be of no use, the fuel is wasted in a very considerable degree. To avoid this, we have no other method than to contract the throat of the chimney occasionally by a sliding plate; which when put quite in, shuts up the whole vent; and by being drawn out more or less, leaves a larger or smaller vent at pleasure. This plate ought to be quite drawn out till the fuel is thoroughly kindled, and the furnace well heated, so that a current of air may flow strongly through the fuel. After this the plate is to be put in a certain length, so as just to prevent the smoke from coming out at the door of the furnace. The rarefaction of the air in the fire-place will solicit a very considerable draught of air, which will keep the fuel inflamed to a great degree; at the same time that the heat, being reflected from every part of the furnace excepting that narrow passage where the smoke goes up, becomes very intense. A large quantity of fuel may be put in at once, which will consume slowly, and thus require but little attention in comparison with those furnaces where no such precaution is used. The sliding-plate may be made of cast iron in those furnaces where no great heat is excited; but in others fire-clay will be more convenient. The contrivance, however, is scarce applicable to those furnaces where great quantities of metal are to be melted; and accordingly the waste of fuel there is immense. It is computed, that the iron works of Carron in Stirlingshire consume annually as many coals as would be sufficient for a city containing 700,000 inhabitants. The 4th intention, viz. that of regulating the heat, is accomplished by allowing only a certain quantity of air to pass through the fuel. For this purpose, says Dr Black, it is necessary to have the command of the furnace below; the parts above being frequently filled with small quantities of soot. The best method of managing this is to shut up the door of the ash-hole perfectly close, and to have a set of round holes bearing a certain proportion to one another; and their areas being as 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. Seven or eight of these ought to be made in the door of the ash-pit, which will give a sufficient command over the fire. When the fire is to be increased to the utmost, all the passages both above and below are to be thrown open, and the height of the vent augmented; which, by increasing the height of the column of rarefied air, increases also the motion of that through the fuel, and of consequence also the heat of the furnace. Macquer recommends another tube applied to the ash-pit, widest at the end farthest from the furnace, and tapering gradually towards it. The intention of this is to augment the current and velocity of the air, by its being made to pass from a wider into a narrower vent; but though this is no doubt true, the air will not ultimately move with greater velocity than if the tube were not there. It can only be useful therefore in cases where the furnace is placed in a small room, and the tube itself has a communication with the external air.

(4.) FURNACE, CUPELLING, or } is thus described

(4.) FURNACE, ESSAYING, } bed in Gra-

mer's *Art of Essaying*: (See *Plate CLII* with iron plates a hollow quadrangular inches broad and 9 inches high, *aa* & top in a hollow quadrangular pyramid inches high, terminating in an aperture inches square. This prism must be closed at the bottom with another iron plate, which shall be the basis or bottom to it, *aa*. 1. Near the top make a door, *e*, 3 inches high, and 5 inches wide that leads to the ash-hole. 2. Above this door, and at the height of 6 inches from the top, make another door, *f*, of the figure of a circle, 4 inches broad at its basis, and 4 inches high in the middle. 3. Then fasten a plate, *gg*, 11 inches long, and half an inch thick, so that its lower edge shall be at the bottom of the furnace, with 3 or 4 nails in such a manner, that there may be a groove between the upper edge of the said plate and the bottom of the furnace, so wide, as that the lower door, *kk*, may be put into it, and move backwards and forwards therein. 4. Make a 2d plate, *bb*, 11 inches long, 3 inches high, and perfectly parallel to the foregoing plate, and fasten it in the space between the two doors in such a manner, that both the upper and the lower of it may form a hollow groove with the furnace. One of these grooves, widened downwards, serves to receive the sliders that shut the lower door. The other, that turns upwards, is to receive the sliders of the small door. 5. The 3d plate, *ii*, which is likewise 11 inches long, must be rivetted close above the upper door, in such a manner that it may form a groove with the upper door, *ff*, widened downwards, and contiguous to the upper door, *ff*. 6. To shut the upper door, *ff*, adapt to each of them two sliders of iron plates, that they may move within the above-mentioned grooves, *kk*, *ll*. But the sliders belonging to the upper door, *ff*, each a hole near the top; that is, one hole the 5th part of an inch broad, and one hole a half long, *m*; and the other a semicircular aperture, one inch high and two inches wide. Let, besides, each slider have a handle, by which it may be laid hold of when they are to be moved. 7. Moreover, let 5 round holes, one inch in diameter, be bored in the furnace; two of which shall be made in the fore part of the furnace, and three in the back part; all at the height of 6 inches from the bottom, but 3½ inches distant from each side of the furnace; and, finally, a 5th hole, the height of one inch above the upper door, *f*. 8. In short, let the furnace be armed with iron books, half an inch thick, and about 3 inches distant from each other, to fasten the lute with which the furnace is to be covered over within. 9. Let there be a moveable, hollow, quadrangular pyramid, 9 inches high, be adapted to the upper door, *f*, of the furnace, at the basis 7 inches broad, and 9 inches high, upwards in a hollow tube, *r*, 3 inches in diameter, 2 inches high, almost cylindrical, the top a little convergent at top. This pyramid serves to support a funnel or flue, which

FURNACE.
Fig. 2.



Scale for all the Figures

PL. CXLIX

Fig. 3.
Mr. Watt's Steam Engine Furnace



Fig. 4

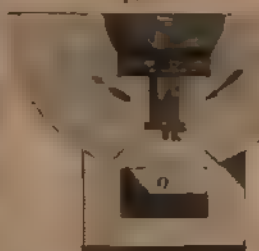


Fig. 6



Fig. 7



Fig. 8
Mr. Thompson's
Furnace



Fig. 9
Mr. Thompson's
Furnace





cal, hollow, made of iron plates, and a; and which, when a very strong fire is, is put perpendicularly upon the shorter such a manner, that it enters close into it, inches deep, and may again be taken off re, when there is no need of so strong a is pyramidal cover, q, must have a handle adapted to it, that it may be laid hold thus be taken off or put on again: and being put on the aperture, d, of the furnace, not be easily thrown down, let an iron rivetted to the right and left upper edge mace, r, and be turned down towards e, so as to make a furrow open before nd, into which the lateral edges of the y enter and be fastened, and at pleasure l backwards and forwards, whenever it put on or moved. g. Let a square ledge, a thick iron plate, be fastened at the top per edge of the lower door, e, to support and the lute; but it must be made of es, that it may be easily introduced into y of the furnace. This assay oven must is be covered over on the inside with lute, s:—That the fire may be better confined, the iron may not be destroyed by growth, the whole inside of the furnace must ed over with lute, one finger or one finger half thick. The lute fit for this is de- under CHAMISTAY. But before using this t put within the furnace small iron bars, length to the diameter of the oven, quar- r, prismatical, half an inch thick, having remities supported by a square iron ledge, an inch distant from each other; and fast- so, that their flat sides may be oblique ard to the transverse section of the fur- d that the two opposite angles may look ards and the other downwards: the bars be laid flat, but edgewise; by which fi- be ashes of the fuel are prevented from tained too long between the interstices on bars, and from making an obstruction old oppose the free draught of the air. iace being then covered over with lute, d up by a gentle heat, is at last fit for do- d operations, and especially for such as performed in the assay oven. When an n is to be made in this furnace, let through ver holes above described, oo, before and and directly opposite to each other, two s one inch thick, and long enough that remities on every side may jut a little out holes. These serve to support the muffle bottom. Then introduce the muffle the upper aperture of the furnace, d, and upon the above described iron bars, in nanner that the open fore side of it may iguous to the inward border of the upper . The fuel is introduced through the top urnace, d; the cover of which, q, on this t, must be moveable, and not very heavy. If fuel is charcoal made of the hardest especially of beech, broken into small pieces igness of an inch, wherewith the muffle e covered over some inches high. Large would not answer, because they could not ough the narrow interstices, between the

sides of the muffle and those of the furnace, and of course could not sufficiently surround the circumference of the muffle; so that there would be on every side places void of fuel, and the fire would be either not strong enough or unequal. But if, on the contrary, coals too small were used, then a great part would fall immediately through the interstices of the grate into the ash hole; the smallest parts of them would turn too soon into ashes, and by increasing the heap of ashes, obstruct the free draught of the air, which is here very requisite. A perfect management of the fire is necessary in performing operations in this furnace; therefore the chemical reader must give attention to what follows. If the door of the ash hole, e, is quite open; and the sliders of the upper door, f, drawn towards each other, so as to touch one another in the middle of the door; and if, besides, the cover, q, and the funnel adapted to its tube, r, are upon the top, d, of the furnace; the fire will be then in the highest degree possible; though, in the mean time, it is hardly ever necessary to put the funnel on, except in a very cold season: but if, after having disposed the furnace in the manner just described, red burning coals are put into the open upper door, f, of it, the fire is still more increased thereby: however, this is very seldom or never necessary. When the upper door is shut with only that slider that has a narrow oblong hole in it, m, then the heat becomes a little less; but it diminishes still more when shut with the other slider, that has in it the semicircular hole, n, which is larger than that of the first slider: nay, the heat again is less when the funnel put at the top of the cover is taken away: Finally, the door of the ash-hole being either in part or totally shut, the heat is still diminished; because the draught of air so necessary to excite the fire is thereby hindered: but if, besides all these, the upper door be opened wide, then the cold air rushing into the muffle, cools the bodies put under it, that are to be changed, to a degree incompatible with any operation, as it will entirely hinder the boiling of the lead. If, during the operation, the fire begins to decay, or to grow unequal, it is a sign that there are places void of coals between the sides of the furnace and those of the muffle: therefore, in this case, the coals must be stirred on every side with an iron rod, introduced through the upper hole, p, of the furnace, that they may fall together, and thus act equally and in a proper manner. However, the effect does not always uniformly answer, even when the apparatus has been made with all the exactness mentioned. The cause of this difference has most commonly its origin in the various dispositions of the air: for as every fire is more excited, in proportion as the air, more condensed, and more quickly agitated, strikes the fuel more violently (which the effect of the bellows plainly shows); it thence appears, that in warm and wet weather, when the atmosphere is light, the fire must be less efficacious in furnaces; that likewise, when several furnaces, situated near each other, are burning at the same time, the fire is in part suffocated, because the circum-ambient air is thereby rendered more rare and lighter. The same effect is produced by the sun, especially in summer, when it shines upon the place where the

furnace is situated. The atmosphere, on the contrary, being heavier in cold dry weather, excites a very great fire. The heat of the fire acts the stronger upon the bodies to be changed, as the muffle put in the furnace is less; as it has more and larger segments cut out of it; as its sides are thinner; in short, as there are more vessels placed in the hinder part of it; or the contrary. In this case, when many of the conditions requisite for the exciting of fire are wanting, the artificer, with all his skill, will hardly be able to excite the fire to a sufficient degree, to perform operations well, in common assay-ovens, even though he uses bellows, and puts coals into the upper door of the furnace. For this reason, the grate ought to be put almost 3 inches below the muffle, lest the air, rushing through the ash-hole, should cool the bottom of the muffle, which happens in common assay-ovens; and again, that the smaller coals, almost already consumed, and the ashes, may more easily fall through the interstices of the grate, and the larger coals still fit to keep up the fire be retained. Lastly, the above-mentioned funnel is added, that the blowing of the fire being, by means of it, increased as much as possible, this may at last be carried to the requisite degree; for the fire may always be diminished at pleasure, but cannot always be increased, without the assistance of a proper apparatus.

(5—9.) FURNACE, EVAPORATING, FORGE, IMPROVED BLAST, LAMP, AND MELTING. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(10.) FURNACE, Mr WATT'S STEAM-ENGINE. The steam-engine furnace is described in the specification of the patent obtained for the invention by Mr Watt of Birmingham. His "improved methods of constructing furnaces, or fire-places, consist in causing the smoke or flame of the fresh fuel, in its way to the flues or chimney, to pass, together with a current of fresh air, through, over, or among, fuel which has already ceased to smoke, or which is converted into coaks, charcoal, or cinders, and which is intensely hot; by which means the smoke and grosser parts of the flame, by coming into close contact with, or by being brought near unto, the said intensely hot fuel, and being mixed with the current of fresh or unburnt air, are consumed, or converted into heat, or into pure flame free from smoke." This is done, "first, by stopping up every avenue or passage to the chimney or flues, except such as are left in the interstices of the fuel, by placing the fresh fuel above, or nearer to the external air, than that which is already converted into coaks or charcoal; and by constructing the fire-places in such a manner that the flame, and the air which animates the fire, must pass downwards, or laterally, or horizontally, through the burning fuel, and pass from the lower part, or internal end or side, of the fire-place, to the flues or chimney. In some cases, after the flame has passed thro' the burning fuel, it is made to pass through a very hot funnel, flue, or oven, before it comes to the bottom of the boiler, or to the part of the furnace where it is proposed to melt metal, or perform other office, by which means the smoke is still more effectually consumed. In other cases, the flame is carried immediately from the fire-place into the space un-

der a boiler, or into the bed of a melting furnace. *Fig. 2, Plate CLIX*, shews a fire-engine boiler, and its furnace, which has been chosen for an example of the application of this new method to the heating and evaporation of water. A A is the boiler, which may be of any form suitable to its use. B B is a flue rounding the boiler as usual. C is the upper passage from the space under the boiler to the flues. D D is a funnel or flue for the smoke to come from the fire-place to the boiler. E is a place to contain the ashes; and F is a door to take them out at, which must be kept closely shut during the time of working. G is the fire place; the fresh fuel is put in at G, and gradually comes down as the fuel below is consumed. The part at H is very hot, being filled with coaks or coals which have ceased to smoke. I is an opening or openings, to admit fresh air to regulate the fire. K is a door into the space under the boiler; and which being opened, admits fresh air to stop the draught of the chimney when the fire is wanted to cease. *Fig. 3* is a plan of the same fire place in the other direction. L L is the brick arch on which the fuel lies; and E is the ash-hole. *Fig. 4* is an outside view of the fire place, shewing the air-holes I I, and the door E; and *fig. 5* is a plan of the furnace part of the boiler seated; taken in the line A A in *fig. 2*. The dotted lines represent the flues, and the darts point out the direction of the current of air. The fire is first kindled upon the brick arch at I; and when well lighted, more fuel is gradually added until it is filled up to G. Care must be taken to leave proper interstices for the air to pass either among the fuel, or between the fuel and the front wall N; and as much air is admitted at I I, as can be done without causing the smoke to ascend perpendicularly. This will always do if too much air is admitted. The dimensions of this fire-place are given by the scale, and are properly adjusted for burning about 84 lb. of coals in an hour; whether more or less quantities are required to be burnt, the furnace must be enlarged or diminished accordingly. much greater, more furnaces than one may be employed. *Fig. 6* represents this new method as applied to a furnace for melting iron and other metals, and constructed without the perpendicular flue D in *fig. 2*. The same letters refer to the same parts in all these figures. Mr Watt also constructs these new fire-places in various other ways; the part G H lies sloping, or horizontal, or otherwise varies the figure or form, and the position of the flues; but in all cases the principle is the same, the fresh or raw fuel being placed next to the external air, and so that the smoke or flame must pass over or through the coaked or charred part of the fuel. He also occasionally covers the opening at E, and causes the air to enter only, or principally, at I I. In particular cases, he places the fuel on a grate as usual, as at A A *fig. 7*, and that grate, or near at the place where the smoke passes into the flues or chimneys, he places another smaller grate B, on which he burns the fire of charcoal, coaks, or coals, which have been previously burnt until they have ceased to



FURNACE

Refining Furnace
Fig. 1

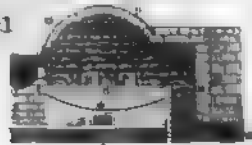


Fig. 6



Reverberatory Furnace

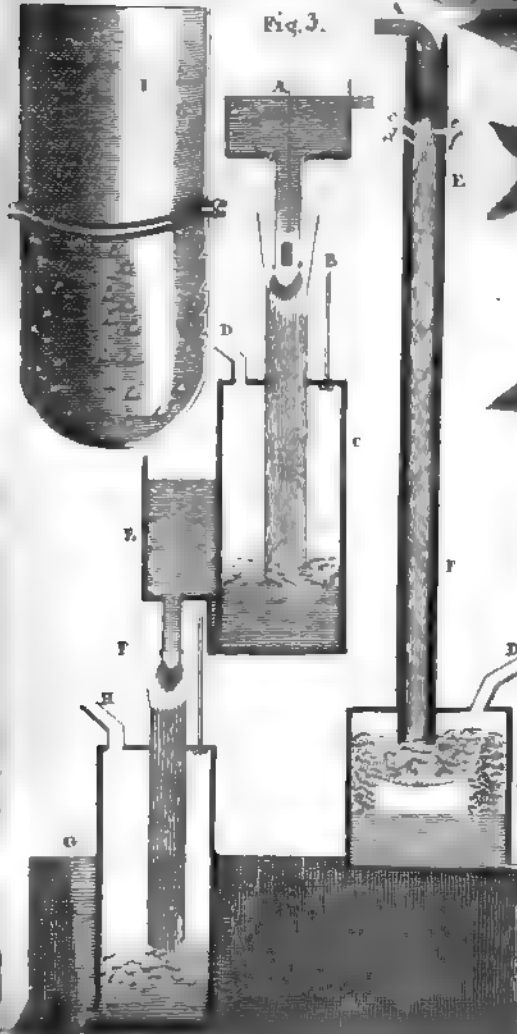


Sea Cordus

Fig. 7.

Machine for blowing
Air into Furnaces

Fig. 3.



Geoffre
Fig. 3.



Fig. 4. *Garcinia*

by giving intense heat and admitting some, consumes the smoke of the first fire. He states his new invention to consist only of a method of consuming the smoke, and in the heat, by causing the smoke and flame of fresh fuel to pass through very hot funnels or among, through or near, fuel, which is hot, and which has ceased to smoke; mixing it with fresh air when in these circles; and in the form and nature of the same as above mentioned: the boilers and outlets of the furnaces being such as are in use. These new invented fire places are applicable to furnaces for almost every other

FURNACE, Mr W. THOMPSON'S STEAM-

In vol. iv. of *the Repository* is given the account of a furnace of this sort by Mr Thompson, who describes his invention to be a furnace which will effectually consume the smoke arising from it, without requiring more fuel than usual, as has been the case with former furnaces for that purpose. It may be adapted to any boiler or copper already set up, and at small expence. *Fig. 8*, is a section of an oiler and fire-place. *a a a a*, The brick which boilers are usually set. *A A*, The two iron flues run through this boiler, go round it. *B B*, The fire-place; which is about $\frac{1}{4}$ longer than they are generally. *C*, An arch, which runs across the fire-place, lower than the bottom of the flue under the boiler, and about the middle of the fire-place. *D*, Flues through which the hot air ascends and spends its heat upon the boiler. *E*, A shutter of the fire-place; which must have a hole in it. Thro' this shutter the coals are gently stirred up, by the slice or poker, care not to injure the arch, nor to raise too great a quantity of coals at once. *F* is a small hole behind the fire for a current of air to pass through, as in the patent lamps. *G*, A plate fixed with its whole length across the fire-place, to hinder the coals from falling down the flue and choking it. *Fig. 9*, is a front view of the boiler and fire-place, in which the letters represent the same parts. *H H* are two slides one shifting backwards, the other forwards to make the space *F*, for the current of air more or smaller, as by practice may be found the best manner in which this furnace operates. The arch *C* hinders the smoke from going down the chimney, and obliges it to pass through the flues behind it; which has a very strong effect, and burns the smoke as it passes through the flues, and gives vigour to the flame, which consumes the smoke that may be left. Too much air will have a very bad effect, as it will cool the flame; the slides *H H* must be regulated in such a manner as the operator may find most advantageous. The shutter in the door *E* must also be of a proper size; as its being too large or too small is prejudicial.

FURNACE, PORTABLE. See CHEMISTRY,

FURNACE, REFINING, a furnace for refining metals. See METALLURGY, and REFIN-

ING. *Fig. 1*. *Plate CLX*, represents a longitudinal section of this furnace. 1, 1, The masonry of the pillars and walls surrounding the furnace. 2. The channels for carrying off the moisture. 3. Other small channels which join in the middle of the basin. 4. The basin made of bricks. 5. A bed of ashes. 6. The hollow or basin in which the metal is melted and refined. 7. The great flame hole. 8, 8. The two openings for the entry of the tuyeres of the bellows. 9. The vault or dome of the furnace. 10. The fire-place. 11. The grate. 12. The draught-hole. 13. A hole in the vault, which, being opened, serves to cool the furnace.

(14.) FURNACE, REVERBERATORY, FOR DISTILLING. See CHEMISTRY, p. 338, 341.

(15.) FURNACE, REVERBERATORY, FOR SMELTING ORES. See METALLURGY.—*Fig. 2*. *Plate CLX*, represents a longitudinal section of this furnace. 1. The masonry. 2. The ash-hole. 3. A channel for the evaporation of the moisture. 4. The grate. 5. The fire-place. 6. The inner part of the furnace. 7. A basin formed of sand. 8. The cavity where the melted metal is. 9. A hole through which the scoria is to be removed. 10. The passage of the flame and smoke, or the lower part of the chimney; which is to be carried up to a height of about 30 feet. 11. A hole in the roof, through which the ore is thrown into the furnace. This furnace is 18 feet long, 12 feet broad, and 9½ high.

(16.) FURNACES, MACHINES FOR BLOWING AIR INTO. The most ancient method of animating large fires in the furnaces where ores were melted, seems to have been by exposing them to the wind. Such was the practice of the Peruvians before the arrival of the Spaniards. Alonso Barba relates, that their furnaces, called *guairas*, were built on eminences where the air was freest; that they were perforated on all sides with holes, thro' which the air was driven in when the wind blew, which was the only time when the work could be carried on; that under each hole was made a projection of the stone-work, on which were laid burning coals, to heat the air before it entered the furnace. Some authors speak of several thousands of these guairas burning at once on the sides and tops of the hills of Potosi; and several remains of this practice are to be found in different parts of Great Britain. This method of supplying air being found excessively ineffectual and precarious, the instruments called BELLOWS succeeded. These were at first worked by the strength of men; but as this was found to be very laborious and expensive, the force of running water was employed to give motion to these machines. Thus a much greater quantity of metal could be procured than formerly, and the separation was likewise more complete; inasmuch that in many places the flags or cinders, from which the iron had formerly been extracted, were again used as fresh ore, and yielded plenty of metal. But though this method was found preferable to the others, yet great improvements were still wanted. To melt very large quantities of ore at a time, it was necessary to use bellows of an immense size; and in proportion to their size, they stood in need of the more frequent and expensive repairs. The oil, also, which the bellows required in large quantity, becoming rancid, was

found

found to generate a kind of inflammable vapour, which sometimes burst the bellows with explosion, and thus rendered them totally useless. A new method, therefore, of blowing up fires altogether free from the above mentioned inconveniences was fallen upon by means of water. It depends on the following principle, viz. That a stream of water, running through a pipe, if by any means it is mixed with air at its entrance into the pipe, will carry that air along with it, and part with it again as soon as it comes out of the pipe; and if the air is then collected by a proper apparatus, it may with success be used for exciting the most violent degrees of heat. Machines of this kind are called **WATER BELLOWS**, and are represented on *Plate CLX, fig. 3*. In the right-hand machine, **AB** represents a stream of water falling into the funnel, whose throat is contracted at **B**; after which the stream runs through the perpendicular pipe **EF**, in the upper part of which there are some small holes represented by *cdef*. Through these holes the air has access to mix itself with the descending water, which, being dashed against the sides of the pipe, is reduced to froth, and thus fills the whole cavity of the pipe **EF**, which is considerably larger than the throat of the funnel **B**. When this frothy stream enters the vessel **C**, the air extracts itself from the water; and as it cannot return through the pipe **EF**, because it is continually filled with a stream of liquid water, it flies off with considerable force through the smaller pipe **D**, by which it is conveyed to the furnace. The principal thing, to be kept in view in the construction of these machines, is, to mix the descending stream of water, with as great a quantity of air as possible. For this purpose the contrivance represented in the left-hand machine answers much better than the former. By this the water descending from the reservoir **A** falls into a kind of cullender **B**, perforated with a great number of holes in its sides. Thus the water, being forced out in a number of small streams, is very effectually dashed against the sides of the wide descending pipe, when it enters the condensing vessel **C**, and is sent off by the pipe **D**, as in the former. In some machines of this kind the constructors seem to have been of opinion, that a great height was required in the water-fall; but Dr Lewis who has made a great number of experiments upon the subject, shows, that an excess in height can never make up for a deficiency in the quantity of the water. Four or five feet, he thinks, is a sufficient height for the water-fall; where there is a greater height, however, it may be rendered useful, by joining two or more machines together in the manner represented in the plate; where the water, after having once emitted its air in the condensing vessel **C**, flows out into a new reservoir **E**. From thence it descends through another cullender **F**, and descending from it into a condensing vessel **G**, the air is extricated, and carried off through the pipe **H**. The upper figure, **I**, represents the cullender with the shapes of the holes and their proportional distances according to Dr Lewis. Thus, with very little expence, where there is a sufficient quantity of water, as strong a blast of air as can be desired may be readily obtained; for several machines may be con-

structed, and joined together in a manner what similar to that above mentioned, in which a quantity of water is employed. But, in this method the air is loaded with moisture, in order to make the condensing vessel as high as conveniently may be, that the air may arrive at the furnace in as dry a state as possible. Slender pipes in the left hand machine, a gage filled with mercury or water, the strength of the blast may be determined. In the large iron founderies another method for blowing up the fires by means of a pump. These consist of cast iron cylinders about 3 feet diameter, exactly fitted with a piston moved up and down by means of a water pump. In the bottom of the cylinder is a large valve that of bellows, which rises as the piston goes up, and thus admits the air into the cylinder from below. Immediately above the bottom is a tube which goes to the furnace, as it proceeds from the cylinder is furnished with a valve opening outward. Thus, when the piston is drawn up, the valve in the bottom opens and admits the air that way into the cylinder, while the lateral valve shuts, and prevents the air from getting into it through the pipe. When the piston is thrust down, the valve in the bottom shuts, while the air being compressed in the cylinder is violently forced out through the lateral tube into the furnace. In the foundery at Carron, four of these large cylinders were a few years ago employed at their furnace, and so contrived that the strokes of the pistons, being made alternately, produced a most uninterrupted blast. Some little noise might indeed be perceived by the ear, but too trifling to produce any sensible effect upon the heat of the furnace. Even this could be prevented by means of a large reservoir into which all the four cylinders might discharge. This should be furnished with an heavy piston, whose weight, being supported by the cylinder alone, would force it out through the lateral tube in a manner perfectly equable, and without any of that puffing or interruption in the blast which is perceptible though but in a small degree in the other.

(17.) FURNACE, WIND. See **CHEMISTRY**.
* *To FURNACE. v. a.* [from the French] To throw out as sparks from a furnace. A

He furnaces

The thick sighs from him. *Shak.*

FURNEAUX, an inhabited island in the Pacific Ocean, first discovered by Bougainville afterwards by captain Cook. See **COOK** § 9. It is surrounded by a coral bank and produces cocoa-nut trees. Lon. 143. 7. W. 11. S.

FURNES, or **VURENES**, a town of the republic, in the dept. of Lys, and ci-devant of Austrian Flanders; seated on a canal from Bruges to Dunkirk. It was taken by the French under Lewis XIV. It was retaken by the French republicans in May 1793, after being evacuated. It was again taken by the British in May 1794, and annexed to the republic. It lies 12 miles E. of Dunkirk, and 10 miles N. of Ostend. Lon. 2. 45. E. Lat. 51. 4. N.

FURNISH. *v. a.* [*fournir*, French.] 1. To furnish with what is necessary to a certain pur-

She hath directed
shall take her from her father's house;
old and jewels she is *furnish'd* with. *Shak.*

His training such,
may *furnish* and instruct great teachers,
er seek for aid out of himself. *Shak.*
alt *furnish* him liberally out of thy flock.
—Come, thou stranger, and *furnish* a ta-
red me of that thou hast ready. *Ecclef.*
—Auria, having driven the Turks from
oth by sea and land, *furnished* the city
; wine, victual, and powder. *Kneller's*
all not need to heap up instances; eve-
ading and conversation will sufficiently
; if he wants to be better stored. *Locke.*
; to supply.—These simple ideas, the
f all our knowledge, are suggested and
the mind only by these two ways, sen-
reflection. *Locke.*—It is not the state,
pact among private persons that hath
ut these several remittances. *Addison.*
ip; to fit with appendages.—

Something deeper,
f perchance these are but *furnishings*. *Sh.*
ntained some of his friends at dinner,
the chamber a bed or couch, neatly
furnished. Diogenes came in, and got
ie bed, and trampled on it, saying, I tram-
he pride of Plato. Plato mildly answer-
th greater pride, Diogenes. *Bacon's A-*
We were led into another great room,
with old inscriptions. *Addison on Italy.*
ip; to fit out for any undertaking.—
lordship lend me a thousand pounds to
? *Shakespeare's Henry IV.*—

ideas, forms, and intellects,
furnish'd out three different sects. *Prior.*
is the man Jesus Christ is *furnished* with
owers to all the angels in heaven, be-
s employed in superior work. *Watts.* 3.
ite; to supply with ornamental house-

ounded arm would *furnish* all their rooms,
ed for ever scarlet in the looms. *Halifax.*

FURNISHER. *n. s.* [*fournisseur*, Fr. from
One who supplies or fits out.

FURNITURE. *n. s.* [*furniture*, Fr. from *fur-*
Moveables; goods put in a house for
ament.—No man can transport his large
is sumptuous fare, and his rich *furniture*
er world. *South.*—There are many no-
s in Venice; their *furniture* is not very
e except the pictures. *Addison.* 2. Ap-
—By a general conflagration mankind
estroyed, with the form and all the *fur-*
the earth. *Tillotson.* 3. Equipage; em-
nts; decorations.—

ing Clarion, with vauntful lustyhed,
is guise did cast abroad to fare,
ereto 'gan his *furnitures* prepare. *Spenser.*
duke is coming: see the barge be ready,
it with such *furniture* as suits
eatness of his person. *Shak. Henry VIII.*
and must be of a mixt brown, and large

enough, or the horse's *furniture* must be of very
sensible colours. *Dryd.*

FUROR UTERINUS. See *MEDICINE, Index.*

FUROT LA VALETTE, a town of France, in
the dep. of Rhone and Loire, 12 miles from St E-
tienne.

FURR. See *FUR*, § 1, 3, 4.

FURREN, LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in the
county of Mayo, 12 miles NW. of Castlebar.

* **FURRIER.** *n. s.* [from *fur*.] A dealer in furs.

* **FURROW.** *n. s.* [*furb*, Saxon.] 1. A small
trench made by the plow for the reception of seed.
—Wheat must be sowed above *furrow* before Mi-
chaelmas. *Mortimer.*—

Then ploughs for seed the fruitful *furrows*
broke,

And oxen labour'd first beneath the yoke.

Dryden's Ovid.

1. Any long trench or hollow; as a wrinkle.—

My lord it is, though time has plow'd that face
With many *furrows* since I saw it first;
Yet I'm too well acquainted with the ground
quite to forget it. *Dryd. and Lee's Oedipus.*

* **To FURROW.** *v. a.* [from the noun; *fyrian*,
Saxon.] 1. To cut in furrows.—

While the ploughman near at hand

Whistles o'er the *furrow'd* land. *Milton.*

2. To divide in long hollows.—

No briny tear has *furrow'd* her smooth cheek.

Suckling.

The billows fall, while Neptune lays his mace
On the rough sea, and smooths its *furrow'd* face.

Dryden.

3. To make by cutting.—

There go the ships that *furrow* out their way;
Yea, there of whales enormous fights we see.

Wotton.

* **FURROW-WEED.** *n. s.* [*furrow* and *weed*.] A
weed that grows in furrowed land.—

Crown'd with rank fumiter, and *furrow-weeds*.

Shakespeare.

(1.) **FURRUCKABAD**, a district of Indostan
Proper, in the circar of Rohilcund, about 30 miles
long, on the W. bank of the Ganges; belonging
to a prince of the Patan Rohilla tribe, and sur-
rounded by the country of Oude.

(2.) **FURRUCKABAD**, the capital of the above
district, (N^o 1.) is seated on the Ganges, 75 miles
E. of Agra, and 76 NW. of Lucknow. Lon. 79.
30. W. Lat. 27. 28. N.

(3.) **FURRUCKABAD**, a town of Indostan, in
Bengal, 42 miles NNW. of Moorshedabad.

* **FURRY.** *adj.* [from *fur*.] 1. Covered with
fur; dressed in fur.—

From Volga's banks th' imperious Czar

Leads forth his *furry* troops to war. *Felton.*

2. Consisting of fur.—

Stretch out thy lazy limbs, awake, awake,
And Winter from thy *furry* mantle shake. *Dryd.*

Not arm'd with horns of arbitrary might,
Or claws to seize their *furry* spoils in fight. *Dryd.*

FURRY'S-TOWN, a town of Jamaica, in St James
county, 20 miles NE. of Savannah La Mar.

(1.) **FURSEY**, an island of England in Pool
harbour, Dorsetshire, containing about 30 acres.

(2.) **FURSEY**, a town on the above island.

FURST, Walter, one of the founders of the
libertine

ties of the Swiss. In 1307, at the head of the
patriots he took and razed the Austrian
forts, and thus founded the Swiss republic.

FURSTENAU, the name of 3 towns in Ger-
many: 1. in the bishopric of Osnaburg, 15 miles
NNW. of Osnaburg: 2. in Upper Saxony, 3 miles
S. of Lauenstein.

(1.) FURSTENBERG, or FURSTENBURG, a
county of Germany in Suabia, erected in the 13th
century, bounded by the duchy of Wirtemberg,
the county of Hohenburg, Brisgaw, the Black Fo-
rest, and the lake and bishopric of Constance.

(2.) FURSTENBERG, or FURSTENBURG, the ca-
pital of the above county, (N^o 1.) with an ancient
castle, seated on a mountain, near the Danube,
30 miles NW. of Constance. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat.
47. 50. N.

(3.—6.) FURSTENBERG, or } four other towns
FURSTENBURGH, } of Germany: viz.
1. in Lusatia, on the Oder, taken by the Prussians
in 1745, 13 miles S. of Francfort; 2. in the bi-
shopric of Paderborn, 2 miles NE. of Wunnen-
burg; 3. in the duchy of Mecklenburg, on the
Havel, 10 miles SE. of Strelitz; 4. in the county
of Waldeck, 10 miles W. of Waldeck.

FURSTENECK, a town and castle of Germa-
ny, in the bishopric of Fulda, 13 m. N. of Fulda.

FURSTENFELD, two towns of Germany: 1.
in Brandenburg, at the conflux of the Aulwitz
and the Feist, 2. 10 miles N. of Custrin: 2. in
Stiria, near Hungary, 30 miles E. of Gratz, and
68 S. of Vienna. Lon. 16. 5. E. Lat. 47. 23. N.

FURSTENWALDE, a towns of Upper Sax-
ony: 1. in the margraviate of Meissen, 2 miles S.
of Lauenstein: 2. in the middle Mark of Bran-
denburg, 26 miles E. of Berlin, and 20 W. of
Francfort on the Oder. It was taken by the
Swedes in 1631, and is seated on the Spree. Lon.
14. 8. E. Lat. 52. 21. N.

FURSTENWERDER, a town of Branden-
burg, 10 miles WNW. of Prenzlow.

FURT, a town of Bavaria, 56 m. NW. of Passau.

FURTH, a large and populous town of Fran-
conia, in Anspach, on the Rednitz, 4 miles W of
Nuremberg.

FURTHCOMING, in law, the name of an ac-
tion competent to any person who has used ar-
restment in the hands of his debtor's creditor, for
having the subj-ct arrested declared his property.

(1.) * FURTHER. *adj.* (from *forth*, not from
far, as is commonly imagined; *forth*, *further*,
furtherst, corrupted from *forth*, *forthst*; *forðer*,
Saxon. *Forther* is used by Sir Thomas More. See
FORTH and FARTHER, of which the exam-
ples are to be referred to this word.) 1. At a greater
distance. 2. Beyond this.—What *further* need have
we of witnesses? *Matth.* xxvi. 65.—

Satan had journey'd on, penive and flow;
But *further* way found none, so thick intw'm'd,
As one continued brake, the undergrowth
Of shrubs and tangling bushes had perplex'd
All path of man or beast that pass'd that way,
Milton.

Their earnest eyes they fix'd, imagining
For one forbidden tree a multitude
was, to work them *further* awe or shame.
Milton.

I may meet

Some wand'ring spirit, from him to
What *further* would be learn'd.

3. *Further* has in some sort the force of
tive in the phrase *no further*, for *nothing*.
Let this appease

Thy doubt, since human reach no *further*

(2.) * FURTHER. *adv.* (from *forth*.)
er distance.—And the angel of Lord we
and stood in a narrow place. *Numb.* xx

* To FURTHER *v. a.* (from the adverb
Saxon.) To put onward; to forward; to
to countenance; to assist; to help.—

Things thus set in order, in quiet
Shall *further* thy harvest, and pleasur

—Could their fond superstition have
great attempt, without the mixture of
lusion concerning the irresistible force
power. *Hooker.*—Grant not, O Lord,
of the wicked; *further* not his wicked
cxl. 8.—

This binds thee then to *further* my
As I am bound by vow to *further* the

* FURTHERANCE. *n. f.* (from *furi*
motion; advancement; help.—The G
ed them first, and used them only for ti
ance of their trade and private business.
Our diligence must search out all help
therances of direction, which scripture,
fathers, histories, the laws and practi
churches afford. *Hooker.*—For gain and
success, in his affairs, he seeketh *further*
that hath no manner of power. *Hooker.*

Cannot my body, nor blood sacrific
Intreat you to your wonted *furtheran*
Shak.

—If men were minded to live righteous
lieve a God would be no hindrance or
to any such design, but very much
vancement and *furtherance* of it. *Tillot*

* FURTHERER. *n. f.* (from *further*
ter; advancer.—That earnest favourer
therer of God's true religion, that faithful
to his prince and country. *Ascham.*

* FURTHERMORE. *adv.* [*further*
Moreover; besides.—

This ring I do accept most thankful
And so, I pray you, tell him: *further*
I pray you, shew my youth old Shyloc

* FURTIVE. *adj.* [*furtive*, Fr. *furti*
Stolen; gotten by theft.—

Or do they, as your schemes, I th
shown,

Dart *furtive* beams and glory not the
All servants to that source of light, the
FURUM, an island in the Baltic, on
of Sweden.

(1.) * FURUNCLE. *n. f.* [*furuncul*,
culus, Lat.] A pimple; an angry pustule.—
is in its beginning round, hard, and infla-
as it increaseth, it riseth up with an ac-
and sometimes a pustule; and then it is
flamed and painful, when it arrives at
which is about the eighth or ninth day.

(2.) FURUNCLE, } or Boil, is other
FURUNCLE, } used, a small vesicle

inflammation, redness, and great pain, arising from the adipose membrane, under the skin.

SUND, an island of Sweden, in the Baltic. 18. 45. E. Lat. 59. 46. N.

-WROUGHT. *adj.* [*fur* and *wrought*.] *fur*.—

Along the mazy margin stray,
With the *fur-wrought* fly delude the prey.

Gay's Psyllorals.

FURY. *n. f.* [*furor*, Latin. *furor*, Fr.] 1. Rage; passion of anger; tumult approaching to madness.—

Oppose my patience to his *fury*; and am I'd

With a quietness of spirit

By tyranny and rage of his.

Shak.

Given me to know the natures of living
And the *furies* of wild beasts. *Wisdom,*

Enthusiasm; exaltation of fancy.—

The lute, her wit began to be with a
Inspired; and her voice would, in so
Occasion, second her wit. *Sidney*.—

That had number'd in the world

To course two hundred compasses,

Prophetick *fury* few'd the work.

Shak. Othello.

More than human kind she seem'd to look,

With an accent more than mortal spoke;

Her eyes with sparkling *fury* roll,

As the god came rushing on her soul.

Dryden's Æneid.

furia, Lat.] One of the deities of vent
Hence a stormy, turbulent, violent,
Fury.—

Light of any of the house of York,

Try to torment my soul. *Shak. H. VI.*

The most proper place for a *fury* to make

And I believe every reader's imagination

When he sees the angry goddess linking

Her, and plunging herself into hell, amidst

The horror and confusion. *Addison.*

Fury, § 1. *def.* 4. See **FURIA**.

FURZE. *n. f.* [*firs*, Saxon; *genista spi-*
Gors; goss.—The whole plant is ve-

The flowers, which are of the pea-

, are disposed in short thick spikes,

Preceded by short compressed pods, in

Which are contained three or four kidney-

Miller.—

Put gravel to fill up a hole,

Over and *furzin*, the turf and the cole.

Tusser.

, there groweth great store of *furze*,

The shrubby sort is called tame, and the

In French. *Carew's Survey*.—

We may know,

When to reap the grain, and when to sow,

When to fell the *furzes*. *Dryden's Virgil.*

FURZE, in botany. See **ULEX**

Furze. *adj.* from *furze*.] Overgrown with
Of gorse.—

Through the *furzy* field their rout they

Edging bosoms force the thorny brake.

Gay.

FURZE, in botany: A genus of the monoc-

Belonging to the polygamia class of

The hermaphrodite calyx is *quinquefid*;

Pearl L.

there is no corolla; there are 4 stamina; the ger-
men beneath; there are 4 stigmata; the fruit is a
plum.

FUSAROLE, in architecture, a moulding or
ornament placed immediately under the echinus,
in the Doric, Ionic, and Composite capitals.

* **FUSCATION**. *n. f.* [*fuscus*, Lat.] The act
of darkening or obscuring. *Dist.*

FUSE, or **FUZE**, in artillery. See **FUSIL**, § 1. 5.

(1.) * **To FUSE**. *v. a.* [*fundo*, *fusum*, Lat.] To
melt; to put into fusion; to liquify by heat.

(2.) * **To FUSE**. *v. n.* To be melted; to be
capable of being liquefied by heat.

(1.) * **FUSEE**. *n. f.* [*fusée*, French.] 1. The

cone round which is wound the cord or chain of

a clock or watch.—The reason of the motion of

the balance is by the motion of the next wheel,

and that by the motion of the next, and that by

the motion of the *fusée*, and that by the motion

of the spring: the whole frame of the watch car-

ries a reasonableness in it, the passive impression

of the intellectual idea that was in the artist.

Hale's Origin of Mankind. 2. A firelock [from *fu-*

fil, Fr.]; a small neat mu'quet. This is more

properly written *fusil*.

(2.) **FUSEE**, § 1. *def.* 1. See **CLOCK**, § 3, and
WATCH.

(3.) **FUSER**, § 1. *def.* 2. See **MUSKET**.

(4.) * **FUSEE**. Track of a buck. *Ainsl.*

(5.) * **FUSEE OF A BOMB OR GRENADO SHELL**,

is that which makes the whole powder or compo-

sition in the shell take fire, to do the designed ex-

ecution. 'Tis usually a wooden pipe or tap, fill-

ed with wildfire, or some such matter; and is in-

tended to burn no longer than is the time of the

motion of the bomb from the mouth of the mor-

tar to the place where it is to fall, which time An-

derson makes 27 seconds. *Harris.*

(6.) **FUSEES OF BOMBS OR GRENADOES**, are

chiefly made of very dry beech-wood, and some-

times of hornbeam, taken near the root. They

are turned rough, and bored, and then kept for

several years in a dry place; the diameter of the

hole is about $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch; the hole does not

come quite through, leaving about $\frac{1}{2}$ th of an inch

at the bottom; and the head is made hollow, in

the form of a bowl. The composition for fuses

is saltpetre 3 parts, sulphur 1, and mealed pow-

der 3, 4, and sometimes 5. This composition is

driven in with an iron driver (whose ends are

capped with copper to prevent the composition

from taking fire), and pressed as hard as possible;

the last shovel-full being all mealed powder, and

two stands of quickmatch laid across each other

being driven in with it, the ends of which are fold-

ed up into the hollow top, and a cap of parch-

ment tied over it till it be used. When these fu-

zes are driven into the loaded shell, the lower end

is cut off in a slope, so that the composition may

inflame the powder in the shell. The fuse must

have such a length as to continue burning all the

time the shell is in its range, and to set fire to the

powder as soon as it touches the ground, which

instantly bursts into many pieces. When the dis-

tance of the battery from the object is known, the

time of the shell's flight may be computed to a

second or two; which being known, the fuse

may be cut accordingly, by burning two or three.

and making use of a watch, or string by way of pendulum, to vibrate seconds.

(1.) * FUSIBILITY. *n. f.* [from *fusible*.] Capacity of being melted; quality of growing liquid by heat.—The ancients observing in that material a kind of metallical nature, or at least a *fusibility*, seem to have resolved it into a nobler use. *Wotton's Architecture*.—The bodies of most use, that are sought for out of the depths of the earth, are the metals, which are distinguished from other bodies by their weight, *fusibility*, and malleableness. *Locke*.

(2.) The FUSIBILITY of gold is greater than that of iron or copper; but less than that of silver, tin, and lead. Borax is frequently mixed with metals, to render them more fusible.

* FUSIBLE. *adj.* [from *fuse*.] Capable of being melted; capable of being made liquid by heat.—Colours afforded by metalline bodies, either colliquate with, or otherwise penetrate into other bodies, especially *fusible* ones. *Boyle*.

FUSIGNANO, a market town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of the Lower Po, and ci-devant duchy of Ferrara.

(1.) * FUSIL. *adj.* [*fusile*, Fr. *fusilis*, Latin.] 1. Capable of being melted; liquifiable by heat.—Some, less skilful, fancy these scapi that occur in most of the large Gothick buildings of England are artificial; and will have it, that they are a kind of *fusil* marble. *Woodward*. 2. Running by the force of heat.—

The liquid ore he drain'd
Into fit molds prepar'd; from which he form'd
First his own tools: then, what might else be
wrought

Fusile or grav'n in metal. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.
Perpetual flames,

O'er sand and ashes, and the stubborn flint,
Prevailing, turn into a *fusil* sea. *Philips*.

(2.) * FUSIL. *n. f.* [*fusil*, French.] 1. A fire-lock; a small neat musquet. 2. [In heraldry; from *fusus*, Latin.] Something like a spindle.—*Fusils* must be made long, and small in the middle, in the ancient coat of Montague, argent three *fusils* in fesse gules. *Peacock*.

(3.) FUSIL, in heraldry, a bearing of a rhomboid figure, longer than the lozenge, and having its upper and lower angles more acute and sharp than the other two in the middle. It is called in Latin *fusus*, “a spindle,” from its shape.

(1.) * FUSILIER. *n. f.* [from *fusil*.] A soldier armed with a fusil; a musketeer.

(2.) FUSILIERS, FUSILEERS, or FUZILEERS, are armed as the rest of the infantry, but wear caps like the grenadiers, though somewhat shorter. There are 3 royal regiments of fusiliers in the British service: viz. those of the Scotch fusiliers raised in 1678; of English fusiliers; in 1685; and of Welsh fusiliers, in 1688-9.

FUSINE, a village of Maritime Austria, in the late Dogado of Venice, and district of Chioggia, on the Canal of Brenta.

(1.) * FUSION. *n. f.* [*fusio*, Lat. *fusio*, Fr.] 1. The act of melting. 2. The state of being melted, or of running with heat.—Metals in *fusion* do not flame for want of a copious fume, expeller, which fumes copiously, and thereby *ca.* *Newton's Optics*.

(2.) FUSION. See CHEMISTRY, 1 FLUIDITY.

* FUSS. *n. f.* [A low cant word.] a bustle.—

End as it befits your station;
Come to use and application;
Nor with senates keep a *fuss*:
I submit, and answer thus.

(1.) FUST, or FAUSTUS, a goldsmith and one of the 3 earliest printers, to invention of this most useful art has been. Some say, he only assisted Guttenberg, in his attempts to make moveable type. Be that as it may, he had the conceal his art; and to this we are in the tradition of *The Devil and Dr Faust*, ed down to the present times. Fust, in ship with Peter Schoeffer, having, in 1469, ed off a considerable number of copies of the Bible, to imitate those which were sold in the East, he undertook the sale of them at Paris, where the art of printing was then unknown. He sold his copies for so high a sum as 5 crowns, the prices usually demanded by scribes. He afterwards lowered his price to 3 crowns, which created universal astonishment; but when he produced copies as fast as wanted, and lowered the price to 30 c, Paris was agitated. The uniformity of increased the wonder; informations were sent the police against him as a magician; he was searched; and a great number of copies found, they were seized: the red ink, which they were embellished, was said to be his; he was seriously adjudged that he was in league with the devil; and if he had not fled, most probably would have shared the fate of those wretched and superstitious judges condemn him to days for witchcraft. See PRINTING. *kins*, in his *Biographical and Historical Dictionary*, lately published, says “this story is a fable;” and assigns no authority for discrediting it. He is said to have died of the plague at Paris, about 1474.

(2.) * FUST. *n. f.* [*fuste*, Fr.] 1. The trunk or body of a column. 2. [From *fus*.] A strong smell, as that of a mouldy barrel. * To FUST. *v. n.* [from the noun.] to smell ill.

(1.) * FUSTIAN. *adj.* [from the noun.] Made of fustian. 2. Swelling; unnatural; ridiculously tumid. Used of style.

When men argue, th' greatest
O' th' contest falls on terms of art,
Until the *fustian* stuff be spent,
And then they fall to th' argument.
—Virgil, if he could have seen the first
the Sylva, would have thought Statius
his *fustian* description of the statue on
horse. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*.

(2.) * FUSTIAN. *n. f.* [*futaine*, Fr. *fuste*, a tree, because cotton grows on it.] A kind of cloth made of linen and cotton, perhaps now of cotton only.—Is the house trimm'd, the serving men in *fustian* and their white stockings? Such a high swelling kind of writing made up of numerous parts, or of words and ideas, without substance; bombast.—

will you raise me in combustion,
t of high heroick *fustian*. *Hudibras*.
fustian have I heard these gentlemen find
Mr Cowley's odes! In general, I will
nothing can appear more beautiful to
the strength of those images they con-
ry.
fustian is thoughts and words ill
without the least relation to each other.

see thoughts, when govern'd by the close,
to *fustian*, or descend to prose. *Smith*.
STIAN, in commerce, (§ 1, *def.* 1.) is a
otton stuff, which seems as if it were
n one side. Fustians should be altogether
otton yarn, both woof and warp; but
ces are made, the warp of which is flax,
mp. Fustians are made of various kinds,
row, fine, coarse; with shag or nap,
ut it.

FUSTIC. *n. f.* A sort of wood brought
West India, used in dying of cloth. *Dist*.
STIC, or FUSTOCK, is a yellow wood,
s in all the Caribbee islands. It pays no
portation. It is a species of MORUS.

FUSTIGATE. *v. a.* [*fustigo*, Latin.] To
a stick; to cane. *Dist*.

FUSTIG, in the Roman customs, a pu-
inflicted by beating with a cudgel. This
nt was peculiar to freemen; the slaves
rged with whips.

FUSTILARIAN. *n. f.* [from *fusty*.] A low
stinkard; a scoundrel. A word used
peare only.—Away, you scullion, you
: I'll tickle your catastrophe. *Shak*.

FUSTINESS. *n. f.* [from *fusty*.] Mouldiness;

OCK. See FUSTIC, and MORUS.

FUSTY. *adj.* [from *fust*.] Ill-smelling; moui-
for shall have a great catch, if he knock
r of your brains: he were as good crack
it with no kernel. *Shak*.

fusty plebeians hate thine honours. *Shak*.

large Achilles, at this *fusty* stuff,
his deep chest laughs out a loud applause.

Shak.

.K, a town of Hungary, on the Danube,
Peter-Waradin; 16 miles SSE. of Bacs.

FUTILE. *adj.* [*futile*, Fr. *futiles*, Latin.]
tive; loquacious.—One *futile* person, that
t his glory to tell, will do more hurt than
at know it their duty to conceal. *Bacon*.
g; worthless; of no weight.

FUTILITY. *n. f.* [*futilité*, Fr. from *futile*.]
tiveness; loquacity.—This fable does not
much at the *futility* of women, as at the
nt levity of a prying humour. *L'Esrange*.
gness; want of weight; want of solidity.
g *futility* appears in their signs of the zo-
d their mutual relations and aspects. *Bent*.

FUTOCKS. *n. f.* [corrupted from *foot books*.

The lower timbers that hold the ship

FYPOUR SICAI, a considerable town of
Proper, in the province of Agra, seated
range of hills; the southern boundary of
nse plain, in which hardly a shrub is to
and the soil is almost as fine as hair-pow-
circumstance productive of the most disa-

greeable effects, when the hot winds blow from
the W. Its situation too is unhealthy from the
badness of its water. Yet the country near it is
in tolerable cultivation. It is 42 miles W. of A-
gra. Lon. 77. 45. E. Lat. 27. 0. N.

(1.) * FUTURE. *adj.* [*futurus*, Latin; *futur*,
Fr.] That which will be hereafter; to come:
as, the *future* state.—

Glory they sung to the most High! good will
To *future* men, and in their dwellings peace.

Milton.

He sows the teeth at Pallas's command,
And flings the *future* people from his hand.

Addison's Ovid.

(2.) * FUTURE. *n. f.* [from the adjective.]
Time to come; somewhat to happen hereafter.—

Thy letters have transported me beyond

This ign'rant present time; and I feel now

The *future* in the instant. *Shak. Macbeth*.

—The mind, once jaded by an attempt above its
power, either is disabled for the *future*, or else
checks at any vigorous undertaking ever after.
Locke.

(3.) FUTURE, or FUTURE TENSE, in grammar,
denotes an inflexion of verbs, whereby they de-
note, that a thing will be in some time yet to
come. See GRAMMAR.

* FUTURELY. *adv.* [from *future*.] In time
to come.—This prescience of God, as it is presci-
ence, is not the cause of any thing *futurely* suc-
ceeding; neither doth God's foreknowledge im-
pose any necessity, or bind. *Raleigh*.

* FUTURITION. *n. f.* [from *future*.] The
state of being to be; the condition of being to come
to pass hereafter.—Is it imaginable, that the great
means of the world's redemption should rest only
in the number of possibilities, and hang so loose
in respect to its *futurition*, as to leave the event in
an equal poise, whether ever there should be such
a thing or no? *South*.

* FUTURITY. *n. f.* [from *future*.] 1. Time
to come; events to come.—

Not my service past, nor present sorrows,

Nor purpos'd merit in *futurity*,

Can ransom me.

Shak. Othello.

—I will contrive some way to make it known to
futurity, that I had your lordship for my patron.

Swift. 2. Event to come.—All *futurities* are na-
ked before that All seeing Eye, the sight of which is
no more hindred by distance of time, than the sight
of an angel can be determined by distance of place.
South.—

This, great Amphiaras, lay hid from thee,

Though skill'd in fate and dark *futurity*. *Pope*.

3. The state of being to be; *futurition*.—It may
be well reckoned among the bare possibilities, which
never commence into a *futurity*, it requiring such
a free, sedate and intent mind, as it may be, is
no where found but among the platonical ideas.
Glanville's Scepis.

FUTWALL, a town of Bengal, 9 miles SE. of
Patna.

FUZE, FUSE, or FUSRE. See FUSEE.

FUZEIER, Lewis, a French dramatic author,
and one of the editors of a periodical work, enti-
tled *The Mercury*. His works are written with
spirit. He died in 1752, aged 80.

FUZILEER. See FUSILIER.

FUZIR, a town of Hungary, 12 miles SSE. of Caschau.

* To FUZZ. *v. n.* [without etymology.] To fly out in small particles.

* FUZZBALL. *n. s.* [*fuzz* and *ball*.] A kind of fungus, which, when pressed, bursts and scatters dust in the eyes.

* FY. *interj.* [*fy*, French and Flemish; *φύ*, Greek; *fab*, Latin.] A word of blame and disapprobation.

And *fy* on fortune, mine avowed foe,
Whose wrathful wrecks themselves do now allay.

Spenser.

—*Fy*, my lord, *fy*! a soldier, and afraid? What need we fear who knows it, when none can call our power to account? *Macbeth*.—A bawd, sir, *fy* upon him. *Shak.*—

But *fy*, my wand'ring muse, how thou do'st stray!

Expectance calls thee now another way. *Milton.*

Nay, *fy*, what mean you in this open place?
Unhand me, or, I swear, I'll scratch your face:
Let go, for shame! you make me mad for spite:
My mouth's my own; and if you kiss, I'll bite.

Dryden.

—*Fy*, madam, he cried, we must be past all these gaities. *Tatler.*

FYAL, one of the AZORES. It is well cultivated, and yields corn, garden stuffs, and various fruits. It has several kinds of domesticated European animals: the people are cleanly, diligent, and fairer than those of Madeira. The chief town is Villa de Horta. Lon. 28. 36. W. Lat. 38. 32. N.

FYAN'S TOWN, a town of Ireland, in Meath county, 30 miles from Dublin.

FYEN. See FUNEN.

FYERS, or FYRES, a river of Invernesshire,

which descending from the S. flows into the Ness, 10 miles NE. of Fort Augustus. On it is built a stupendous bridge, on two opposite rocks; the top of the arch being above 100 feet from the level of the water. A little below the bridge is the celebrated *Fall of Fyers*, where a great body of water shoots through a narrow passage between two rocks, and then falls over a vast precipice into the bottom of the chasm, whence foam rises and fills the air like a cloud of smoke.

FYFIELD, 3 English villages: 1. in Berkshire, W. of Abingdon: 2. in Essex, near Ongar: 3. in Wilts, W. of Marlborough.

FYNE, Loch, a great inlet of the sea in Gyleshire, near 40 miles long. It receives a tide on each side of the isle of Arran, which is directly opposite to its entrance.

FYNONVAER, a town in Salop, near Oswestry. FYTTY, John, a celebrated painter, born at Antwerp, about 1625, one of the best artists of his time. He often painted in conjunction with Rubens and Jordaens; and finished the hair of animals and the plumage of fowls with wonderful spirit and exactness.

FYVIE, a parish in Aberdeenshire, 13 miles long and 8 broad, containing about 22,000 acres, of which 8000 are under culture, and 12,000 are covered with wood. The Ythan, and the road from Aberdeen to Banff run thro' it. The air is pure, and the soil kindly, yielding good crops of oats and barley. The population in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr. Mackenzie to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2,194: the decrease in 1755, 334.

FYZABAD, a large and populous city in the doostan Proper, in the territory of Oude; on the Gogra, 80 m. E. of Lucknow, and 500 m. by W. of Calcutta. Lon. 82. 30. E. Lat. 26. 30. N.

G

(1.) * **G** Has two sounds, one from the Greek γ, and the Latin, which is called that of the hard G, because it is formed by a pressure somewhat hard of the fore part of the tongue against the upper gum. This sound G retains before *a, o, u, l, r*; as, *gate, go, gull*. The other sound, called that of the soft G, resembles that of γ, and is commonly, though not always, found before *e, i*; as, *gem, gibbet*. Before *n*, at the end of a word, *g* is commonly melted away; as in the French, from which these words are commonly derived: thus, for *benign, malign, condign*, we pronounce *benine, maline, condine*. It is often silent in the middle of words before *b*; as, *night*. The Saxon G, *g*, seems to have had generally the sound of γ consonant; whence *gate* is by rusticks still pronounced *yate*.

(2.) G is used, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; 3. as a musical character; and, 4. it was anciently used as a numeral. I. As a LETTER, G is the 7th of our alphabet, and the 5th consonant. In the alphabets of all the oriental languages, the γ, Phenician, Chaldee, Syriac, Samaritan, and even the Greek, it is the 3d letter. The Persians call it *ghimel* or *gimel*, i. e. camel,

because it resembles the neck of that animal. It bears the same appellation in the Samaritan, Phenician, Chaldee: in the Syriac it is called *mel*, in Arabic *giim*, and in Greek *gamma*. The gamma (γ) of the Greeks is evidently the gimel of the Hebrews or Samaritans. The chief difference between the gamma and gimel consists in this, that the one is turned to the right, the other to the left, according to the different manners of writing and reading which obtained among those nations: though Salmasius and Solinus, vainly attempted to prove that the G was derived from the Greek kappa. It is clear that the Latins borrowed their form of this letter from the Greeks; the Latin G being only a variation of the Greek gamma, γ; as might easily be shown, had our printers all the forms of this letter, which we meet with in the Greek and Latin inscriptions through which it has passed from γ to G. Pliny, lib. ii. cap. *De Litera*, calls G a new letter. His reason is, that the Romans had not introduced it before the first Punic war; as appears from the rostral column erected by C. Duilius, on which we everywhere find a C instead of G. It was Carvilius who first distinguished between these letters.

and invented the figure of the G; as we see by Terentius Scaurus. The C served for G; it being the third letter of the alphabet, as the γ or γ was of the Greek. I found instead of C on several medals: *Num. Imperat.* tom. i. p. 39. M. Beyer has a medal of the *Familia Ogulnia*, where C instead of CAR, which is on those of Augustus. But the C is more frequently seen instead of G; as, AUCUSTALIS CALLAETACINENSIS, &c. for AUGUSTALIS, &c. the pronunciation of those words was not only that the G was ignorantly or neglected by the workmen: as is the case in inscriptions of the eastern empire; where CC, AUCC, are often found for AUG, the northern nations frequently changed C into V or W; as in *Gallus*, *Wallus*; *Gallia*, *Wallia*. &c. For in this instance it cannot be that the French changed the W into G; before they wrote *Gallus* long before *Wallus* is known, as appears from all the ancient and Greek writers. And yet it is true, that the French change the W of their nations, and the V consonant, into *Guillelmus*, William, into *Guillaume*; into *Gulphilas*; *Vasco* into *Gascon*, &c. modern G takes its form from that of C. It is a mute, and cannot be sounded without the help of a vowel. Its hard sound, not as Dr Johnson says above, (§ 1.) "effluve of the fore part of the tongue against the upper gum," but by the reflection of the air against the palate, made by the tongue as it comes out of the throat; which Martians thus, *G spiritus cum palato*; so that G is a hard letter. G often sounds hard before i, &c. and sometimes before e, as *get*, &c. hard in derivatives from words ending in *ing*, *stronger*, &c. and generally before the end of words, as *finger*. G is mute before *gn*, *gnish*, *sign*. Gb has the sound of hard *g* beginning of a word, as *ghostly*; sometimes at the end it is quite silent, as *though*. But in many other words Gb has the sound of *g*, as *rough*, *tough*, &c. and in the word *rough*, by ignorance or inadvertency in spelling, has actually usurped the place of *g*. As an ABBREVIATION, G. stands for *genius*, *gens*, *genius*, &c. G. G. for *geffert*, *gefferunt*, &c. G. C. for *genio ci- casaris*. G. L. for *Gaius libertus*, or *ge- G. V. S.* for *genio urbis sacrum*. G. B. for *bonum*. And G. T. for *genio tutelari*. III. G is the character or mark of the treachery, and from its being placed at the head, being the first sound in Guido's scale, the letter took the name GAMUT. IV. As a number, G was anciently used to denote 400; a dash over it, thus, \overline{G} , for 40,000. G, [ג, Hebrew, i. e. an abomination,] was the name of Ebed, the leader of the conspiracy of the Ammonites against the usurper ABIMELECH, the son of Gideon. See Judges, ix. 26—41. AL. Barent, an eminent Dutch painter, died 1650. He was a disciple of Ph. Wouwerman, and acquired his manner. His landscapes are much esteemed.

GAARDE, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus, 56 miles NW. of Christiania.

GABALA, a town of Arabia Felix, 64 miles NNE. of Aden.

GABALE, in mythology, a deity worshipped at Heliopolis under the figure of a lion, with a radiant head; and it is thus represented on many medals of Caracalla.

GABARA, or GABBARA, in antiquity, the dead bodies which the Egyptians embalmed, and kept in their houses, especially those of such of their friends as died with the reputation of great piety and holiness, or as martyrs. See EMBALMING, and MUMMY.

* GABARDINE. *n. f.* [*gabardina*, Italian.] A coarse frock; any mean dress—My best way is to creep under his *gabardine*; there is no other shelter hereabouts. *Shakesp. Tempest.*—

You call me misbeliever, cut-throat dog,
And spit upon my Jewish *gabardine*. *Shakesp.*
The knight did straight submit,
And laid his weapons at her feet:
Next he disrob'd his *gabardine*,
And with it did himself resign. *Hudibras.*

GABARET, a town of France, in the dept. of Landes, on the Gelse, 15 miles W. of Condom, and 24 E. of Mont Marian. Dr Brookes and J. Walker place it in the dept. of Gers, and also err in the lat. by a whole degree. Lon. o. 6. E. Lat. 43. 59. N.

GABAROUS BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Cape Breton. Lon. 60. o. W. Lat. 45. 50. N.

GABASELSKI, a town of Russia, in the government of Viborg; 36 miles N. of Serdopol.

* GABBLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Inarticulate noise like that of brute animals.—Not to know what we speak one to another, so we seem to know, is to know straight our purpose: though's language, *gabble* enough, and good enough. *Shak.*
2. Loud talk without meaning.—

Forthwith a hideous *gabble* rises loud
Among the builders; each to other calls,
Not understood. *Milt. Par. Lost.*
* To GABBLE. *v. n.* [*gabbare*, Ital. *gabberen*, Dut.] 1. To make an inarticulate noise.—

When thou could'st not, savage,
Shew thine own meaning, but would'st *gabble*
like
A thing most brutish, I endow'd thy purposes
With words that made them known.

Shakesp. Temp.
Flocks of fowl, that when the tempests roar,
With their hoarse *gabbling* seek the silent shore.

Dryden's Æn.
2. To prate loudly without meaning.—Have you no wit, manners, nor honesty, but to *gabble* like tinkers at this time of night? Do you make an alehouse of my lady's house? *Shakesp.*—

Which made some think, when he did *gabble*,
Th' had heard three labourers of Babel. *Hudib.*
Such a rout, and such a rabble,
Run to hear Jack Pudding *gabble*. *Swift.*

* GABBLER. *n. f.* [from *gabble*.] A prater; a chattering fellow.

(1.) * GABEL. *n. f.* [*gabelle*, Fr. *gabello*, Ital. *gafel*, Sax. a tribute.] An excise; a tax.—The *gabels* of Naples are very high on oil, wine, and tobacco. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) GABEL,

(2.) **GABEL**, [Lat. *Gabella*, *Gabium*, *Gablagium*, *u. e. Feßigal*,] has the same signification among the ancient English writers, that **GABELLE** had in France, before the revolution. It has been variously used, for a rent, custom, service, &c. Where it was a payment for rent, those who paid it were termed **GABLATOIRES**. Formerly when mentioned without any addition, *gabel* signified the tax on salt, though afterwards it was applied to all other taxes. In the ci-devant French customs, the *gabelle*, or tax on salt, is said to have had its rise in 1286, under Philip IV. Philip V. took a double per livre on salt, by an edict in 1312, which he promised to remit when he was delivered from his enemies; which was renewed by Philip VI. in 1345; and the duty was raised to 4 deniers per livre; king John resumed it in 1355, and it was granted to the dauphin in 1358, to ransom king John. It was continued by Charles V. in 1366; after his decease, it was suppressed, but revived again by Charles VI. in 1382. Louis XI. raised it to 12 deniers per livre; and Francis I. in 1542, to 24 livres per muid. It was afterwards so greatly augmented that it was estimated to constitute $\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole revenue of the kingdom; so that a minot of salt at last paid a duty of 52 livres, 8 sols, and 6 deniers. Philip VI. first established granaries and officers of the gabelles, and prohibited all others from selling salt. From that period, the commerce of salt for inland consumption continued wholly in the king's hands, every grain of it being sold by his farmers. This very odious and oppressive tax was early abolished by the National Assembly.

(3.) **GABEL**, in geography, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleslaw, 45 miles N. of Prague.

GABELLE. See **GABEL**, § 1, 2.

GABERSTORF, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 10 miles WSW. of Gnaa.

GABIAN, a village of France in the dept. of Herault, 7 miles NW. of Pezenas. It has a mineral spring, near which petroleum issues from a rock.

GABIANO, a village of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Mela, and ci-devant province of Brescia.

GABII, in ancient geography, a town of Latium, midway almost between Rome and Preneste to the E. often mentioned in the history of Tarquin I. It is now extinct.

GABIN, a town of Poland, in the Palatinate of Rawa, 40 miles W. of Warsaw.

GABINIAN LAWS, in Roman antiquity, laws instituted upon several occasions by persons of the name of *Gabinus*: 1. *Gabinia-lex de Comitibus*, by A. Gabinus the tribune, A. U. C. 614; requiring that in the public assemblies for electing magistrates, the votes should be given by tables, and not *viva voce*: 2. *De Comitibus*, which made it a capital punishment to convene any clandestine assembly, agreeable to the old law of the 12 tables: 3. *De Militia*, by A. Gabinus the tribune, A. U. C. 685. It granted Pompey the power of carrying on the war against the pirates, during 3 years, and of obliging all kings, governors, and states, to supply him with all the necessaries he wanted, over the Mediterranean sea, and in the maritime as far as 400 *stadia* from the sea: 4. *De*

Usura by Aul. Gabinus the tribune, A. U. C. ordaining that no action should be granted for recovery of any money borrowed upon interest to be lent upon larger. This was a practice at Rome, which obtained the name *versuram facere*: 5. Against fornication.

GABINUS CINCTUS, in Roman antiquity, a particular way of tucking the gown, by drawing it forwards on the breast, and tying it into a knot, as the people of **GABII** did at a solemn festival on the sudden attack of an enemy, in order to be fitter for action. In this manner they were used to declare war, to sacrifice, and to divide the spoils of the enemy; and then he was said to be *præcinctus*.

(1.) * **GABION**. *n. f.* [French.] A wide basket which is filled with earth to make a fortification or intrenchment.—His battery was defended all along with *gabions*, and casks filled with *Knollas*.

(2.) **GABIONS**, in fortifications, are made of osier twigs, of a cylindrical form, 4 feet high and 4 wide; which, being filled with earth, serve as a shelter from the enemy's fire.

GABISE, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the circle of 28 miles SE. of Constantinople.

GABLAGIUM. } See **GABEL**, § 2.

GABLATOIRES. }

(1.) * **GABLE**. *n. f.* [*gaval*, Welsh; *Gabel*, French.] The sloping roof of a building, care that all your brick-work be covered with tiling, according to the new way of building, out *gable ends*, which are very heavy, and apt to let the water into the brick-work. See *myer's Husbandry*.

(2.) **GABLE**, or *gable* of a house, is the triangular end from the eaves to the top of the house.

GABLENZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Erzgebürg, 6 miles NNW. of Zwickau.

GABOU, or **JABOU**, a country of Africa, between Benin and Dahomy, 150 miles from the sea.

(1.) **GABRES**, or **GAURES**, a religious sect in Persia and India; called also **GAURES**, **GAURES**, **GAURES**, &c. See **MAGI**. Those sect are dispersed through the country, and are supposed to be the remains of the ancient Persians, followers of Zoroaster, being worshippers of fire. They have a suburb at Ispahan, called **GABAD**, or *the town of the Gaurs*, where they are employed in the meanest drudgery: some of them are dispersed through other parts of Persia, they principally abound in Kerman, the most barren province in the whole country, where the hometans allowed them liberty and the exercise of their religion. Several of them fled many years ago into India, and settled about Surat, and their posterity still remain. There is also a great number of them at Bombay. They are ignorant, offensive people, extremely superstitious, and very rigorous in their morals, and very earnest in their dealings. They believe a reformer and a future judgment, and worship only one God. Although they perform their worship before fire, and direct their devotion towards the rising sun, for which they have an extraordinary veneration, yet they strenuously maintain that they worship neither; but that, as these

reflive symbols of the Deity, they turn them in their devotional services. Some ofed, that these are Persians formerly converted to Christianity, who, being afterwards left heathen, mingled their ancient superstitions with the truths and practices of Christianity, and set for themselves a religion apart: and hence, that throughout the whole of their doctrine and practice, we may discern traces of Christianity, though much defaced; as the magi, the massacre of the infant Saviour's miracles, his persecutions, &c.

GABRES is also a name given by the Turks to Christians, signifying *infidels*, or people of another religion; or rather, as Leunclavius observes, *pagans* or *gentiles*; the word *Gabre* among them, has the same signification as *pagan* or *infidel* among Christians, and denoting any thing not Christian.

GAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Ardennes, 12 miles NE. of Rhodéz.

GABRIEL, [גבריאל, Heb. *i. e.* the strength of God,] one of the principal angels in heaven: his name is mentioned in a few events, in which this exalted being is concerned, recorded in scripture. He was the prophet Daniel, to explain to him the vision of the ram and goat, and the mystery of the weeks. He was sent to Zecharias, to declare to him the future birth of John the Baptist; and, months after, to the Virgin Mary, at Nazareth, to warn her of the birth of Jesus Christ. Some commentators call him the *faithful spirit*; and others, by way of metaphor, the *peacock of heaven*. In the 2d chapter of the Koran, it is said, *Whoever is an enemy to Gabriel shall be destroyed*. It was Gabriel, Mahomet pretended, who brought the revelations which he published; and who conducted him to heaven mounted on a winged animal Borak.

GABRIEL, in geography, a mountain of Ireland, in Cork, 12 miles S. of Bantry.

GABRIEL ST. an island of S. America, in the Gulf of Mexico, discovered by S. Cabot, in 1526.

GABRIELITES, in ecclesiastical history, a sect of Baptists that appeared in Pomerania, in 1645, named from Gabriel Scherling; who, after having been for some time tolerated in that country, was obliged to remove, and died in Poland.

GAGLIANICO, a town of France, in the dept. of Orne, 12 miles W. of Aigle, and 13½ E. of Argentan.

GAGLIANICO, a town of France, in the dept. of Eure, 9 miles NE. of Rocheford.

GAD, [גד, Heb. *i. e.* a troop,] one of the twelve tribes, the son of Jacob by Zilpah, and named after the tribe of the Gadites.

GAD, in ancient geography, a district of the kingdom of Bashan on the N. and that of the Ammonites to the S. having the Jordan to the E. and bounded by various nations on the W. so named after the tribe of that name.

GADITES, the tribe of the GADITES.

GAD, a prophet who attended David during his flight from Saul, and gave him various advice afterwards. He wrote a history of David, which is lost.

(5.) **GAD**, in ancient geography, a river in the country of the Gadites, called also Arnon. See **ANNON**.

(6.) * **GAD**. *n. f.* [*gad*, Sax. *gaddur*, Islandick, a club.] 1. A wedge or ingot of steel.—Flemish steel is brought down the Rhine to Dort, and other parts, some in bars, and some in *gads*; and therefore called Flemish steel, and sometimes *gad steel*. *Moxon's Mech. Exerc.* 2. It seems to be used by *Shakespeare* for a stile or graver, [from *gad*, Saxon, a goad.]—

I will go get a leaf of brass,
And with a *gad* of steel will write these words.
Shakespeare.

(7.) **GAD**, among miners, a small punch of iron, with a long wooden handle, used to break up the ore. One of the miners holds this in his hand, directing the point to a proper place, while the other drives it into the vein, by striking it with a sledge-hammer.

* **To GAD**. *v. n.* [Derived by *Skinner* from *gadfly*; by *Junius* from *gadau*, Welsh, to forsake; thought by others only the preterite of the old word *agaan*, to go.] To ramble about without any settled purpose; to rove loosely and idly.

How now, my headstrong, where have you been *gadding*?

—Where I have learnt me to repent. *Shakespeare.*

—Give the water no passage, neither a wicked woman liberty to *gad* abroad. *Ecclef. xxv. 25.*

The lesser devils rose with ghastly rore,
And thronged forth about the world to *gad*;
Each land they filled, river, stream, and shore.

Fairfax.

—Envy is a *gadding* passion, and walketh the streets, and doth not keep at home. *Bacon.*

Gad not abroad at ev'ry quest and call
Of an untrained hope or passion;

To court each place or fortune that doth fall,
Is wantonness in contemplation. *Herbert.*

Thee, shepherd, thee the woods and desert
caves,

With wild thyme and the *gadding* vine o'er-
grown,

And all their echos moan. *Milton.*

A fierce loud buzzing breeze; their stings draw
blood,

And drive the cattle *gadding* thro' the wood.

Dryden.

She wreaks her anger on her rival's head;

With furies frights her from her native home,

And drives her *gadding*, round the world to
roam. *Dryden.*

—There's an ox lost, and this coxcomb runs a
gadding after wild fowl. *L'Estrange.*—No wonder
their thoughts should be perpetually shifting from
what disgusts them, and seeking better entertain-
ment in more pleasing objects, after which they
will unavoidably be *gadding*. *Locke.*

GADARA, in ancient geography, a strong town of the Peræa, in Decapolis, restored by Pompey after its demolition by the Jews. (*Josephus*.) After Herod's death, it was joined to Syria, by Augustus.

GADARENES, the inhabitants of **GADARA**, and the adjacent country. See next article.

GADARENORUM AGER, in ancient geography, the country of the Gadarenæ, called by
Strabo.

Matthew the country of the GERGASENES, a district that lay between Gadara and Gergesa, otherwise called *Gerasa*, both which lay within the Decapolis on the other side Jordan.

GAD-BEE. See GAD-FLY, and OESTRUS, N° 1.

* GADDER. *n. f.* [from *gad*.] A rambler: one that runs much abroad without business.—A drunken woman, and a *gadder* abroad, causeth great anger, and she will not cover her own shame. *Ecclus.* xxvi. 8.

* GADDINGLY. *adv.* [from *gad*.] In a rambling, roving manner.

GADEBUSCH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, near which, the Swedes defeated the Danes in 1712. It is 16 miles W. NW. of Schwerin.

GADEMIR, or } a country of Africa, W. of
(1.) GADEMIS, } Fezzan, containing 92 towns and villages.

(2.) GADEMIS, or GADEMIR, the capital of the above country, lies 300 miles from the sea coast. Lon. 11. 0. E. Lat. 31. 30. N.

GADEN, a town of Austria, 10 miles W. of Vienna.

GADERSLEBEN, a town of Saxony, 20 miles E. of Halberstadt

GADES, or GADIRA, in ancient geography, a small island in the Atlantic, on the Spanish coast, 25 miles from the Pillars of Hercules. It was sometimes called TARTESSUS, and *Erythia* according to Piny. Geryon, whom Hercules killed, is said to have resided in it. *Hercules Gaditanus* had there a celebrated temple, in which all his labours were engraved with excellent workmanship.

(1.) * GADFLY. *n. f.* [*gad* and *fly*; but by *Skinner*, who makes it the original of *gad*, it is called *goadfly*. Supposed to be originally from *goad*, in Saxon, *gad* and *fly*.] A fly that when he stings the cattle makes them gad or run madly about; the breec.—The fly called the *gadfly* breedeth of somewhat that swimmeth upon the top of the water, and is most about ponds. *Bacon*.

Light fly his slumbers, if perchance a flight
Of angry *gadflies* fasten on the herd. *Tobias*.

(2.) GAD-FLY. See OESTRUS.

GADIAG, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Tchernigow, 12 miles SE. of Tchernigow.

GADIRA. See GADES.

GADITANI, the people of GADES.

GADITANUS, a surname of Hercules.

GADITES, one of the 12 tribes of Israel, who inhabited the country on the E. side of Jordan. See GAD, N° 2. They amounted to 45,650, when they came out of Egypt, but decreased in the wilderness to 5150. They were carried captives by Tiglath pileser.

GADONA, or } a country of Africa, S. of the
GADUA, } Senegal, containing mines of gold, iron, and nitre. Lon. 8. 0. W. Lat. 13. 30. N.

GADUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of jugulares. The head is *thick*; there are seven cylindrical rays in the *nostril* membrane; the body is oblong, *riduous scales*; the whole fins are covered with *the common skin* of fish: the rays of the

back fins are blunt, and those of the *ventral* sharp. There are 17 species, distinguished by their cirri, and the number of fins. The most remarkable are the following.

1. GADUS BARBATUS, the POUT, grows to a large size, seldom exceeding a fathom. It is distinguished from all others by its depth; one of the size above mentioned is near 4 inches deep in the broadest part. The back is very much arched, and the colour of the fins and tail are black; one of the pectoral fins is a black spot. The lateral line is white, broad, and crooked. It is even at the end, and of a dusky colour. The colour of the body is white; but more so on the back than the belly, and tinged with red. It is called at Scarborough a *kieg*, a delicate fish.

2. GADUS CARBONARIUS, the COALFISH, of a more elegant form than the common cod, generally grow to the length of 2½ feet, and weigh about 28 or 30 lb. at most. The head is small, the under jaw a little longer than the upper. The tail is broad and forked. They vary in colour. Some have their back, nose, dorsal fin, and gill-covers of a deep black; the gill-covers five or six. Others are dusky, others brown; but the lateral line is straight and white, as in the common cod. The ventral and anal fins white. The species takes its name from the black colour it sometimes assumes. *Belon* calls it *gadus carbonarius*, imagining that it was so named by the fishermen from its producing the Ichthyocolla: gives the true etymology. These fish are common on most of our rocky and deep shores, particularly those of the north of Scotland, where they are a great support of the poor. They begin to appear on the Yorkshire coast in the month of July, in vast shoals, and are then a great nuisance. In August they are taken in great numbers with the angling rod; they are esteemed very good when young, but grow so coarse when a year old, that few eat them. Fish of that age are from 8 to 10 inches long, and begin to have a little black on the gills and on the back; this blackness increases as they grow older. The fry is known by its name in different places: they are called at Scarborough *parrs*; and when a year old, *cods*. About 20 years ago such a quantity fished that part, that for several weeks it was possible to dip a pole into the sea without catching any. Though this fish is so little esteemed, it is salted and dried for sale.

3. GADUS ELEGANS, the HADDOCK, has a long body; the upper part of a dusky colour, and the belly and lower part of a white colour. On the back are three fins, the dorsal, the anal, and the tail; the lateral line is white. The head slopes to the nose; on the chin is a short beard; on the side beyond the gills is a large black spot. *Stilton* assigns this mark to the impostor, which he left with his finger and thumb when he took a piece of silver out of the mouth of a fish. This species, which has been continued to

haddock ever since that miracle. Large haddock begin to be in roe in the middle of November and continue so till the end of January; time till May they are very thin-tailed, season. In May they begin to recover; haddock sized fish are then very good, and improving till the time of their perfection. Small ones are extremely good from May to July, and some even in February, March, viz. those which are not old enough to be fished by the fishermen assert; that in rough weather haddock sink down into the sand and ooze from the sea, where they shelter themselves till the storm is over; for in stormy weather they live on young herrings and other small fish in winter on the stone-coated worms, SERPULA, which the fishermen call sandworms. The grand shoal of haddock comes in on the Yorkshire coast. It is remarkable that a shoal appeared in 1766, on the 10th of November and exactly on the same day in 1767: it extended from the shore near 3 miles and in length from Flamborough head to the castle, and perhaps much farther. An idea may be given of their numbers by the following fact: Three fishermen, with the assistance of a mile from Scarborough hastily loaded their boat with them, taking each time about a ton of fish; they put down their lines beyond the distance of five miles from the shore, they caught a great number of dog fish, which shows how exactly they keep their limits. The best haddock sell from 8d. to 1s. per score, the smaller from 4d. and even a halfpenny per score. Haddock quit the coast as soon as they are in high season, and leave behind great quantities of small ones. It is said that they visit the coast of Hamburg and Jutland in summer. It is remarkable than providential, that all kinds of fish (except mackerel) which frequent the Yorkshire coast approach the shore, and as it were live to us, generally remaining there till they are in high season, and retire from us and become unfit for use. It is the custom to sell haddock in the London markets. They do not grow to a great bulk, one of 14 lb. being an average size, but these are extremely coarse; weighing only from 2 to 3 lbs.

GADUS LOTA, the BURBOT, in its body resembles to an eel, only shorter and its motions also resemble those of an eel. They are besides very smooth, slippery. The head is very ugly, being flat, and that of a toad; the teeth are very numerous. On the end of the nose are small beards; on the chin another. The scales are: some are dusky, others are of a yellowish spotted with black, and oftentimes white; and the belly in some is white; but in others are frequently concealed by the scales. This species abounds in the lake of Geneva, met with in the lakes Maggiore and Como. In Britain it is found in the Trent; but plenty in the Witham, and the great Ouse in Lincolnshire. It is a very delicate fish.

PART I.

fish for the table, though of a disgusting appearance when alive. It is very voracious, and preys on the fry and lesser fish. It does not often take bait, but is generally caught in weels. The largest taken in our waters weigh between 2 and 3 lb. but abroad they are sometimes found of double that weight.

(5.) **GADUS MERLANGUS**, the WHITING, is a fish of an elegant make: the upper jaw is the longest; the eyes are large, the nose is sharp: the teeth of the upper jaw are long, and appear above the lower when closed. The colour of the head and back is a pale brown; the lateral line white, and crooked; the belly and sides are silvery, the last streaked lengthwise with yellow. These fish appear in vast shoals in spring, keeping at the distance of about half a mile to that of three from the shore. They are caught in vast numbers by the line, and afford excellent diversion. They are the most delicate, as well as the most wholesome, of any of the genus: but they do not grow to a large size, the biggest not exceeding 20 inches; and even that is very uncommon, the usual length being 10 or 12; though, it is said, that whittings from 4 to 8 lb. in weight have been taken in the deep water at the edge of the Dogger Bank.

(6.) **GADUS MERLUCIUS**, the HAKE, is found in vast abundance on many of our coasts, and those of Ireland. There was formerly a vast stationary fishery of hake on the Nymph Bank off Waterford; immense quantities appearing there twice a-year; the first shoal coming in June, during the mackerel season; the other in September, at the beginning of the herring season, probably in pursuit of those fish: it was usual for six men with hooks and lines to take a 1000 hakes in one night, besides a considerable quantity of other fish. These were salted and sent to Spain, particularly to Bilboa. We know not the present state of this fishery; but Mr Smith, who wrote the history of the county of Waterford in 1746, complains of its decline. Many of the gregarious fish are subject to change their situations, and desert their haunts for numbers of years, and then return. Mr Smith instances the loss of the haddock on the Waterford shores, where they used to swarm; and the capriciousness of the herrings, which so frequently quit their stations, is well known. Sometimes the irregular migration of fish is owing to their being followed and harassed by an unusual number of fish of prey, such as the sharks; sometimes to deficiency of the smaller fish, which served them as food; and lastly, in many places to the custom of trawling, which not only destroys their spawn deposited in the sand, but also destroys or drives into deeper waters numberless worms and insects, the repast of many fish. The hake is in England esteemed a very coarse fish, and is seldom admitted to table either fresh or salted. When cured, it is known by the name of *Poor John*. These fish are from 1½ to near 3 feet long. They are of a slender make, of a pale ash colour on their backs, and of a dirty white on their bellies.

(7.) **GADUS MINUTUS**, the POOR, is the smallest species yet discovered, being little more than 6 inches long. On the chin is a small beard; the eyes are covered with a loose membrane; on each side of the gill-covers and jaws there are 9 pairs of small teeth.

tures. The colour on the back is a light brown; on the belly a dirty white. It is taken near Marseilles, and sometimes in such quantities as to become a nuisance; for no other kinds of fish are taken during their season. It is esteemed good, but incapable of being salted or dried. Beion says, that when it is dried in the sun, it grows as hard as horn. We owe the discovery of this kind in our seas to the Rev. Mr Jago.

(8.) *GADUS MOLVA*, the **LING**, is usually from 3 to 4 feet long, but have been caught 7 feet long. The body is very slender; the head flat: the upper jaw is longest; the teeth in that jaw are small and very numerous; in the lower, few, slender, and sharp: on the chin is a small beard. They vary in colour, some being of an olive hue on the sides and back, others cinereous; the belly white. The ventral fins are white: the dorsal and anal edged with white. The tail is marked near the end with a transverse black bar, and tipped with white. Its English name *ling* is derived from its length, being a corruption of *long*. It abounds about the Scilly Isles, on the coasts of Scarborough, Scotland and Ireland, and forms a great branch of trade. It was considerable so long ago as the reign of Edward III. an act for regulating the price of lob, *ling*, and cod, being made in his 31st year. In the Yorkshire seas they are in perfection from the beginning of Feb. to that of May, and some to the end of it. In June they spawn, depositing their eggs in the soft oozy ground of the mouth of the Tees. At that time the males separate from the females, and resort to some rocky ground near Flamborough Head, where the fishermen take great numbers without ever finding any of the female fish among them. While a ling is in season its liver is very white, and abounds with a fine flavoured oil; but as soon as it goes out of season, the liver becomes as red as that of a bullock, and affords no oil. The same happens to the cod and other fish in a certain degree, but not so remarkably as in the ling. When in perfection, a very large quantity of oil may be melted out of the liver by a slow fire; but if a violent sudden heat be used for that purpose, they yield very little. The oil, which nature hoards up in the cellular membranes of the fishes, returns into their blood, and supports them in the engendering season, when they generate with so much eagerness as to neglect their food. Vast quantities of ling are salted for exportation as well as for home consumption. To be cut or split for curing, it must measure 25 inches or upwards from the shoulder to the tail: if less than that, it is not reckoned a sizeable fish, and consequently not entitled to the bounty on exportation; such are called *drizzles*, and are in season all summer.

(9.) *GADUS MORHUA*, the common cod, is **cinereous** on the back and sides, and commonly **spotted with yellow**: the belly is white; but they vary much, both in colour and shape, particularly **that of the head**. The side line is white, broad, **straight**, till opposite the vent, when it bends **in the tail**. Codlings are often taken of a **orange**, and even red colour, while they **ing the rock**; but on changing their **the colour of other codfish**. The **equal length**, and at the end of the

lower is a small beard; the teeth are the palate as well as in the jaws. found only in the northern seas; being **deletius** calls it, an *ocean fish*, and never in the Mediterranean Sea. It affects cold and seas confined between the latitude 50°; those caught N. and S. of this being either bad, or in small numbers. Greenland cod are small, and emaciated, very voracious, and suffering in those cities of provision. Most other species inhabit the cold seas, or such as lie with that can just claim the title of *temperate* is nevertheless a species found near the Islands, called *cherny*, which, according to some Glais, are better tasted than the land kind. The great rendezvous of this fish is on the banks of Newfoundland, other sand-banks off the coasts of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New England. In those situations, on account of the woody sandy bottoms; and their vicinity to the seas, where they span in full security of food forces them, as soon as the ice is open, to repair thither for subsistence taken N. of Iceland, but on the S. and they abound: they are again found on the coasts of Norway, in the Baltic, Orkney and Western Isles; after which numbers decrease, in proportion as they are farther S. and they are never found in the straits of Gibraltar. Before the discovery of Newfoundland, the greater fisheries of the seas of Iceland, and off our Western coasts, which were the grand resort of ships of commercial nations; but the greatest met with near Iceland. The English thither before 1415: Henry V. was give the king of Denmark satisfaction in irregularities committed on those sea subjects. In the reign of Edward IV. were excluded from the fishery by tax forbidden to resort there, under forfeit of goods. Notwithstanding this, they afterwards allowed a ship of Hull to land, and there relade fish and other goods out regard to any former restrictions. of the English in latter times was far confirmed: for Q. Elizabeth asked for fish in these seas from Christian IV. of Denmark, but afterwards she instructed her ambassador that court to insist on the right of a fishery. In the reign of James I. however, there were fewer than 150 ships employed in the fishery; which indulgence might arise from the king's marriage with princess Anne of Denmark. But the Spanish, the French, and the Dutch had greatly the advantage of the English fisheries at the beginning, as appears from that in the seas of Newfoundland in the number of ships belonging to each nation thus:—Spaniards, 100, besides 200 came from Biscay to take whale for about 5, or 6,000 tons: Portuguese 500 tons: French and Bretons 150, or 200 English, from 30 to 50. The increase that now resort to those fertile banks of Britain enjoys the greatest share; while

treasures, as it brings wealth to individual strength to the state. See FISHERY, All this immense fishery is carried on by and line only. They fish from the depth 60 fathoms, according to the inequality of the bottom, which is represented as a vast mountain of water, above 500 miles long, and near 100 miles wide; and that seamen know when they approach by the great swell of the seas and the storms that impend over it. The bait is her- all fish called a *capelin*, a shell-fish called a *limp*, and bits of sea fowl; and with these are sufficient to find employment for near 100,000 Irish seamen, and to afford subsistence to a more numerous body of people at home who are engaged in the various manufactures so vast a fishery demands. The food of the cod is either small fish, worms, testaceous animals, such as crabs, large whelks, &c. their digestion is so powerful as to digest the greatest part of the shells they swallow. They are very voracious, and catch at any small object they perceive moved by the water, even small pebbles, which are often found in their stomachs.

The fishermen are well acquainted with the air bladder, or sound of the cod; they are very dexterous in perforating this part of the fish with a needle, in order to disengage the air; for without this operation it could not be kept under water in the well boats, and brought fresh to market. The sounds of the cod are a delicacy often brought from New-England.

Ifinglass is also made of this part by the Irish fishermen: a process which deserves notice of the natives of the north of Scotland, where these fish are plentiful. See ICING-GLASS. Providence has kindly ordained, that this fish, so useful to mankind, should be so prolific as to supply more than the deficiencies of the multitudes annually taken. Leeuwenhoek counted 9,384,000 eggs in a cod-fish of a moderate size; a number, sure, that will baffle the efforts of man, or the voracity of the insects of the ocean, to exterminate, and which affords to all ages an inexhaustible supply of food. In our seas they begin to spawn in May, and deposit their eggs in rough crevices among rocks. Some continue in roe till the end of April. They in general recover faster from spawning than any other fish; therefore common to take some good ones all the year.

When out of season, they are thin and flabby; and the lice chiefly fix on the sides of their mouths. The fish of a middling size are most esteemed, and are chosen by their size and roundness, especially near the tail; the absence of the fulcus or pit behind the head; the regular undulated appearance of the scales as if they were ribbed. The glutinous parts of the head lose their delicate flavour, after 24 hours out of the water, even in the best season. One mentioned by Mr Pennant as the largest that he ever heard of taken in Scotland, weighed 78 lb. the length was 5 feet 6 inches, and the girth round the shoulders was taken at Scarborough in 1755, and was 11 ft. But the general weight of these

fish in the Yorkshire seas, he says, from 14 to 40 lb. This species is short in proportion to its bulk, the belly being very large and prominent.

(10.) *GADUS MUSTELA*, the FIVE-BEARDED COD, very much resembles the LOTA. (See N. 4.) The beards on the upper jaw are 4, viz. two at the very end of the nose, and two a little above them: on the end of the lower jaw is a single one. The fish are of a deep olive brown, their belly whitish. They grow to the same size as the lota. The Cornish fishermen are said to whistle, and cry *bod, bod, vean*, when taking this fish, as if by that they facilitated the capture. In the same manner the Sicilian fishermen repeat their *ma-massu di pajanu*, &c. when they are in pursuit of the sword fish.

(11.) *GADUS POLLACHIUS*, the POLLACK, has the under jaw longer than the upper; the head and body rises pretty high, as far as the first dorsal fin. The side line is incurvated, rising towards the middle of the back, then sinking and running straight to the tail; it is broad and of a brown colour. The colour of the back is dusky, sometimes inclining to green: the sides beneath the lateral line are marked with lines of yellow; and the belly is white. This species is common on many of our rocky coasts: during summer they are seen in great shoals frolicking on the surface of the water, and flinging themselves into a thousand forms. They will then bite at any thing that appears on the top of the waves, and are often taken with a goose feather fixed to the hook. They are very strong, being observed to keep their station at the feet of the rocks in the most turbulent and rapid sea. They are good eating. They do not grow to a very large size; the biggest seldom exceed 6 or 7 lb. but some have been taken near Scarborough, during winter, that weighed near 28 pounds. They are there called *leets*.

(12.) *GADUS TORICUS*, the TORSK, *tusk*, or *brismack*, is a northern fish; and as yet not discovered lower than about the Orkneys, and even there it is rather scarce. In the seas about Shetland, it swarms, and forms (barrelled or dried) a considerable article of commerce. The length is about 20 inches, the greatest depth 4½, the head is small; the upper jaw a little longer than the lower; both jaws furnished with many small teeth; on the chin is a small single beard: from the head to the dorsal fin is a deep furrow. The colour of the head is dusky: the back and sides yellow; belly white; edges of the dorsal, anal, and caudal fins, white; the other parts dusky; the pectoral fins brown.

GAELE, a town of France in the dep. of Ille and Vilaine, 1 mile S. of St Maen, and 10 W. of Montfort.

(1.) **GAELIC**, *adj.* belonging to the *Gaels*, *Celts*, or ancient Scots Highlanders.

(2.) **GAELECK LANGUAGE**, the language of the ancient and modern Highlanders of Scotland. See HIGHLANDERS. It is esteemed the most ancient as well as the purest dialect of the Celtic, now spoken. It has all the marks of an original language. Most of its words are expressive of some property or quality in the objects which they denote. This, with the variety of its sounds, (many of which, especially those that express the soft and

aff is, *peculiar to it*, renders it highly adapted to poetry. It was the language of the Scottish Court, till the reign of Malcolm Canmore, and was even spoken so late as that of Robert Bruce, particularly in a parliament held by him at Airdchattan. Its alphabet consists of 18 letters, of which 5 are vowels. "Those who understand it, (says the rev. Dr James Robertson, of Callander,) know its energy and power; the ease with which it is compounded; the boldness of its figures; its majesty in addressing the Deity, and its tenderness in expressing the finest feelings of the human heart. But its genius and constitution, the structure of its nouns and verbs, and the affinity it has to some other languages are not so much attended to. These point at a very remote era, and seem to deduce its origin from a very high antiquity. The verbs have only 3 tenses, which is the simplest and most natural division of time. The persons of each tense are distinguished, by adding pronominal particles to each person. The 3d person singular of each verb has genders, or admits of a masculine and feminine participle affixed. The moods are the indicative, imperative and infinitive. The subjunctive differs from the indicative only by the addition of one syllable to the verb, and a conjunction before it. The imperative has only the second person in both numbers. The infinitive is often used as a substantive noun, expressive of the abstract signification of the verb. There is only one conjugation, and one declension. The cases of the nouns are marked by different particles, or by a change of the last vowel. The degrees of comparison are formed by placing certain syllables before the adjective; and the superlative frequently by a repetition of the positive." These and many other peculiarities of the Gaelic language are mentioned by Dr Robertson, and illustrated by numerous examples, in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Account*, Vol. XI. p. 611—619; to which we must refer the reader who wishes for farther information respecting this ancient language; which, the Dr says, has "a very striking affinity to the Eastern languages."

GAELS. See **CULTS** and **HIGHLANDERS**.

GAESBECK, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Brabant, 7 miles SW. of Brussels.

GAETA, an ancient, and strong town of Naples, in Lavoro, with a citadel, harbour, and bishop's see. It was taken by the Austrians in 1707, and by the Spaniards in 1734. It is seated at the foot of a mountain, on a peninsula, 30 miles NW. of Capua, and 40 of Naples. Lon. 13. 47. E. Lat. 41. 16. N.

GAETULI, the people of **GAETULIA**, were among the earliest inhabitants of Africa. They were distinguished by different epithets; as *Nigri*, *Autolotes*, *Daræ*, and *Baniuræ*. (*Pliny*.) They were a rough, unpolished roving people, living on venison and the spontaneous productions of the earth, and settling in the first places in which night

overtaken them. *Sallust.*

GALEA, in ancient geography, a country lying S. of Mauritania, divided into *Wigæ*, and *Gepula Potus*.

III. a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carab. of Cogni.

(1.) * **GAFF**, *n. f.* A harpoon *Answerb.*

(2.) **GAFF**, a sort of boom or bo used in small ships, to extend the mizen; and always employed purpose on those sails, whose foreen joined to the mast by hoops or lacin are usually extended by a boom bet the main sails of all sloops, brigs, &

GAFFAREL, James, a learned I born at Mantes in Provence, about quired great skill in the oriental lan; the cabalistic and occult sciences, posed and refuted. Card. Richeti his librarian, and sent him into Italy best books and MSS. He publi called *Curiosities Inanies*, i. e. Unbe sities. He died in 1681, aged 80. I finished a history of the subterranean taining an account of the caves, gic catacombs, and mines, he had 10 years travel.

* **GAFFER**, *n. f.* [*gefere*, compa word of respect now obsolete, or as contempt to a mean person.—

For *gaffer* Treadwell told us by

Excessive sorrow is exceeding dry.

GAFFENTZ, a town of German chy of Austria, 16 miles SSE. of St

* **GAFFLES**, *n. f.* [*gafshcar*, sp Artificial spurs put upon cocks whe to fight. 1. A steel contrivance k bows. *Answerb.*

* **GAG**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] S into the mouth to hinder speech or e Some, when the kids their dan drain,

With *gags* and muzzles their for strain.

—Your woman would have run up me; but I have secured her below u her chaps. *Dryden.*

* **To GAG**, *v. n.* [from *gagbel*, D late, *Misbrew*.] To stop the moun thing that may allow to breathe, b speak.—He's out of his guard already laugh and minister occasion to him, *Shak.*—

There foam'd rebellious logick, bound.

GAGARAWAN BAY, a bay on of St Vincent.

GACATES, or **JET**. See **JET**.

(1.) * **GAGE**, *n. f.* [*gags*, Fr.] 1. pawn; a caution; any thing given is

He, when the shamed shield of I He spy'd, with that same fairy chan He to him leapt; and that same er Of victor's glory from him snatcht

There I throw my *gag* Disclaiming here the kindred of a I And lay aside my high bloods roya There is my *gag*, the manual I That marks thee out for hell.

They from their mothers breasts;

rend,

Not without *gages* to the needy la



GAGES.

Fig. 1
Aqua Mercurial Gage.



Fig. 3. Sea Gage.

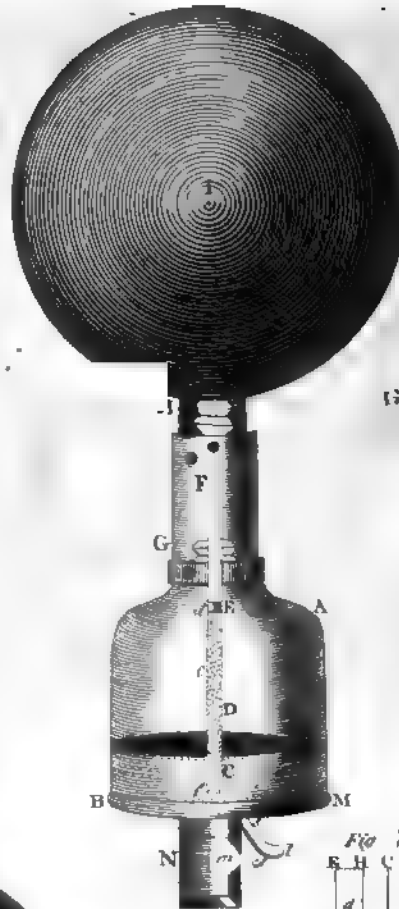


Fig. 2.
Bucket



Fig. 6

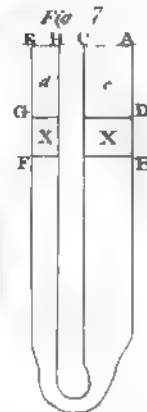
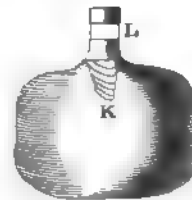
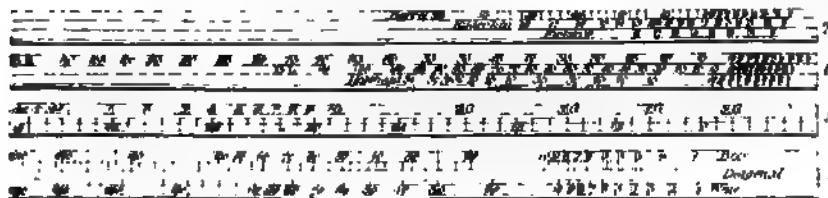


Fig. 8 Four-foot Gauging Rod.



Sept. 6. 1. Source for the Gauging Rod. Providence

a make the cautionary pledge,
and halage of your keeping it.

Sententia's Orem.

nce it was decreed, suspicious king,
it's right that thou should'st wed the

a, as a gage, would cost some previous
to
where down'd that Laidson should be

Dryden.

truth, that gets not possession of our
evidence or demonstration, the ar-
gument it assents are the vouchers and
probability. *Lache.* 2. A measure, a

measures, as the weather dictates, right
is at noon, and wrong at night,
judges by a surer gage.

it's principles, or parentage. *Young.*

is, in our ancient customs, (§ 1. def. 1.)
very used in speaking of moveables; for
re, *HYPOTHECA* is used. If the gage
person who received it is not to answer
only for extreme negligence, &c.

is is also used for a challenge to con-
TARTAL, § 2. It was a pledge, which
or challenger call on the ground, and
took up as accepting the challenge;
by a glove, gauntlet, chaperoon, or
See *BATTAL*, § 2-4; and *DUEL*, §

er, among letter-founders, a piece of
her hard wood, variously notched: u-
the dimensions, stops, &c. of the
its of letters. See *FOUNDER*, § 3.

is, in joinery, an instrument made to
truly parallel to the straight side of
or piece of stuff. Its chief use is for
beams true, to fit into mortises; and
stuff of an equal thickness. It is made
piece of wood, fitted upon a square
the up and down stuffy thereon, and
at the end of a staff, to score, to
upon the stuff at any distance, accord-
distance of the oval from it.

is, in the sea language. When one
be windward of another, she is said to
rather gage of her. They likewise call
of feet that a vessel sinks in the wa-
er's gage; this they find by driving a
pike near the end, and putting it down
under till the nail catch hold under it;
the feet as the pike is under water is
er's gage.

is, *AGYPSO-MERCURIAL*, an apparatus
by Dr Hales, and applied in various
branches of trees, to determine the
which they imbibe moisture. In *Plate*
3. a, is a cylindric glass, e. g. of an
in within, and 8 inches long. Into this
induced the branch of a young thriving
tree, about 3 feet long, with lateral bran-
diameter of the transverse cut being
of an inch. Having fitted the joint *r*
at *r*, by folding a piece of sheep's skin
down, it is cemented with a mixture of
red turpentine melted together, in such
as to make a very stiff clammy paste

when cold, and over the cement folds of wet blad-
ders are bound firmly with pack-thread. To the
lower end *r* of the large tube, a smaller tube *s*
is cemented, being about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch diameter,
and 18 inches long, and in substance full $\frac{1}{4}$ of an
inch thick. These tubes are cemented together at
a, with common hard brick-dust, or powdered
chalk cement, and the joint is farther secured with
the cement of bees wax and turpentine, over which
a wet bladder is bound. The apparatus being
thus prepared, the branch is turned downwards,
and the glass tube upwards, and then both tubes
are filled with water; with the finger applied to
the open end of the small tube, it is inverted and
immersed in the glass cistern *x*, full of mercury
and water. In this situation the lower end of the
branch was immersed 6 inches in water, viz. from
r to *i*; the water was imbibed by the branch at
its transverse cut *i*; and during its ascent into the
sap-vessels of the branch, the mercury rose in the
tube *s* from the cistern *x*, so that in half an
hour it was risen $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, as far as *n*.
The height of the mercury indicated, in some
measure, the force with which the sap was im-
bibed, though not the whole force; because, while
the water was imbibed by the branch, its trans-
verse cut was covered with innumerable little he-
mispheres of air, and many air-bubbles issued out
of the sap vessels, which partly filled the tube *s*,
as the water was drawn out of it: and therefore
the height of the mercury could only be propor-
tionable to the excess of the quantity of water
drawn off, above the quantity of the air which
issued out of the wood. If the quantity of air is-
suing from the wood had been equal to the quan-
tity of water imbibed, it is plain that the mercury
could not rise at all, because there would be no
room for it in the tube: but if 9 parts in 12 of the
water be imbibed by the branch, and only 3 such
parts of air issue into the tube in the same time,
the mercury must rise near 6 inches, and so pro-
portionably in other cases. Dr Hales observed,
that the mercury rose highest, in most cases, when
the sun was clear and warm, and that it subsided
3 or 4 inches towards evening, but rose again the
next day as it grew warm, though seldom so high
as at first. He adapted the size and shape of the
glass apparatus to a great variety of branches of
several sizes and of different kinds of trees, and re-
peated the experiment above described, *mutatis*
mutandis, in a variety of instances. See his *Vege-*
table Statics, vol. i. chap. ii. p. 84, &c.

(3) *GAGE*, *SUCKER* &c., an instrument contri-
ved by Dr Hales to find the different degrees of
coolness and saltness of the sea, at different depths.
It consists of a common household pail or bucket,
with two heads; which have each a round hole in
the middle, about 4 inches in diameter, covered
with square valves opening upward; and that they
may both open and shut together, there is a small
iron rod fixed to the upper part of the lower valve,
and the other end to the lower side of the upper
valve. So that as the bucket descends with its
sinking weight into the sea, both the valves may
open by the force of the water, which thus has a
free passage through the bucket. But when the
bucket is drawn up, then both the valves shut by
the force of the water at the upper part of the
bucket

bucket; so that the bucket is drawn up full of the lowest sea water to which it has descended. When the bucket is drawn up, the mercurial thermometer fixed in it is examined; but great care must be taken to observe the degree at which the mercury stands, before the lower part of the thermometer is taken out of the water in the bucket, lest it be affected by the different temperature of the air. To keep the bucket in a right position, there are 4 cords fixed to it, reaching about 3 feet below it; to which the sinking weight is fixed. The result of several trials with this gage was, that when it was let down to different depths, from 360 feet to 5,346 feet, in lat. 25. 13. N. and lon. 25. 12. W. it was discovered by the thermometer, that the cold increased gradually in proportion to the depths, till it descended to 3,900 feet, viz. near three-fourths of a mile, whence the mercury in the thermometer came up at 53° ; and though it afterwards sunk to 5,346 feet, i. e. a mile and 66 feet, it came up no lower: the warmth of the water upon the surface, and that of the air, was all that time 84° . When the water in the bucket was become of the same temperature with that on the surface of the sea, equal quantities of both were weighed and tried by the hydrometer; that from below was found to be the heaviest, and consequently the saltest. Dr Hales was probably led to the construction of this sea-gage from an instrument invented by Dr Hook, and designed for the same purpose. See *Plate CLX, fig. 2*. This consists of a square wooden bucket C, whose bottoms are so contrived, that as the weight A sinks the iron B, to which the bucket C is fastened by two handles D, D, on the end of which are the moveable bottoms or valves E E, and thereby draws down the bucket, the resistance of the water keeps up the bucket in the posture C, whereby the water, whilst the bucket is descending, hath a free passage through it; whereas, as soon as the bucket is pulled upwards by the line F, the resistance of the water to that motion beats the bucket downwards, and keeps it in the posture G, whereby the included water is kept from getting out, and the ambient water kept from getting in. *Phil. Transf.* N^o 9, p. 149. and N^o 24, p. 447. or abr. vol. ii. p. 260

(9.) GAGE, SEA, an instrument invented by Dr Hales and Dr Desaguliers for finding the depth of the sea; the description whereof is this: AB, *Plate CLXI, fig. 3*, is the gage-bottle, in which is cemented the gage-tube Ff in the brass cap at G. The upper end of the tube F is hermetically sealed, and the open lower end f is immersed in mercury, marked C, on which swims a small thickness or surface of treacle. On the top of the bottle is screwed a tube of brass HG, pierced with several holes to admit the water into the bottle AB. The body K is a weight hanging by its shank L, in a socket N, with a notch on one side at m, in which is fixed the catch / of the spring S, and, passing through the hole L, in the shank of the weight K, prevents its falling out when once hung on. On the top, in the upper part of the brass tube at H, is fixed a large empty ball, or full blown bladder J, which must not be so large, but that the weight K may be able to sink the whole under water. *The instrument thus constructed is used in the fol-*

lowing manner. The weight K being the gage is let fall into deep water, to the bottom: the socket N is somewhat than the shank L; and therefore, after K comes to the bottom, the gage will descend till the lower part of the socket gainst the weight; this gives liberty to fly out of the hole L, and let go the when this is done, the ball or bladder buoys up the gage to the top of the water: the gage is under water, the water has access to the treacle and mercury in the tube by its pressure force it up into the tube to the height to which it has been for greatest pressure, viz. that at the bottom shown by the mark in the tube which leaves behind it, and which is the only treacle. This shows into what space air in the tube Ff is compressed; and by the height or depth of the water weight produced that compression, nothing required. If the gage-tube Ff a scale might be drawn on it with the diamond, showing, by inspection, what water stands above the bottom. But of 10 inches is not sufficient for fathoms at sea, since that, when all the air in the tube is compressed into half an inch of water is no more than 634 feet, or half a quarter of a mile. If, to remedy make use of a tube 50 inches long, strength may be a musket-barrel, and air compressed into 100th part of its bulk, then by saying, as 1 : 99 :: 400 : 39600, 3300 feet; even this is but little more than a mile, or 2640 feet. But since it is not to suppose the cavities of the sea bear relation to the mountainous parts of the land which are more than 3 miles above the surface; therefore, to explore such great depths, Doctor contrived a new form for his gage rather for the gage tube in it, as follows. *fig. 4*, is a hollow metalline globe connected on the top with a long tube AB, which is a 9th part of that globe. On the lower end D, it has also a short tube DE, to receive mercury and treacle. The air contained in the compound gage-tube is compressed as before; but the degree of compression to which the treacle has been forced, can be seen through the tube; therefore that end, a slender rod of metal or wood with a knob on the top of the tube AB, will mark of the treacle, and show it when it is at the bottom. If the tube AB be 50 inches long, and bore that every inch in length should contain an inch of air, and the contents of the globe together 500 cubic inches; then when compressed within 100th part of the original space, evident the treacle will not approach more than 5 inches of the top of the tube, which to the depth of 3300 feet of water as above, at this depth will compress the air into a space nearly, viz. $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, which contains 6600. which is a mile and a quarter. If that space, or $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch, will show down to the depth, viz. 13200 feet, or $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles, probably very nearly the greatest depth

GE, SLIDING, a tool used by mathematicians for measuring and setting.

GE, TIDE, is the name of an instrument terminating the height of the tides by M. de la Hire's course of a voyage towards the south in the Resolution and Adventure, in 1774, and 1775. This instrument consists of a tube, whose internal diameter was $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, lashed fast to a ten-foot pole into feet, inches, and quarters: this pole was fastened to a strong post fixed upright and full of water. At the lower end of the tube was a small aperture, through which the tide was admitted. In consequence of this, the surface of the water in the tube was affected by the agitation of the sea, and the height was not altered one roth of an inch, when the well of the sea was 2 feet; and M. Baily observed, that with this instrument he could discern the difference of one roth of an inch in the height of the tide.

GE, WIND, an instrument for measuring the force of the wind upon any given surface. It was invented by Dr Lind, who gives the following description of it. *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxxv. See *fig. 5*. This instrument consists of two glass tubes AB, CD, of 5 or 6 inches in length, the diameters of which are so much the better for being about four roths of an inch in diameter, which are connected together like a siphon, by a bent glass tube *ab*, the bore of which is $\frac{1}{8}$ roth of an inch in diameter. On the top of the leg A B there is a tube of latten which is kneed, or bent perpendicularly upwards, and has its mouth open towards the sky. The upper leg CD, is a cover with a round hole in the upper part of it, two roths of an inch in diameter.

This cover and the kneed tube are joined together by a slip of brass *cd*, which gives strength to the whole instrument, and serves to hold the scale III. The kneed tube and cover are fixed on with hard cement, and wax. To the same tube is soldered a brass *e*, with a round hole in it to receive a spindle KL; and at *f* there is just another slip of brass soldered to the brass hoop *gb*, which rounds both legs of the instrument. A small shoulder on the spindle at *f*, upon which the instrument rests, and a small nut at *i*, to prevent it from being blown off the spindle by the wind.

The whole instrument is easily turned round the spindle by the wind, so as always to have the mouth of the kneed tube towards the wind, and the end of the spindle has a screw on it; by which it may be screwed into the top of a post or into a wall on purpose. It has also a hole at L, and a small lever for screwing it into wood with readiness and facility. A thin plate of brass is soldered to the kneed tube, about half an inch from the round hole G, so as to prevent rain from falling into it. There is likewise a crook-B, (*fig. 6*.) to be put occasionally upon the end of the kneed tube F, to prevent rain from being blown into the mouth of the wind tube, when it is left out all night, or exposed in a storm. The force or momentum of the wind may be ascertained by this instrument, by

filling the tubes half full of water, and pushing the scale a little up or down, till the 0 of the scale, when the instrument is held up perpendicularly, be on a line with the surface of the water in both legs of the wind gage. The instrument being thus adjusted, hold it up perpendicularly, and turning the mouth of the kneed tube towards the wind, observe how much the water is depressed by it in the one leg, and raised in the other. The sum of the two is the height of a column of water which the wind is capable of sustaining at that time; and every body that is opposed to that wind will be pressed upon by a force equal to the weight of a column of water, having its base equal to the altitude of the column of water sustained by the wind in the wind gage. Hence the force of the wind upon any body, where the surface opposed to it is known, may be easily found; and a ready comparison may be made betwixt the strength of one gale of wind and that of another. The force of the wind may be likewise measured with this instrument, by filling it until the water runs out at the hole G. For if we then hold it up to the wind as before, a quantity of water will be blown out; and if both legs of the instrument are of the same bore, the height of the column sustained will be equal to double the column of water in either leg, or the sum of what is wanting in both legs. But if the legs are of unequal bores, neither of these will give the true height of the column of water which the wind sustained. But the true height may be obtained by the following formulae. Suppose that after a gale of wind which had blown the water from A to B, *fig. 7*, forcing it at the same time through the other tube out at L, the surface of the water should be found standing at some level DG, and it were required to know what was the height of the column EF or AB, which the wind sustained. In order to obtain this, it is only necessary to find the height of the columns DB or GF, which are constantly equal to one another; for either of these added to one of the equal columns AD, EG, will give the true height of the column of water which the wind sustained. I. Let the diameters AC, EH, of the tubes, be respectively represented by c^2 ; and let $a=AD$, or EG , and $x=DB$, or GF : Then it is evident, that the column DB is to the column EG, as c^2x to d^2a . But these columns are equal.

Therefore $c^2x=d^2a$; and consequently $x=\frac{d^2a}{c^2}$.

II. But if at any instant of time whilst the wind was blowing, it was observed, that, when the water stood at E, the top of the tube out of which it is forced, it was depressed in the other to some given level BF, the altitude at which it would have stood in each, had it immediately subsided, may be found in the following manner: Let $l=AB$ or EF .—Then it is evident that the column DB is equal to the difference of columns EF, GF. But the difference of these columns is as d^2b-a^2x ;

and consequently $x=\frac{d^2b}{c^2+d^2}$. For the cases when

the wind blows in at the narrow leg of the instrument: Let $AD=EF=l$, $EF=l$, or $AD=l$, $GF=x$, $DB=x$, and the diameters EH, GA, respectively c^2 , d^2 .

$\equiv d, c$, as before. Then it is evident, that the column AD is to the column GF as ac^2 to d^2x . But these columns are equal; therefore $d^2x \equiv ac^2$; and

consequently $x \equiv \frac{ac^2}{d^2}$. It is also evident that the

column AD is equal to the difference of the columns AB, DB; but the difference of these columns is as $bc^2 - c^2x$. Therefore $d^2x \equiv bc^2 - c^2x$.

Whence we get $x \equiv \frac{bc^2}{d^2 + c^2}$. The use of the small

tube of communication $a b$, fig. 5, is to check the undulation of the water, so that the height of it may be read off from the scale with ease and certainty. But it is particularly designed to prevent the water from being thrown up to a much greater or less altitude, than the true height of the column which the wind is able at that time to sustain, from its receiving a sudden impulse whilst it is vibrating either in its ascent or descent. As in some cases the water in this instrument might be liable to freeze, and thus break the tubes, Dr Lind recommends a saturated solution of sea salt to be used instead of it, which does not freeze till Fahrenheit's thermometer falls to 0.

(1.) * To GAGE. *v. a.* [*gager*, French.] 1. To wager; to depute as a wager; to impawn; to give as a caution, pledge, or security.—

A moiety competent

Was gaged by our king. *Shak. Hamlet.*
—He found the Turkish merchants making merry: unto these merchants he gave due salutations, gaging his faith for their safety, and they likewise to him. *Knolles's History.* 2. To bind by some caution or surety; to engage.—

My chief care

Is to come fairly off from the great debts
Wherein my time, something too prodigal,
Hath left me gaged. *Shakespeare.*

3. To measure; to take the contents of any vessel of liquids particularly. More properly gauge. See GAUGE.—

We shall see your bearing.

—Nay, but I bar to-night: you shall not gage me
By what we do to night. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

(2.) To GAGE, in law. See to WAGE.

GAGE BOTTLE. See GAGE, N° 9.

GAGES, a town of France in the dept. of Aveyron, 6 miles NE. of Rhodéz.

GAGE TOWN, a town of New Brunswick, 30 miles SE. of Fredericktown.

GAGE-TUBE. See GAGE, N° 9.

* To GAGGLE. *v. n.* [*gagen, gagelen*, Dutch.] To make a noise like a goose.—Birds prune their feathers, geese gaggle, and crows seem to call upon rain; which is but the comfort they receive in the relenting of the air. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

May fat geese gaggle with melodious voice,
And ne'er want gooseberries or apple-sauce. *King.*
GAGNANO, a town of Naples in the prov. of Capitanata, 17 miles E. of Lefina.

GAGNEF, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia.

GAGNIER, John, M. A. a learned Orientalist, born at Paris, in the 17th century. He was bred a Roman catholic, but joined the church of England, and received the degree of M. A. from Cambridge and Oxford. In 1706, he published

Joseph Ben Gorion's History of the Jew; 4to. and, in 1713, Abulfeda's homet, in Arabic; folio: Ox. both c Latin translations and notes. He f Wallis, as professor of Arabic; an esteemed, as a judicious critic, and a erudition. He died in 1725.

(1.) GAGO, a fertile kingdom c Negroland, abounding in corn and f

(2.) GAGO, the capital of the abe Lon. 19. 40. E. of Ferro. Lat. 10. 0.

GAGUEDI. See ETHIOPIA, § 1

GAGUIN, Robert, L. L. D. a P an, born at Colines, near Amiens, 1 at Paris. Charles VIII, and Lewis I ed him in embassies to England, Ger nly. His chief work is *De Gestis Fran* Pharamond to A. D. 1500: fol. L He died in 1501.

GAGUL, a river of Turkey, whi the Danube, 8 miles E. of Reni, in 1

GAHNIA, in botany: a genus of nia order, belonging to the hexan plants. The calyx is an involucre flowers; the corolla is two-valved; 1 capillary and very short filaments; linear, sharp pointed at the apex, an the corolla; there is no pericarpium single and oblong.

GALA, or } a town of the Cisalpi

GAJA, } in the dept. of Panan

vant Modence, 10 miles S. of Mod

GAIDRONISA, an island near tl Candia. Lon. 43. 37. E. of Ferro. L

GAIFTA. See GARTA.

* GAIETY. See GAVETY.

GAILDORF, or } a town of Ger

GAILENDORF, } bia; 5 miles S.

38 WSW. of Anspach.

(1.) GAILLAC, a town of France of Aveyron, 7 miles NW. of Severac

(2.) GAILLAC, a town of France of Tarn, seated on the Tarn. It has and its wine is much esteemed. It NNW. of Castres, and 27 NE. of To

2. 5. E. Lat. 43. 54. N.

(3.) GAILLAC LOULZA, a town c the dep. of Up. Garonne, 11 miles S.

GAILLEFONTAINE, a town c the dep. of Lower Seine, 9 m. SE. of

GAILLON, a town of France, in Eure, and c devant prov. of Norm SE. of Louviere, 9 NW. of Vernon, : en, and 1½ from the Seine.

GAILOVSKOI, a fort of Russia, :

* GAILY. *adv.* [from *gay*.] 1. A fully. 2. Sp'endidly. See GAVLY.

GAIMERSHEIM, a town of Bav NW. of Ingolstadt, and 9 ENE. of

(1.) * GAIN. *n. f.* [*gain*, French advantage: contrary to *loss*.—But were *gain* to m-, those I counted to *Phil.* in. 7.—Besides the purpose it teach how victory should be used, thereof communicated to the general *leigh's Essays*.—

Have, k and spoil, and ruin are u —It is in praise of men as in getting

ains make heavy purses; for light gains
 k, whereas great come but now and
 on's *Essays*.—This must be made by
 ernor upon his own private account,
 great stock that he is content to turn
 and is invited by the gains. *Temple*.—
 ute the gains of his ungovern'd zeal,
 his cloth the praise of railing well. *Dryd.*
 fights for kings or dives for gain. *Pope*.
 ; lucrative views.—

fir, which serves for gain;
 lows but for form,
 pack, when it begins to rain,
 ve thee in the storm. *Shak. King Lear*.
 ul advantage.—Did I make a gain of you
 them whom I sent unto you? *2 Cor. xii.*

de, if envy, if the lust of gain,
 ambition in thy bosom reign,
 boast'st, alas! thy sober sense in vain;
Fitzgerald.

as is a comparative computation; any
 sed to loss.

in, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is derived by some from
 in *gewin*. There are legal and reputable
 sell as sordid and infamous ones. What
 beyond a certain sum, by gaming, is all
 e restored again, if the loser will take
 of the law.

in, in architecture, is the workmen's
 the bevelling shoulder of a joist or other
 it is used also for the lapping of the end
 . &c. upon a trimmer or girder; and
 hickness of the shoulder is cut into the
 also bevelling upwards, that it may just
 gain; and so the joist and trimmer lie
 level with the surface. This way of
 used in floors and hearths.

GAIN. *adj.* [An old word now out of
 ly; ready; dexterous. *Preface to the*

to GAIN. *v. a.* [*gagner*, French.] 1. To
 profit or advantage.—Egypt became a
 u d by the muddy and lineous matter
 own by the Nile, which settled by de-
 a firm land. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—

le gains, to live as Man,
 degree of life,
 reinforcement we may gain from hope.
Milton.

; not to lose.—
 er once he lost, and gain'd a king. *Milt.*
 e the overplus in comparative computa-
 you have two vessels to fill, and you
 to fill the other, you gain nothing by
 it's *Theory*. 4. To obtain; to procure;
 —

acceptance found, which gain'd
 ver from the gracious voice divine. *Milt.*
 t fi le some small reflection gains
 r'ring air, less vex'd with tempest loud.
Milton.

tradition were endeavoured to be set
 s not easy to imagine how it should at
 tertainment; but much more difficult
 how ever it should come to be uni-
 pagated. *Tillotson's Sermons*.—

ne with toil we gain, but lose with ease,
Part I.

Sure some to vex, but never all to please. *Pope*.
 5. To obtain increate of any thing allotted—I know
 that ye would gain the time, because ye see the
 thing is gone from me. *Dan. ii. 8.* 6. To obtain
 whatever, good or bad.—Ye shoul I not have loosed
 from Crete, and to have gain'd this harm and loss.
Ads, xxvii. 21. 7. To win against opposition.—
 They who were sent to the other pala, after a
 short resistance gained it. *Clarendon*.—

Fat fees from the defended Umbrian draws,
 And only gains the wealthy client's caule.

Dryden's Persius.

O love! for Sylvia let me gain the prize,
 And make my tongue victorious as here eyes. *Pope*.
 8. To draw into any interest or party.—

Come, with presents, laden from the port,
 To gratify the queen and gain the court. *Virg.*
 If Pyrrhus must be wrought to pity,
 No woman does it better than yourself:
 If you gain him, I shall comply of course. *Phil.*

9. To obtain as a wooer.—

He never shall find out fit mate, but such
 As some misfortune brings him, or mistake,
 Or whom he wishes most shall seldom gain
 Through her perverse, but shall see her gain'd
 By a far worse. *Milton.*

10. To reach; to attain.—

The West still glimmers with some streaks of
 day:

Now spurs the lated traveller apace,
 To gain the timely inn. *Shak. Macbeth.*

Death was the post, which I almost did gain:
 Shall I once more be tost into the main? *Waller.*

Sun! sound his praise

In thy eternal course, both when thou climb'st,
 And when high noon hast gain'd, and when thou
 fall'st. *Milton.*

—We came to the roots of the mountain, and
 had a very troublesome march to gain the top of
 it. *Addison on Italy*.—

Thus sav'd from death, they gain the Phœtan
 shores,

With shatter'd vessels and disabled oars. *Odys.*

11. To GAIN over. To draw to another party or
 interest.—The court of Hanover should have en-
 deavoured to gain over those who were represent-
 ed as their enemies. *Swift*.

(2.) * To GAIN. *v. n.* 1. To grow rich; to have
 advantage; to be advanced in interest or happi-
 nesa.—Thou hast taken usury and increase, and
 thou hast greedily gained of thy neighbours by ex-
 tortions. *Ezek. xxii. 12.* 2. To encroach; to come
 forward by degrees: with *on*.—

When watchful herons leave their watry stand,
 And mounting upward with erected flight,
 Gain on the skies, and soar above the fight.

Dryden's Virgil.

So on the land, while here the ocean gains,
 In other parts it leaves wide sandy plains. *Pope*.

3. To get ground; to prevail against: with *on*.—
 The English have not only gained upon the Vene-
 tians in the Levant, but have their cloth in Venice
 itself. *Addison*. 4. To obtain influence with: with
on.—My good behaviour had gained so far on the
 emperor, that I began to conceive hopes of liber-
 ty. *Swift*.

(4.) To GAIN THE WIND, in sea language, is
 to arrive on the weather side or to windward of

some other vessel in sight, when both are plying to windward, or sailing as near the wind as possible.

(1.) **GAINAGE**, **GAINAGIUM**, in ancient writers, signifies the draught oxen, horses, wain, plough, and furniture, for carrying on the work of tillage by the sokemen and villains. Gainage is the same with **WAINAGE**. *Beacon*, lib. 1. cap. 9. speaking of lords and servants, says, *Ut si eos destruant, quod saluum non possit eis esse wainagium suum*. And again, lib. iii. tract. 2. cap. 1. *Fil. laus non amercibitur, nisi falso wainagio suo*. For anciently, as it appears both by *Magna Charta* and other books, the villain, when amerced, had his gungage free, that his plough might not stand still: and the law, for the same reason, still allows a like privilege to the husbandman, that is, his draught horses are not in many cases distrainable.

(2.) **GAINAGE** is also used for the land itself, or the profit raised by cultivating it.

GAINBATESA, a town of Naples, in the county of Molise, 18 miles ESE. of Molise.

* **GAINER**. *n. f.* [from *gain*.] One who receives profit or advantage. —The client, besides retaining a clear conscience, is always a *gainer*, and by no means can be at any loss, as setting, if the composition be overheard, he may relieve himself by recourse to his oath. *Bacon's Off. of Allegation*. —

If what I get in empire

I lose in fame, I think myself no *gainer*. *Denb.* —He that loses any thing, and gets wisdom by it, is a *gainer* by the loss. *L'Estrange*. —By trade, we are as great *gainers* by the commodities of other countries as of our own nation. *Addison's Freeholder*.

GAINFARHN, a town of Austria, one mile SSW. of Baden.]

* **GAINFUL**. *adj.* [from *gain* and *ful*.] 1. Advantageous; profitable. —He will dazzle his eyes, and bait him in with the luscious proposal of some *gainful* purchase, some rich match, or advantageous project. *South*. 2. Lucrative; productive of money —

Nor knows he merchants *gainful* care. *Dryd.*
Mars's muse commodious precepts gives,
Instructive to the swains, nor wholly bent
On what is *gainful*: sometimes she diverts
From solid counsels. *Philips*.

* **GAINFULLY**. *adv.* [from *gainful*.] Profitably; advantageously.

* **GAINFULNESS**. *n. f.* [from *gainful*.] Profit; advantage.

* **GAINGIVING**. *n. f.* [from *gainst* and *give*.] The same as *misgiving*; a giving against: as *gain saying*, which is still in use, is saying against, or contradicting. *Hanmer*. —It is but foolery; but it is such a kind of *gaingiving*, as would perhaps trouble a woman. *Shak. Ham.*

* **GAINLESS**. *adj.* [from *gain*.] Unprofitable; producing no advantage.

* **GAINLESSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *gainless*.] Unprofitableness; want of advantage. —The parallel holds too in the *gainlessness* as well as laboriousness of the work: miners, buried in earth and darkness, were never the richer for all the ore they digged; no more is the insatiable miser. *Decay of Piety*.

* **GAINLY**. *adv.* [from *gain*.] dily; dexterously. Out of use.

* **To GAINSAY**. *v. a.* [from *gainst*.] To contradict; to oppose; to con- to dispute against. —Speeches, while another, must of necessity be applied one and the same subject. *Hooker* —

Too facile then, thou didst not
Nay, didst permit, approve, and

z. To deny any thing. —

I never heard yet

That any of those bolder vices w
Less impudence to *gainsay* what
Than to perform it first. *Shak.*

* **GAINSAYER**. *n. f.* [from *gainst*.] A dissent; adversary. —Such as may sat when suddenly, and besides expect quire the same at our hands. *Hom* for this cause, challenged as manifest Scripture, even in that which we r ture unto the people. *Hooker*. —It of conviction to all *gainsayers*. *Hamm* fought themselves a name by being but failed of their purpose. *Fell*.

(1.) **GAINSBOROUGH**, a town shire, 150 miles from London, seat near the sea. It is a large well built has a pretty good trade. The north neighbourhood is noted for horse Danes, when they invaded the king their ships to this place; and their king was murdered. See *EW* 18. It lies 18 miles NW. of Lincoln W. Lat. 53. 27. W.

(2.) **GAINSBOROUGH**, Thomas English painter of landscapes and at Sudbury, in Suffolk, in 1727. self taught, he united the brilliant with the simplicity of *Rydael*. T was equally distinguished for his virt impoverished himself by his generot the needy. He died in 1788.

* **'GAINST**. *prep.* [for *against*.] Tremble, ye nations! who, se Laugh'd at those arms, that 'ga bore.

* **To GAINSTAND**. *v. a.* [from *gainst*.] To withstand; to oppose; to resist word, but not in use. —Have prove ant, that durst with the sword of a *gainstand* the force of so many en *Sidney*.

GAJO, a village of Maritime A Dogado of Venice.

* **GAIRISH**. *adj.* [from *gerian*, to d. 1. Gaudy; showy; splendid; sin four will outrage in apparel, hug strous hats, and *gairish* colours. *A*

I call'd thee then poor shadow

The presentation of but what I w

A mother, only mock'd of two f

A dream of what thou was't, a g

To be the aim of every dangerou

There in close covert by some

Where no profaner eye may look

Hide me from day's *gairish* eye.

magantly gay; flighty.—Fame and glory
a man out of himself: it makes the mind
gairish, scatters the spirits, and leaves a
dissolution upon all the faculties. *South.*
RISHNESS. *n. f.* [from *gairish*.] 1. Fine-
ling gaudiness. 2. Flighty or extrava-
—Let your hope be without vanity, or
of spirit, but sober, grave, and silent.

IRLOCH, [Gael. *i. e.* a short lake.] a
Scotland, in Ross-shire, 31 miles long,
and, consisting chiefly of hills and moor-
lands, afford good pasture, but the arable
land of small extent, and consequently the
corn and potatoes do not supply the na-
tional wants 8 months in the year. The coast a-
round safe harbours, and is famous for its cod-
fisheries. Sir Hector M'Kenzie the
last, sends to market annually from 30, to
40, exclusive of the quantity consumed
at home. The population in 1792, stated by
Mr Dan. M'Intosh, in his report to Sir
James, was 2200, and had increased 150,
in 1800. Two persons died lately aged 100 each.
IRLOCH, a small lake in the above pa-
rish, to which it gives name, so close by
the sea, that the sea covers it at high tides.

IRLOCH BAY, a bay on the W. coast
of Ross-shire, famous for its fishery of cod, &c.
ORNEY, one of the Orkney Islands.

ERN, a town of Germany, in Stiria.
G. *n. f.* [gat, Dutch.] 1. A way; as,
gait.—

Good youth, address thy *gait* unto her;
denied access; stand at her door. *Shak.*
; walk.—

Right regarding, they kept on their *gait*,
her vain allurements did forsake. *F. Q.*
part so lean and meagre waxen late,
where thy legs uphold thy feeble *gait*.

Hubbard's Tale.

inner and air of walking.—
Juno comes; I know her by her *gait*.

Shak.

in his person, in his aspect, the appear-
ance of a great man, which he preserved in his
motion. *Claren.*—

A third, who, by his *gait*
of demeanour, seems the prince of hell.

Milton.

Leviathans

ing, unwieldy, enormous in their *gait*.
Milton.

I describ'd his way,
on speed, and mark'd his airy *gait*.
Milton.

OR GALA WATER, a river of Scotland
in Ross-shire, which runs into the Tweed
at Melrose, 2 miles above Melrose.

TITES, in natural history, a substance
resembling FRENCH CHALK, in many re-
spects different from it in colour. The an-
cient used it in the Nile, and in some rivers in
Egypt used it in medicine as an astringent,
for the cure of the eyes. At present
it is used in Germany, Italy, and some parts
of France, but it is little regarded, being esteemed
inferior to MOROCHTHUS.

GALACTOPHAGI, and **GALACTOPOTÆ**, } [from *γᾱλα*, *γᾱλακ-*
milk; *φαγειν*, to
eat; and *ποτος* of *πινω*, I drink.] in antiquity, per-
sons who lived wholly on milk, without corn or
any other food. Certain nations in Scythia Asi-
atica, as the Getæ, Nomades, &c. are famous
in ancient history, as *galactophagi*. Homer makes
their eulogy, *Iliad*, lib. iii. Ptolemy, in his geo-
graphy, places the Galactophagi between the Ri-
phæan mountains on one side, and the Hircanian
sea on the other.

GALACZ, **GALASI**, or **GALATZ**, a town of
European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near the Danube,
54 miles W. of Ismael, and 20 SSW. of Bender;
between the Pruth and the Seret.

* **GALAGE.** *n. f.* A shepherd's clog. Not
in use.—

My heart's blood is nigh frore, I feel;

And my *galage* grown fast to my heel. *Spenser.*

GALAM, a fort of Africa, on the Senegal,
built by the French, but ceded to Britain in 1763.
It was taken by the French during the American
war, and again ceded to Britain in 1783.

GALAN, a town of France, in the dep. of the
Upper Pyrennees, 15 miles E. of Tarbes.

(1.) * **GALANGAL.** *n. f.* [*galange*, French.]
A medicinal root. The lesser *galangal* is in pie-
ces, about an inch or two long, about the thick-
ness of a man's little finger; of a brownish red
colour, hot and pungent. The larger *galangal* is
in pieces, about two inches or more in length;
and an inch in thickness; its colour is brown,
with a faint cast of red in it: it has a disagreeable
but much less acrid and pungent taste. *Hill.*

(2.) **GALANGAL.** See **KÆMPFERIA**, N° 1.

GALANTHUS, the SNOW-DROP, in botany:
A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to
the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural
method ranking under the 19th order, *Spatheaceæ*.
There are 3 concave petals; and the nectarium
consists of 3 emarginated petals; the stigma is
simple. There is but one species, viz. the

GALANTHUS NIVALIS, a bulbous rooted flow-
ery perennial, rising but a few inches in height,
and adorned at top with small tripetalous flowers
of a white colour. There are 3 varieties, viz. the
common single-flowered snow-drop, the semi-dou-
ble snow-drop, and the double snow-drop. They
are beautiful little plants; and are much valued on
account of their early appearance, often adorning
the gardens in January or February, when scarce
any other flower is to be seen. They frequently
burst forth when the ground is covered with snow,
and continue very often till the beginning of
March, making a very ornamental appearance,
especially when disposed in clusters towards the
fronts of the borders, &c. The single kind comes
first into bloom, then the semi-double, and after
that the double. They succeed in any soil, and
multiply exceedingly by offsets from the roots.

GALARED, a town of Sweden, in Blekingen.
GALARGUES, or } a town of France, in the
GALARQUES, } dep. of Gard, 6 miles SE.
of Sommieres.

GALARS, a town of Transylvania, 16 miles
SE. of Hunyad.

(1.) **GALASHIELS**, a parish of Scotland, in
the

the counties of Roxburgh and Selkirk, of an irregular triangular form, about $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles broad, seated on the Tweed, which divides it into two parts, and separates the counties. The surface is hilly and affords good pasturage. The climate is dry and healthy. The soil, S. of the Tweed, is deep, heavy, cold and wet; but on the N. dry, shallow, and remarkably full of small stones; which, nevertheless, it has been found dangerous to remove, as they reflect heat, retain moisture, and thus contribute to the production of most luxuriant crops. The parish contains 8000 acres, of which 1500 are arable, 6000 in pasture, 200 under wood, and 200 in mosses, lakes, banks of rivers, &c. Oats, barley, wheat, pease, clover, and potatoes, are raised. The population in 1791, stated by the rev. Mr Douglas, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 914, and had decreased 84, since 1755. The number of sheep was about 5000.

(2.) **GALASHIELS**, a small town in the above parish, containing 581 inhabitants in 1791. It has a considerable manufacture of coarse woollen cloth; 43 looms being employed, and 52,000 yards made annually. Tanning, carpentry, and other branches are also carried on. It has 5 fairs, in March, July, Sept. Oct. and Nov. It is seated at the conflux of the Gala and Tweed, 25 m. S. by E. of Edinburgh, and 5 N. of Selkirk.

GALASI. See **GALACZ**.

GALASO, a town of Naples in Otranto.

(1.) **GALATA**, a great suburb of Constantinople, opposite to the seraglio, on the other side of the harbour, where the Greeks, Armenians, Franks, Christians, and Jews inhabit, and are allowed the exercise of their respective worships.

(2.) **GALATA**, an island near the coast of Tunis. Lon. 9. 30. E. Lat. 38. 15. N.

GALATÆ, the inhabitants of **GALATIA**.

GALATHÆA, or in mythology, a sea nymph,

GALATHÆA, daughter of Nereus and Doris. She was beloved by the Cyclops Polyphemus, whom she treated with disdain; while Acis, a shepherd of Sicily, enjoyed her affection. The Cyclops killed his rival with a piece of a rock while he reposed on the bosom of Galathea. The nymph, inconsolable for the loss of Acis, as she could not restore him to life, changed him into a fountain.

GALATEO, a town of Naples in Calabria Ultra, 8 miles ESE. of Nicotera.

GALATI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona, 12 miles SW. of Pati.

GALATIA, the ancient name of a province of Asia Minor, now called **AMASIA**. It was bounded on the E. by Cappadocia, on the S. by Pamphilia, on the N. by the Euxine sea, and on the W. by Bithynia. It was the N. part of Phrygia Magna; but upon being occupied by the Gauls, was called *Galatia*; and because situated amidst Greek colonies, and its natives mixed with Greeks, **GALLOGRÆCIA**. Strabo calls it *Galatia*, and *Gallogræcia*; hence a twofold name of the people, **GALATÆ** and **GALLOGRÆCI**. The Greeks called it **GALLIA PARVA**, to distinguish it from **GALLIA TRANSALPINA**, both which they called *Galatia*. It was reduced by the Romans under Augustus, and now belongs to the Turks. Here St Paul founded a church. See **GALATIANS**, § 2.

(1.) **GALATIANS**, the people of **GALATIA**.

(2.) **GALATIANS**, **EPISTLE TO THE**, a canonical book of the New Testament, written by the apostle Paul to the primitive Christians in order to reclaim them from the observation of Jewish ordinances, into which they had been seduced by the Judaizing teachers.

GALATOLA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto, 4 miles ESE. of Nardo.

GALATON, a village of Fifeshire, 10 miles to Dysart, containing 432 inhabitants in 1801. Its population had increased 227 since 1756. Weaving and nail making are the chief trades.

GALATZ. See **GALACZ**.

GALAX, in botany: A genus of the *Scrophularia* order, belonging to the pentandria; and in the natural method ranks with those of which the order is doubtful. The corolla is salver-shaped; the calyx decapphyllous; the capsule unilocular, bivalved, and elastic.

GALAXIA, in botany: a genus of the *Scrophularia* order, belonging to the Monadelphous plants.

(1.) * **GALAXY**. *n. f.* [*γαλαξία*; *galaxia*]. The milky way; a stream of light in the heavens.

A broad and ample road, whose dust
And pavement stars, as stars to thee
Seen in the *galaxy*. *Milton's Paradise Lost*

A brown, for which heaven would
The *galaxy*, and stars be tann'd. *Coleridge's Ancient Mariner*

Several lights will not be seen,
If there be nothing else between;
Men doubt, because they stand so thick
If those be stars that paint the *galaxy*.

—We dare not undertake to shew what
is brought to us by those innumerable stars
of the *galaxy*. *Bentley*.

(2.) *The GALAXY*, is that long white track, which seems to encompass the heavens, and is easily perceivable in a clear sky, especially when the moon does not shine. The ancients called it *γαλαξίας*, of *γαλα*, *γαλακτός*, *Milk*, as it resembles *via lactea*, the milky way, on account of its colour and appearance. And their poets have many fables about the spilling of *Juno's* milk as the cause of its whiteness. It passes through *Sagittarius* and *Gemini*, and divides the heavens into two parts; it is unequally broad; in some places single, in others double. The ancient philosophers, even philosophers, speak of the *Galaxy* as a way by which the heroes went to heaven. Some supposed it a kind of meteor, formed of clouds of vapours, drawn into that part by certain stars disposed in the region of the heavens, and shining hereto. Others, finding that the *Galaxy* was seen all over the globe, that it always corresponded to the same fixed stars, and that it terminated at the height of the highest planets, set aside the poet's opinion; placed the *Galaxy* in the firmament, or region of the fixed stars, and concluded it to be nothing but an assemblage of an infinity of minute stars. Since the invention of the telescope, this opinion has been abundantly confirmed. By directing a good telescope to any part of the milky way, where before we only saw a whitened light, we now descry an innumerable multitude of little stars, so remote, that they almost confound them. (See **ASTRONOMY**, *De*

Monnier still disputes this opinion, and the whiteness to be occasioned by some kind of matter. See his *Inst. Astr.* p. 60. **GALBA**, Servius Sulpicius, emperor of Rome, 7th of the Cæsars, born the 24th Dec. 5. He was gradually raised to the highest of the state, and exercised his power in the with the greatest equity. He dedicated his time to solitary pursuits, to avoid the of Nero. Expressing his disapprobation of Nero's oppression in the provinces, earned him to be put to death; but he eschewed the executioner, and was publicly sacrificed. When seated on the throne, he allowed himself to be governed by favourites, who misled the citizens. Exemptions were sold at dearth; and impunity even for murder was purchased with money. Such irregularities grieved the people; and Galba refusing to give the soldiers the money he had promised them, limited him in the 73d year of his age, the month of his reign. The virtues which shone so bright in Galba, when a private man, disappeared when he ascended the throne; who had showed himself the most impartial, forgot his duty when emperor.

GALLY, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

GALBANUM. *n. s.* We meet with it sometimes in loose granules, called drops which is the purest, and sometimes in masses. It is soft, like wax, and ductile between the fingers; of a yellowish or reddish colour, its smell is strong and disagreeable. It is of a nature between a gum and a resin, being as soluble as a resin, and soluble in water as a gum, but not dissolve in oil as pure resins do. It is the produce of an umbelliferous plant. *Hill's Medica.*—It yielded indeed a pleasant odour, like the best myrrh; as *galbanum*. *Ecclus.* xxiv. 15. **GALBANUM** issues from the stem of an aromatic plant, growing in Persia and many parts of Africa. See **BUBON**, § 1, 2. The juice is pellucid, soft, tenacious; of a strong smell, rather warm taste; the better sort is in rounded masses, composed of clear white oil. Geoffroy relates, that a dark greenish oil is obtained from this by distillation, which, after repeated rectifications, becomes of an elegant blue colour. The purer sorts of galbanum said by some to dissolve entirely in wine, or water; but these liquors are only partial solvents with regard to this drug; nor do wine or oils prove more effectual in this respect. The best solvent is a mixture of two parts of wine and one of water. Galbanum is of great virtue with gum ammoniac, but is generally accounted less efficacious in asthma, and in hysterical complaints. It is an ingredient in the gum pills, the gum plaster, and some medicinal compositions.

GALATEA, a town of the Cisalpine republic, sept. of Montagna, and late county of Comasco, situated on the W. bank of lake Como, opposite to Lugano.

BRUNN, a town of Germany, in Austria, NW. of Brugg.

DER, a town in the Isle of Canary.

GALE, Dr John, an eminent minister a-

mong the Baptists, born at London in 1680. He studied at Leyden, and afterwards at Amsterdam, under Dr Limborch. He was chosen minister of the Baptist congregation at Barbican; where his preaching, being chiefly practical, was greatly resorted to by people of all persuasions. He died in 1721. Four volumes of his sermons were published after his death. His *Reflections on Dr Wall's History of Infant Baptism* is the best defence of the Baptists ever published, and the reading of that performance induced the learned Mr William Whiston and Dr Foster to become Baptists.

(2.) **GALE**, Theophilus, an eminent nonconformist minister, born in 1628. He was invited to Winchester in 1657, and continued a stated preacher there until the re-establishment of the church by Charles II; when he rather chose to suffer the penalties of the act of conformity, than to submit to it contrary to his conscience. He was afterwards engaged by Philip lord Wharton as tutor to his sons, whom he attended to an academy at Caen, in Normandy; and afterwards became pastor to a congregation of Dissenters in Holborn. He died in 1678; and is principally known by an elaborate work, intitled, the *Court of the Gentiles*, calculated to show, that the Pagan philosophers derived their most sublime sentiments from the Scriptures.

(3.) **GALE**, Thomas, D. D. and F. R. S. a learned divine, born at Scruton, in Yorkshire, in 1636. He was educated at Cambridge, and became professor of Greek in that university. He was afterwards chosen head master of St Paul's school, London; and wrote those elegant inscriptions on the monument erected in memory of the conflagration in 1666. In 1676, he was made a prebendary in St Paul's; and being elected a F. R. S. presented a Roman urn to the society. About 1697, he gave to the new library of Trinity college, in Cambridge, a great number of Arabic MSS.; and in 1697 was admitted dean of York. He died in that city in 1702; and was interred in the cathedral, where a monument was erected to his memory. He was a great historian, one of the best Greek scholars of his age, and corresponded with the most learned men at home and abroad. He published, 1. *Historiæ Poeticæ Antiqui Scriptores*, 8vo. 2. *Opuscula Mythologica, Ethica, & Physica*, in Gr. and Lat. 8vo. 3. *Herodoti Historia*, fol. 4. *Historiæ Anglicanæ Scriptores quinque*, in fol. 5. *Historiæ Britannicæ, Saxonicæ, Anglo-Danicæ, Scriptores quindecim*, fol. 6. *Rhetores Selecti*, &c.

(4.) **GALE**, Roger, F. R. & A. S. S. eldest son of the preceding (Nº 3.) was educated at Trinity college, Cambridge, of which he was chosen fellow in 1697. He was M. P. for N. Allerton, in the 3 first British Parliaments. He was first Vice-president of the Society of Antiquaries, and Treasurer to the Royal Society. He died in 1744, and was esteemed one of the most learned men of his age. He published several valuable books, particularly an edition of Antoninus's Commentary.

(5.) **GALE**, Samuel, younger brother to Roger (Nº 4.) was also eminent for his learning and knowledge of antiquities. He died in 1754, aged 72.

(6.) * **GALE**. *n. s.* [*ghaling*, hasty, sudden, German.] A wind not tempestuous, yet stronger than a breeze.—

What happy gale
Blows you to Padua here, from old Verona!

Shakspeare.

Winds
Of gentlest gale Arabian odours ann'd
From their soft wings, and Flora's earliest smells.

Milton.

Fresh gales and gentle air.
Umbria's green retreats

Milton.

Where western gales eternally reside. *Addison.*

(7.) GALE, in sea language, a term of various import. When the wind blows not so hard but that a ship may carry her top sails a-trip, (that is, hoisted up to the highest,) they say it is a loom gale. When it blows very strong, it is a stiff, strong, or flesh gale. See next article.

To GALE, *v. n.* When two ships are near one another at sea, and, there being but little wind blowing, one of them finds more of it than the other, they say that the one ship gales away from the other.

GALEA, in antiquity, a light casque, head-piece, or morrion, which came down to the shoulders, commonly of brass. Camillus, according to Plutarch, ordered those of his army to be of iron, as being the stronger metal. The lower part of it was called *buccula*, and on the top was a crest. The Velites wore a light galea, made of the skin of some wild beast, to make it more terrible.

GALEANO, Joseph, a learned physician of Palermo, born in 1605. He was author of several medical works, and published a Collection of the Sicilian Poets, in 5 vols. He died in 1675.

GALEASSE. See GALASSA.

* GALEATED *adj.* [*galeatus*, Lat.] 1. Covered as with a helmet — A galeated elminius copped, and in shape somewhat more corick than any of the foregoing. *Woodw. on Foss.* 2. [In botany.] Such plants as bear a flower resembling an helmet, as the monkshood.

GALEGA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphica class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 3rd order, *Papilionaceae*. The calyx is composed of subulated nearly equal dents or segments; the legumen has oblique suture, and seeds lying between them.

GALEGOS, a town of Portugal, in Entre-duero-e-minho, 4 miles NE. of Barcelos.

(1.) GALEN, Claudius, prince of the Greek physicians after Hippocrates, was born at Pergamus, in Asia Minor, A. D. 131. His father being possessed of a fortune, and well versed in philosophy, astronomy, geometry, and architecture, instructed his son in the first rudiments of learning, and afterwards procured him the greatest masters of the age. Galen, having finished his studies, chose physic for his profession, studied the works of Hippocrates, and at length resolved to travel, to converse with the most able physicians in all parts, and to take every opportunity of inspecting on the spot the plants and drugs of the countries thro' which he passed. With this view he went to Alexandria, where he staid some years; thence he travelled through Cilicia, Palestine, Crete, Cyprus, Lemnos, and the Lower Tyria; in which last place he obtained a thorough insight into the nature of the Lemnian earth, and the opobalsamum;

after which he returned home by . Galen had been 4 years at Pergamus, practice was attended with extraordinary success when some commotions induced him to Rome, where he resolved to settle: but he gave of his superior skill, added to shown him by several persons of very great rank, created him so many enemies among the of the faculty, that he was obliged to leave after having resided there 4 or 5 years, not long returned to Pergamus, when called by the emperor Aurelius and after their death, he retired to his native where he died, about A. D. 200. He was a Greek; and is said to have composed 2000 which were unhappily burnt in the temple. The best editions of those that remain, printed at Basil in 1538, in 5 vols. and in 1625, in 7. Galen was of a weak constitution, as he himself asserts; but he overcame, by his temperance and skill, arrived to a great age. One of his rules was to rise from table with some degree of appetite. He is justly considered as the physician of antiquity, next to Hippocrates; he performed such surprising cures, that he was accused of magic.

(2.) GALEN, in geography, a military ship of New York, 12 miles NW. of 13.

(1.) GALENA, in mineralogy, a species of lead ore.

(2.) GALENA, in ancient pharmacy given by Andromachus to the theriac effect in bringing on a pleasing calm blood and spirits.

GALENBULON, a town of Madagascar, 71. 30. E. of Ferro. Lat. 17. 20. S.

GALENIA, in botany, a genus of 1 order, belonging to the octandria class and in the natural method ranking under order, *Succulente*. The calyx is trisid; corolla; the capsule is roundish and di-

(1.) GALENIC, or } *adj.* in medic
(2.) GALENICAL, } plied to that considering and treating diseases, found principles of Galen, or introduced by This author, collecting and digesting physicians before him had done, and every thing according to the strictest the Peripatetics, set physic on a new foundation, introduced the doctrine of the 4 elemental qualities and their degrees; and mours, or temperaments.

(2.) GALENICAL is more frequent contradistinguished from *chemical*. The of *galenical* and *chemical* was occasional union of the practitioners of medicine into GALENISTS and CHEMISTS, on the introduction of chemistry into medicine. The cherishing to themselves every kind of mediocrity, stirred up an opposition to their party founded on the invariable adherence of party to the ancient practice. And this division has long ceased, yet the distinct medicines which resulted from it is still See § 3.

(3.) GALENICAL MEDICINES are those formed by the easier preparations

c. by infusion, decoction, &c. and by
ing and multiplying ingredients; while
chemistry draw their more intimate and
virtues by means of fire, and elaborate
ions, as calcination, digestion, fermenta-

GALENISTS, a denomination given to
sicians as practise, prescribe, or write on
ical principles. They stand opposed to
ists. See **GALENICAL**, § 2. The gale-
chemists are now accommodated; and
our physicians use the preparations and
of both.

GALENISTS, or } in church history, a branch
GALENITES, } of Mennonites or Anabap-
take in several of the opinions of the
b, or rather Arians, touching the divinity
aviour. In 1664, the Waterlandians di-
o two parties, of which the one were
ists, from their leader Abraham Gale-
the other *Apollonians*.

GALENUS, Abraham, a learned and elo-
quent of Amsterdam, who considered
as a system that laid much less
practice; and who was for ta-
the communion of the Mennonites all
to acknowledge the divine origin of the
the Old and New Testament, and led
virtuous lives.

GALENUS, Claudius. See **GALEN**, N° 1.
GALEON. See **GALLEON**.

GALEOPSIS, in botany, a genus of the angio-
order, belonging to the didynamia class
1; and in the natural method ranking un-
42d order, *Verticillate*. The upper lip
prolla is a little crenated or arched; the
more than bidentate.

GALEOTTI, Martio, secretary to Matthias,
Hungary, tutor to his son John, and li-
at Buda, was born at Narni, in Italy. He
d a work entitled, *De homine interiore et*
re ejus, in 4to. and a collection of bon mots
Matthias. Being invited by Lewis XI. of
to his court, he went to Lyons, but meet-
ing unexpectedly, he, in descending haf-
ry his respects to the monarch, fell, and be-
corpulent, was so much hurt, that he
after.

GALEERA, a town of Italy, in the prov. of
nio, between Rome and Bracciano.

GALEKA, two towns of Spain; 1. in
a, 5 miles SSW. of Tortosa; 2. in Gra-
miles SSE. of Huesca.

GALEERIA, a gulf on the NW. of Corsica.

GALERICULATE. *adj.* [from *galerus*, Lat.]
as with a hat.

GALERICULUM, in Roman antiquity, a cap
th by men and women, consisting of skin,
dressed with human hair, that the arti-
ferring could scarcely be distinguished from
real. They were used by those whose
s thin; and by wrestlers, to keep their
r from receiving any injury from the nasty
h which they were rubbed all over before
exercised. They seem to have resembled
b.

GALEIRON, a town of Celebes, 15 miles from
r, famous for its fishery.

GALETTA, an island in the Mediterranean,
anciently called *Ægimurus*.

GALEY, a river of Ireland, which rises in Li-
merick, runs through Kerry, and falls into the
Peal.

GALFALLY, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary,
32 miles SE. of Limerick. Lon. 8. 20. W. Lat.
52. 15. N.

GALGACUS, the name given by Tacitus and
other Roman historians, to the King of Scots,
who opposed Agricola, called by Buchanan, and
our other Scots historians, *Corbreus Galdus*. See
AGRICOLA, and **SCOTLAND**.

GALGON, a town of France, in the dept. of
Gironde, 5 miles N. of Libourne.

GALHARA, a town of Portugal, in Beira;
12 miles NE. of Coimbra.

GALIC. See **GÆLIC**, § 1, 2.

GALICANA, a town of Italy, in Lucca.

(1.) **GALICIA**, a province of Spain, bounded
on the N. and W. by the ocean, on the S. by
Portugal, and on the E. by Asturias and Leon.
The air is temperate along the coast, but in other
places, cold and moist. Galicia affords good pas-
ture, but is not populous. It produces wine, flax,
citrons and other fruits: and the mountains af-
ford gold, copper, lead, iron, and vermilion,
wood, &c. It contains 64 towns and cities, and
about 242,264 families. It was anciently a king-
dom under the Suevi. St Jago di Compostella is
the capital.

(2.) **GALICIA**, or **GUADALAXARA**, a country
of Mexico, containing 7 provinces. It has mines
of silver and copper, and abounds with corn.
The climate is temperate. Guadalaxara is the
capital.

(3.) **GALICIA**, the modern name given to a
large country in the S. of Poland, which was
seized on by the late emp. Joseph II, and annex-
ed to the Austrian dominions. It comprehends
a part of Red Russia and the palatinate of Lem-
berg; and is separated from Hungary by the Car-
pathian mountains. It is 280 miles long, and from
60 to 100 broad. Lemberg, or Leopold, is the
capital. Its chief articles of commerce are corn,
wood, cattle, hides, wax, honey, salt, copper,
lead and iron.

GALIGNANA, a town of Maritime Austria,
in the ci-devant Venetian Istria, 14 miles NE. of
Rovigno.

GALILEE, in ancient geography, a province
of Judea, bounded by mount Lebanon on the N.
by the Jordan and the sea of Galilee on the E. by
the Chison on the S. and by the Mediterranean on
the W. It was the scene of many of our Saviour's
miracles; but the bounds of the country are not
now well known, nor the places where many of
the towns stood. It belongs to the Turks.

GALILEANS, a sect of the Jews. Their foun-
der was one Judas, a native of Galilee, who, esteem-
ing it an indignity for the Jews to pay tribute to
strangers, raised up his countrymen against the
edict of Augustus, which had ordered a taxation
of all the subjects of the Roman empire. They
insisted that God alone should be owned as Lord.
In other respects they were of the opinion of the
Pharisees; but, as they judged it unlawful to pray
for infidel princes, they separated from the rest
of

of the Jews, and performed their sacrifices apart. As our Saviour was supposed to be a native of Galilee, and his apostles were mostly Galileans they were suspected to be of this sect; and it was on this principle, as St Jerome observes, that the Pharisees laid a snare for him; by asking, Whether it was lawful to give tribute to Cæsar; that in case he denied it, they might have an occasion of accusing him.

(1.) **GALILEO**, Galilei, the famous mathematician and astronomer, was the son of a Florentine nobleman, and born in 1564. He had from his infancy a strong inclination to philosophy and mathematics; and made prodigious progress in these sciences. In 1592, he was chosen professor of mathematics at Padua; and during his abode there invented the telescope; or, according to others, improved that instrument, so as to make it fit for astronomical observations: See **ASTRONOMY**, *Index*. In 1611, Cosmo II, grand duke of Tuscany, sent for him to Pisa, where he made him professor of mathematics, with a handsome salary; and soon after inviting him to Florence, gave him the office and title of *principal philosopher and mathematician to his highness*. He had been but a few years at Florence, before he was convinced, that Aristotle's doctrine, however ill-grounded, was held too sacred to be called in question. Having observed some solar spots in 1612, he printed that discovery in 1613, at Rome; in which, and in some other pieces, he ventured to assert the truth of the Copernican system, and brought several new arguments to confirm it. For these he was cited before the inquisition; and, after some months imprisonment, was released upon a simple promise, that he would renounce his heretical opinions, and not defend them by word or writing. But having afterwards, in 1632, published at Florence his "Dialogues of the two greatest systems of the world, the Ptolemaic and Copernican," he was again cited before the inquisition, and committed to the prison of that dreadful court at Rome. On June 22d N. S. 1632, the congregation convened; and in his presence pronounced sentence against him and his books, obliging him to abjure his errors in the most solemn manner; committed him to the prison of their office during pleasure; and enjoined him, as a saving penance, for three years, to repeat once a-week the 7 penitential psalms: reserving to themselves, however, the power of moderating, changing, or taking away altogether or in part, the above-mentioned punishment and penance. On this sentence, he was detained a prisoner till 1634: and his *Dialogues of the system of the World* were burnt at Rome. He lived ten years after this, 7 of which were employed in making still further discoveries with his telescope. But by the continual application to that instrument, added to the damage he received in his sight from the nocturnal air, his eyes grew gradually weaker, till he became totally blind in 1639. He bore this calamity with patience and resignation, worthy of a great philosopher. The loss neither broke his spirit, nor hindered the course of his studies. He supplied the defect by constant meditation: whereby he prepared a large quantity of materials, and began to dictate his *own conceptions*; when, wasting away by de-

grees, he expired at Arcetti near Florence Jan. 1642, N. S. aged 78. Among various inventions of which Galileo was the author that of the simple pendulum, which he had in use of in his astronomical experiments. He wrote a great number of treatises, several of which were published in a collection by Signor Mendel under the title of *L'opera di Galilei Galileo*. Some of these, with others of his pieces, translated into English and published by T. Salisbury, Esq; in his mathematical collection &c. in two volumes folio. A volume also of letters to several learned men, and solutions of several problems, were printed at Bologna. Besides these, he wrote many others, which were unfortunately lost through his wife's superstition, who, solicited by her confessor, gave him leave to peruse her husband's MSS. of which he took away as many as he thought not fit to be published.

(2.) **GALILEO**, Vincenzo, the son of the preceding, was also an eminent mathematician, is famous for improving his father's discovery of the pendulum, by applying it to clocks. He made the experiment at Venice in 1649; and Mr. Huyghens afterwards carried the invention to perfection.

GALINACEUS LAPIS. See **GALLINACEUS**.

GALINGEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natagen; 4 miles S. of Bartenstein.

GALINHAS, a river of Africa, which rises in the country of Hondo, and runs into the Atlantic 33 miles from Scherbro.

* **GALLOT**. *n. f.* [*galiette*, French.] A small galley or sort of brigantine, built very light, and fit for chase. It carries but one mast, and has three patereroes. It can both sail and row, and has 16 or 20 seats for the rowers, with a man to each oar. *Dist.*—Barbarossa sent a fleet of notable pyrates with thirty *gallots*, who, with their men, were valiantly encountered, and defeated again to their *gallots*. *Knolles's Hist.*

GALIPAGO ISLES, several uninhabited islands in the South Sea, on both sides of the equator, near Terra Firma, belonging to Spain. Longitude between 83. 40. and 89. 30. W. Lat. from 3° to 10° N.

GALISTEO, a town of Spain, in the province of Extremadura, 10 miles E. of Coria.

(1.) **GALITSCH**, a town of Russia, in the province of Kostrom, 56 miles ENE. of Kostrom. Longitude 60° 15' E. of Ferro. Lat. 57. 56. N.

(2.) **GALITSCH**, a large lake of Russia, 50 miles S. of Kostrom, and 30 miles in circumference.

GALIUM, in botany, a genus of the myrtus order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 47th order, *Stellatæ*. The corolla is tubular and plain; and there are two rows of seeds. There are many species; of which the most remarkable are the following:

1. **GALIUM APERINE**, **CLIVERS**, or **GALIA**, GRASS, has a square, very rough, jointed, weak stem, 2, 3, or 4 feet long, and adscive branches are opposite; the joints hairy at the top, the leaves, consisting of 8 or 10 at each joint, narrow, pointed, above rough, beneath smooth and carinated: the seeds are rough; flowers small, few, on slender foot-stalks on the top of the branches. It is common in fields by the

, &c. The expressed juice of this plant externally, and the bruised leaves applied in poultice, are said to have been used as a cure for the cancer. The effects, though sure, the course, it is said, requires to be continued for 9 or 10 months. *LUM VERUM*, the *YELLOW LADY'S* W, has a firm, erect, brown, square, leaves generally 8 in each whirl, linear, pinnate, and often reflex; branches short, two from each joint, terminating in small yellow flowers. It grows on dry ground, and on road sides. The magulate boiling milk; and the best beefsteak is said to be prepared with them. We prescribe them in hysteric and epileptic.

Boiled in alum water, they tinge wool. The roots dye a red not inferior to madder, for which purpose they are used in the island. In the *Edinburgh Medical Commentaries* accounts of some violent scorbutic complaints cured by the juice of this plant. Goats eat the plant; horses and swine cows are not fond of it.

GALL. *n. f.* [*goala*, Saxon; *galle*, Fr.]. The bile, an animal juice remarkable for its bitter taste.

Give to my woman's breast,
Like my milk for gall, you murdering
Ministers!

My tongue, a heart of gall,
For spring, but sorrow's fall.

Reason informs us of a vulgar error, that gall is bitter, as their proverb implies it to be; whereas there's nothing sweeter; and what is most unctuous must be of a sweet savour. *Harvey*.—Gall is the best resolvent of curdled milk; Boerhaave

at a time one drop of the gall of an eel cured a scurvy. *Arbut.* 2. The part which contains the gall.

—The married couple, as a testimony of concord, did cast the gall of the sacrifice on the altar. *Brown*. 3. Any thing bitter.

Neither write, my queen,
With mine eyes I'll drink the words you
Send.

Let ink be made of gall. *Sbak. Cymb.*
Poison be their drink.

Worse than gall, the daintiest meat they
Eat!

Still insults, and you must still adore;
That the honey's much, the gall is more.

Dryd. Juv.
Or; malignity.—They did great hurt
To the people. *Spenser on Ireland*. 5. Anger;
Of mind.—

—Your hero were a lover,
As he before had gall and rage;
Was dispirited and low,
As the fight, and shuns the blow. *Prior*.
It hurt by fretting off the skin. [From
—This is the fatalest wound; as much
As the former, as a gangrene is to a gall
Of the tongue. 7. [From *galla*.]
Gallnuts are preternatural and acciden-
tal, produced on trees; but those of the

oak only are used in medicine. We have Oriental and European galls: the Oriental are brought from Aleppo, of the bigness of a large nutmeg, with tubercles on their surface, of a very firm texture, and a disagreeable, acerb, and astringent taste. The European galls are of the same size, with perfectly smooth surfaces: they are light, often spongy, and cavernous within, and always of a lax texture. They have a less austere taste, and are of much less value than the first sort. The general history of galls is this: An insect of the fly kind wounds the branches of the trees, and in the hole deposits her egg: the lacerated vessels of the tree, discharging their contents, form a tumour or woody case about the hole, where the egg is thus defended from all injuries. This tumour also serves for the food of the tender maggot, produced from the egg, which, as soon as it is in its winged state, gnaws its way out, as appears from the hole found in the gall; and where no hole is seen, the maggot, or its remains, are sure to be found within. It has been observed, that the oak does not produce galls in cold countries; but this observation should be confined to the medicinal galls; for all those excrescences which we call oak-apples, oak-grapes, and oak-cones, are true galls, though less firm in their texture. *Hill*.—Besides the acorns, the oak beareth galls, oak-apples, and oak-nuts. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Malpighi, in his treatise of galls, under which name he comprehends all preternatural and morbose excrescences, demonstrates that all such excrescences, where any insects are found, are excited by some venenose liquor, which, together with their eggs, such insects shed. *Ray on Creation*.—The Aleppo galls, wherewith we make ink, are no other than cases of insects, which are bred in them. *Derham*.

(2.) **GALL**, in the animal economy, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See BILE, § 1, and ANATOMY, § 300. Gall was generally given amongst the Jews to persons suffering death under the execution of the law, to make them less sensible of their pain; but gall and myrrh are supposed to have been the same thing; because at our Saviour's crucifixion, St Matthew says, they gave him vinegar to drink mingled with gall; whereas St Mark calls it wine mingled with myrrh. Perhaps they distinguished every thing bitter by the name of gall. The Greeks and Romans also gave such a mixture to persons suffering a death of torture. Many experiments have been made upon the gall of different animals, but few conclusions can be drawn from them with any certainty; as there must always be a considerable difference between the effects of acids, or other menstria, upon dead matter, and in the living system. Dr Percival, however, hath shown, that putrid bile may be perfectly corrected and sweetened by an admixture of the vegetable acids, vinegar, and juice of lemons. These, he observes, have this effect much more completely than the mineral ones; and hence, he thinks, arises the great usefulness of the vegetable acids in autumnal diseases; which are always attended with a putrescent disposition of the bile, owing to the heat of the preceding summer. He takes notice of a common mistake among physicians, who frequently prescribe elixir

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(2.) **GALL**, in the animal economy, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) See BILE, § 1, and ANATOMY, § 300. Gall was generally given amongst the Jews to persons suffering death under the execution of the law, to make them less sensible of their pain; but gall and myrrh are supposed to have been the same thing; because at our Saviour's crucifixion, St Matthew says, they gave him vinegar to drink mingled with gall; whereas St Mark calls it wine mingled with myrrh. Perhaps they distinguished every thing bitter by the name of gall. The Greeks and Romans also gave such a mixture to persons suffering a death of torture. Many experiments have been made upon the gall of different animals, but few conclusions can be drawn from them with any certainty; as there must always be a considerable difference between the effects of acids, or other menstria, upon dead matter, and in the living system. Dr Percival, however, hath shown, that putrid bile may be perfectly corrected and sweetened by an admixture of the vegetable acids, vinegar, and juice of lemons. These, he observes, have this effect much more completely than the mineral ones; and hence, he thinks, arises the great usefulness of the vegetable acids in autumnal diseases; which are always attended with a putrescent disposition of the bile, owing to the heat of the preceding summer. He takes notice of a common mistake among physicians, who frequently prescribe elixir

of gallnuts are preternatural and accidental, produced on trees; but those of the

oak only are used in medicine. We have Oriental and European galls: the Oriental are brought from Aleppo, of the bigness of a large nutmeg, with tubercles on their surface, of a very firm texture, and a disagreeable, acerb, and astringent taste. The European galls are of the same size, with perfectly smooth surfaces: they are light, often spongy, and cavernous within, and always of a lax texture. They have a less austere taste, and are of much less value than the first sort. The general history of galls is this: An insect of the fly kind wounds the branches of the trees, and in the hole deposits her egg: the lacerated vessels of the tree, discharging their contents, form a tumour or woody case about the hole, where the egg is thus defended from all injuries. This tumour also serves for the food of the tender maggot, produced from the egg, which, as soon as it is in its winged state, gnaws its way out, as appears from the hole found in the gall; and where no hole is seen, the maggot, or its remains, are sure to be found within. It has been observed, that the oak does not produce galls in cold countries; but this observation should be confined to the medicinal galls; for all those excrescences which we call oak-apples, oak-grapes, and oak-cones, are true galls, though less firm in their texture. *Hill*.—Besides the acorns, the oak beareth galls, oak-apples, and oak-nuts. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Malpighi, in his treatise of galls, under which name he comprehends all preternatural and morbose excrescences, demonstrates that all such excrescences, where any insects are found, are excited by some venenose liquor, which, together with their eggs, such insects shed. *Ray on Creation*.—The Aleppo galls, wherewith we make ink, are no other than cases of insects, which are bred in them. *Derham*.

of vitriol in those juice would be more effect of acids on see why the immo-ous to dis- tion gall should be it but as acids have perfectly mild and for they must be proportion-ably pernicious to the due concoction and assimilation of the food - which without an acid bile cannot be accom- d. Hence the body is deprived of its p- nourishment and support, the blood becomes rapid and watery, and a fatal cachexy unavoidably ensues. This has been the case with many unfortunate persons, who, in order to reduce their excessive corpulency, have indulged themselves in the too free use of vinegar. From the mild state of the gall in young children, Dr Percival also thinks it is, that they are so much troubled with acidities.

(3.) GALL, in natural history, (§ 1. def. 7.) denotes any protuberance, or tumour, produced by the puncture of insect, on plants and trees of different kinds. These galls are of various forms and sizes, and no less different with regard to their internal structure. Some have only one cavity, and others a number of small cells communicating with each other. Some of them are as hard as the wood of the tree they grow on, whilst others are soft and spongy; the first being termed *gall-nuts*, and the latter *berry galls*, or *apple-galls*. See CYNIPS. The external coat of the excreescence described above (§ 1. def. 7.) is dried by the air; and grows into a figure which bears some resemblance to the bow of an arch, or the roundness of a kernel. This little ball receives its nutriment, growth, and vegetation, as the other parts of the tree, by slow degrees, and is called the *gall-nut*. The worm, that is hatched under this spacious vault, finds in the substance of the ball, which is as yet very tender, a nourishment suitable to its nature; gnaws and digests it till the time of its transformation to a nymph, and from that state soon changes into a fly. After this, the insect disengages itself from its confinement, and takes its flight into the open air. The case, however, is different with respect to the *gall-nut* that grows in autumn. The cold weather frequently comes on before the worm is transformed into a fly, or before the fly can pierce through its inclosure. The nut falls with the leaves; but although it might now be supposed that the fly within is lost, yet in fact its being covered up so close is the means of its preservation. Thus it spends the winter in a warm house, where every crack and cranny of the nut is well stopped up; and lies buried under a heap of leaves, which preserve it from the injuries of the weather. This apartment, however, though so commodious a retreat in winter, is a prison in spring. The fly, routed out of its lethargy by the vernal heat, breaks its way through, and ranges where it pleases. A very small aperture is sufficient, as at this time the fly is but a diminutive creature. Besides, the rugnets whereof its body is composed - and become pliant in the passage. A very tiny of oak galls, put into a solution of water, though but very weak, gives it

a purple or violet colour: which, stronger, becomes black; and on it depends the art of making our writing the arts of dying and dressing leather manufactures. See INK. The best from Aleppo: these are not quite smooth like the other sorts, but tubercles on the surface. Galls have a styptic taste, without any smell; strong astringents, and as such have times made use of both internally and but are not much taken notice of in practice. Some recommend an ointment of galls and hog's lard as very effectual in painful states of hæmorrhoids; and that the internal use of galls has cures tents after the Peruvian bark has failed of galls with a bitter and aromatic has poised as a substitute for the bark.

(4.) GALL, ST, or ST GALLEN, a town in Switzerland, in the Upper Th a rich and celebrated abbey, whose ab- lar prince of the German empire, and the 72 Benedictines who compose He formerly possessed the sovereignty but the inhabitants shook off his au became independent; and the vari which since that period have arisen two rival parties have been compromi- terposition of their allies, the Swiss; town is entirely Protestant, and ment aristo-democratical. The sub- abbot, whose territory is distinct, ar- tholies. The abbey, in which this p is situated close to the town, and in its territory; as the latter is also entire- ed by the possessions of the prince. owes its flourishing state to the ur- dustry of the inhabitants, and to a v- commerce, arising chiefly from its man- huen, muslin, and embroidery. To l- lunging to the abbey, which is very n- well arranged, and which contains- of the classic writers, we are indebted- nus Arbiter, Silius Italicus, Valerius- Quantilian, copies of which were f- 1413. St Gallen is seated in a nar- valley, between two mountains; small streams, 37 miles NE. of Zi- 9. 22. E. Lat. 47. 26 N.

(1.) * To GALL. v. n. { *galer*, -Fret
hurt by fretting the skin.—

I'll touch my point

With this contagion, that, if I gall h
It may be death.

His yoke is easy, when by us en
But loads and galls, if on our neck

—A carrier, when he would think
for his *galled* horse, begins with c:
upon all things. *Locke* —

On the monarch's speech Achill
And furious thus, and interrupting
Tyrant, I well deserv'd thy *galling*
2. To impair; to wear away.—

He doth object, I am too great
And that my state being *gall'd* with
I seek to heal it only by his wealth

ould fall down in a continual stream like it would *gall* the ground, wash away the roots, and overthrow houses. *Ray.* *aze*; to fret; to vex.—In honour of that and to *gall* their minds who did not so commend it, he wrote his book. *Hooker.*—They seem contented with, even for that we reject; and there is nothing but it is the better, if we spy that it *gall*eth water.—

When I shew justice,
tho' I do not know;

a dismiss'd offence would after *gall*.

Shakespeare.

Studies here I solemnly defy,
Now to *gall* and pinch this Holingbroke.

Shak. Henry IV.

an commits any sin but his conscience him, and his guilty mind is frequently with the remembrance of it. *Tillotson.* *arais*; to mischief; to keep in a state of it.—The Helots had gotten new heart, and divers sorts of shot from corners of old house-windows *galled* them. *Sidney.*—At demilances from afar they throw,

'd with leathern thongs, to *gall* the foe. *Æs.* wars against the French of old, we used them with our long bows, at a greater than they could shoot their arrows. *Addis.* * *GALL. v. n.* To fret.—I have seen king and *galling* at this gentleman twice. *Shak.*

ALLA, a nation of Ethiopia, originally, as Mr Bruce supposes, under the line, using the profession of shepherds, which continue to do. For many years, they have been constantly migrating north-

though the cause of this migration is not. At first they had no horses; the reason was, that the country they came from knew these animals to breed; but as they went northward and conquered some of the provinces, they soon furnished themselves with such numbers, that they are now entirely cavalry, and make little account of them in their armies. On advancing to the north of Abyssinia, the multitude divided, and followed their course towards the Indian Ocean, after which, having made a settlement in the north part of the continent, they turned into the countries of Bali and Dawaw, and were entirely conquered, and settled there.

Another division having taken a westerly course, spread themselves in a semicircle along the banks of the Nile; surrounding the country, and passing eastward behind the country of the Nubians, extended their possessions as far as the banks of the Gongas and Gasats. Since the Nile has been the boundary of their empire; though they have frequently plundered, and sometimes conquered, the Abyssinian empire on the other side of the river, but have made no permanent settlement in these parts. The third division has settled to the S. of the country of Shoa, which the governor of that country has permitted, in order to form a barrier between him and the territories of the empire, whom he scarcely acknowledges any de-

pendence. The Galla are of a brown complexion, and have long black hair; but some of them who live in the valleys are entirely black. At first their common food was milk and butter; but since their intercourse with the Abyssinians, they have learned to plough and sow their land, and to make bread. They seem to have a predilection for the number 7, as each of the three divisions already mentioned are subdivided into seven tribes. In their behaviour they are extremely barbarous; and live in continual war with the Abyssinians, whom they murder without mercy as often as they fall into their hands. They cut off the privities of the men, and hang them up in their houses by way of trophies; and are so cruel as to rip up women with child, in hopes of thus destroying a male. Yet notwithstanding their excessive cruelty abroad, they live under the strictest discipline at home; and every broil or quarrel is instantly punished according to the nature of the offence. Each of the three divisions of the Galla has a king of its own; and they have also a kind of nobility, from among whom the sovereign can only be chosen: however, the commonalty are not excluded from rising to the rank of nobles, if they distinguish themselves very much in battle. None of the nobility can be elected till upwards of 40 years of age, unless he has with his own hand killed such a number of enemies, as added to his own age makes 40. There is a council of each of the 7 tribes, which meets separately in its own district, to settle how many are to be left behind for governing and cultivating the territory, and other matters of importance. These nations have all a great veneration for a tree which grows plentifully in their country, called *wanzey*, and which these superstitious people are even said to adore as a god. Their assemblies for the choice of a king are held under one of these trees; and when the sovereign is chosen, they put a bludgeon of this wood in his hand by way of sceptre, and a garland of the flowers upon his head. The Galla are reported to be very good soldiers, especially in cases of surprise; but, like most other barbarians, have no constancy nor perseverance after the first attack. They will, however, perform extraordinary marches, swimming rivers holding by the horse's tail, and are thus enabled to do very great mischief by the rapidity of their movements. They are excellent light horse for a regular army in an hostile country; but are very indifferently armed on account of the scarcity of iron among them. Their principal arms are lances made of wood sharpened at the end and hardened in the fire; and their shields are composed only of one single fold of bull's hide; so that they are extremely apt to warp by heat, or become too soft in wet weather. They are exceedingly cruel; and make a thrill horrid noise at the beginning of every engagement, which greatly terrifies the horses, and very often the barbarous riders which oppose them. The Galla are somewhat below the middle size, but extremely light and nimble. The women are fruitful; and suffer so little in child-bearing, that they do not even confine themselves for a single day after delivery. They plough, sow, and reap the corn, which is trodden out by the cattle; but the men have all the

the cattle in the fields. In their customs, filthy to the last degree; plaiting their round the guts of oxen, which they likewise round their middle, and which by the quick effect on occasion an abominable stench. They anoint their heads and whole bodies with grease; in which, as well as in other respects, they greatly resemble the Hottentots. It has been supposed that they have no religion whatever; but Mr Bruce is of opinion that this is a mistake. The wanzey, he says, is undoubtedly worshipped by all the three nations as a god; and they have likewise certain stones which are worshipped as gods. They also worship the moon, and some stars, when in certain positions, and at some particular seasons of the year. They all believe in a resurrection; and have some faint notions of a state of happiness, but no idea of future punishment. Some of them to the S. profess the Mahometan religion, but those to the E. and W. are generally pagans. They all intermarry with each other; but will not allow strangers to live among them, though the Moors have found out a method of trading safely with them. The commodities they deal in are blue Surat cloths, myrrh, and salt; the last being the most valuable article. The marriages among the Galla are celebrated with some of the disgusting customs of the Hottentots; and after these ceremonies the bridegroom promises to give the bride meat and drink while she lives, and to bury her when dead. Polygamy is allowed among them; the women solicit their husbands to take others to their embraces, that they may have numerous families of children, who may be capable of defending them against their enemies; as the Galla, according to Mr Bruce always fight in families, whether against foreign enemies or with one another.

(1.) GALLA, a town of Arabia, 24 miles SE. of Tadm.

(2.) GALLA, a town in Ceylon. See GALLU.

(3.) GALLAM, a kingdom of Africa.

(4.) GALLAM, the capital of the above kingdom, is seated on the Senegal. Lon. 9. 55. W. Lat. 14. 25. N.

(5.) GALLAN, or St GALLAN, an island of Peru.

GALLAND, Anthony, a learned antiquarian, member of the Academy of inscriptions, and professor of Arabic in the Royal College of Paris, was born of poor parents at Rollo, in Picardy. Having studied at the Sorbonne and other universities, he travelled into the east; where he acquired great skill in the Arabic tongue, and in the manners of the Mahometans. He wrote several works; the principal of which are, 1. An Account of the Death of the Sultan Osman, and the Coronation of the Sultan Mustapha. 2. A Collection of Maxims, drawn from the works of the Orientals. 3. A Treatise on the Origin of Coffee; and 4. he translated The Arabian Nights Entertainments.

(1.) * GALLANT. *adj.* [*galant*, French, *gala*, fine dress, Spanish.] 1. Gay; well dressed; showy; splendid; magnificent.—A place of broad rivers, wherein shall go no gally with oars, neither shall gallant ships pass thereby. *If.* xxxiii. 22.

The gay, the wife, the gallant, and the grave, Subdu'd alike, all but one passion have. *Walker.* 2. Brave; high spirited; daring; magnanimous.

—Scorn, that any should kill his uncle, & seek his revenge in manner gallant enough! But, fare thee well, thou art a gallant.

—A gallant man, whose thoughts fly at every game, requires no further insight. *D.* Fine; noble; spacious.—

There are no tricks in plain and simple; But hollow men, like horses hot at hand, Make gallant shew and promise of the

4. Courty with respect to ladies.—He did how gallant and how brave a thing it was for his highness to make a journey into Sicily to fetch home his mistress. *Clarendon.*—

When first the soul of love is sent abroad, The gay troops begin In gallant thought to plume their pains.

(2.) * GALLANT. *n. f.* [from the *a.* 1. A gay, sprightly, airy, splendid man. The new proclamation.

—What is't for? —The reformation of travel'd gallants That fill the court with quarrels, talk and lous.

—The gallants and lusty youths of Naples offered themselves unto Vassius. *Kn.* The gallants, to protect the lady's Their fauchions brandish'd at the grill.

Gallants, look to't, you say they are sprightly. But I'll come dance about your beds.

5. A whoremaster, who caresses women and bauch them.—One, worn to pieces, shews himself a young gallant. *Shak.*—left the good-man at home, and brought her gallant. *Spektator.* 3. A wooer; courts a woman for marriage. In the senses it has commonly the accent on syllable.

(3.) GALLANT, in geography, a town, 3 miles SSW. of Serat.

* GALLANTLY. *adv.* [from *gall* Gayly; splendidly. 1. Bravely; nobly. —You have not dealt so gallantly as we did with you in a parallel case: li paper was brought here from England, ordered to be burnt by the common *Swiss.*

* GALLANTRY. *n. f.* [*galanterie*, 1. Splendour of appearance; show; magnificent grandeur; ostentatious finery.

Make the sea shine with gallantry. The English youth flock to their admirer. 2. Bravery; nobleness; generosity.—nence of your condition, and the gallant principles, will invite gentlemen to the sunobling study of nature. *Glanville's S.* A number of gallants.—Hector, Deiphobus all the gallantry of Troy, I would have day. *Shak.* 4. Courtship; refined address.—

The martial Moors in gallantry ref Invent new arts to make their charms

love; lewdness; debauchery.—It looks of compounding between virtue and a woman were allowed to be vicious, he be not a profligate; as if there were joint where gallantry ends, and infamy vists.

ARATO, a town of the Cisalpine republic department of Olone, and late duchy 20 miles WNW. of Milan.

ARDON, a town of France, in the dept. of Eure and Loire, 12 miles W. of and 4 NE. of Chartres.

BLADDER. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

ALLE, the name of several engravers, of principal was Cornelius, who flourished 1600. He learned the art of engraving at Rome, and imitated his stiff style, till he came, where he resided a considerable time, there acquired that freedom, taste, and skill of drawing which are found in his best works. He settled at Antwerp upon his return, where he carried on a considerable business in prints. His best prints are those done there.

ALLE, or **PORT GALLE**, a sea-port town on the SW. coast of Ceylon. It was taken from the Portuguese in 1640; and by the British in Feb. 1796. See **CEYLON**. It is 98 miles S. of Candy. Lon. 80. 20. E. Lat. 6. 0. N.

GALEAS. *n. f.* [*galcas*, French.] A heavy vessel, with both sails and oars. It carries many masts, but they cannot be lowered, as in a galley. It has thirty-two seats for rowers, and seven slaves to each. To carry three masts at the head, and at the stern there are many of guns. *Diff.*—The Venetians pretend to set out, in case of great necessity, thirty galley war, a hundred galleys, and ten galleys on Italy.—

My father hath no less three great argosies, besides two galleasses, and twelve tight gallies. *Shak.*

ALLEGRO, a river of Spain, which rises in the mountains, and runs into the Ebro opposite.

ALLEGRO, a town of Spain, in the prov. of 18 miles SSE. of Salamanca.

ALMBERG, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, 10 miles E. of Laubach.

ALNEK, a town of Germany, in Carniola, 10 miles SE. of Stein.

ALNSTADT, a town of Germany in Styria, 10 miles W. of Reiffing.

GALLEON. *n. f.* [*galion*, Fr.] A large ship of 4 or sometimes 5 decks, now in use only by the Spaniards.—I assured them that I would stay for them at Trinidad, and that no wind could drive me thence, except I were sunk by the Spanish galleons. *Raleigh.*—The number of vessels were 130, whereof galleasses 72, goodly ships, like floating tow-ers. *Bacon's War with Spain.*

GALLEONS are employed in the Spanish India trade. The Spaniards send annually 2; the one for Mexico, which they call the *flota*; and the other for Peru, which they call the *flota*. See **FLOTA**, N° 1. By a general law made in Spain, it has been established,

that there should be 12 men of war and 5 tenders annually fitted out for the armada or galleons; 8 ships of 600 tons burden each, and 3 tenders, one of 100 tons, for the island Margarita, and two of 80 each, to follow the armada; for the New Spain fleet, two ships of 600 tons each, and two tenders of 80 each; and for the Honduras fleet, two ships of 500 tons each: and in case no fleet happened to sail any year, 3 galleons and a tender should be sent to New Spain for the plate. They sail from Cadiz in January, that they may arrive at Porto Bello in April; where, the fair being over, they may take aboard the plate, and be at Havannah with it about the middle of June; where they are joined by the flota that they may return to Spain with the greater safety.

GALLEOT. See **GALLOT**. All the seamen on board a galleot are soldiers, and each has a musket by him.

(1.) * **GALLERY**. *n. f.* [*galerie*, French; derived by *Du Cange* from *galeria*, low Latin, a fine room.] 1. A kind of walk along the floor of a house, into which the doors of the apartments open; in general, any building of which the length much exceeds the breadth.—In most part there had been framed by art such pleasant arbors, that, one with another, they became a gallery aloft from tree to tree, almost round about, which below gave a perfect shadow. *Sidney.*—

High lifted up were many lofty towers,
And goodly galleries fair overlaid. *Spenser.*
Your gallery

Have we pass'd through, not without much content. *Shak.*
—The row of return on the banquet side, let it be all stately galleries, in which galleries let there be three cupolas. *Bacon.*

A private gallery 'twixt th' apartments led,
Not to the foe yet known. *Denham.*

—Nor is the shape of our cathedrals proper for our preaching auditories, but rather the figure of an amphitheatre, with galleries gradually overlooking each other; for into this condition the parish churches of London are driving apace, as appears by the many galleries every day built in them. *Graunt.*

—There are covered galleries that lead from the palace to five different churches. *Addison on Italy.*
2. The seats in the playhouse above the pit, in which the meaner people sit.—

While all its throats the gallery extends,
And all the thunder of the pit ascends. *Pope.*

(2.) **GALLERY**, in gardening, an ornament made with trees of different kinds. Galleries are very common in the French gardens, but are seldom introduced into the British ones, especially since the taste for clipped trees has been exploded. For those, however, who may still choose to have them, Mr Miller gives the following directions. In order to make a gallery in a garden with porticoes and arches, a line must first be drawn of the length you design the gallery to be; which being done, it is to be planted with hornbeam; as the foundation of the gallery. The management of galleries is not difficult. They require only to be digged round about; and sheared a little when there is occasion. The chief curiosity is in the ordering the fore part of the gallery, and in forming the arches.

ches. Each pillar of the porticoes or arches ought to be 4 feet distant from one another, and the gallery 12 feet high and 10 feet wide, that there may be room for 2 or 3 persons to walk abreast. When the hornbeams are grown to the height of 3 feet, the distance of the pillars well regulated, and the ground work of the gallery finished, the next thing to be done is to form the frontispiece; to perform which, you must stop the hornbeams between two pillars for that purpose, which forms the arch. As it grows, cut off those boughs which outshoot the others. In time they will grow strong, and may be kept in form by the sheers. Portico galleries may be covered with lime trees.

(3.) GALLERY, in a ship, that beautiful frame, which is made in the form of a balcony, at the stern of a ship without board; into which there is a passage out of the admiral's or captain's cabin, and is designed for the ornament of the ship.

(4.) GALLERY, in fortification, a covered walk across the ditch of a town, made of strong beams covered with planks, and loaded with earth: sometimes it is covered with raw hides, to defend it from the artificial fires of the besieged.

(5.) GALLERY OF A MINE is a narrow passage or branch of a mine carried on under ground to a work designed to be blown up. See MINE.

GALLESE, a town of Italy in the province of Patrimonio, 25 miles N. of Rome.

* GALLETYLE. *n. f.* I suppose this word has the same import with *gallipot*.—Make a compound body of glass and *gallestyle*; that is, to have the colour milky like a chalcedon, being a stuff between a porcelain and a glass. *Bacon*.

(1.) * GALLEY. *n. f.* [*galea*, Ital. *galere*, Fr. derived, as some think, from *galea*, a helmet, pictured anciently on the prow; as others from *γαλῆρας*, the swordfish; as others from *galleon*, expressing in Syriac men exposed to the sea. From *galley* come *galleassi*, *galleon*, *galios*; 1. A vessel driven with oars, much in use in the Mediterranean, but found unable to endure the agitation of the main ocean.—

Great Neptune grieved underneath the load
Of ships, hulks, *galles*, barks, and brigandines.

Fairfax.

—In the ages following, navigation did every where greatly decay, by the use of *galles*, and such vessels as could hardly brook the ocean. *Bacon's New Atlantis*.—Jason ranged the coasts of Asia the Less in an open boat, or kind of *galley*. *Raleigh's History*.—

On oozy ground his *galles* moor;

Their heads are turn'd to sea, their stems to shore.

Dryden.

2. It is proverbially considered as a place of toil-some misery, because criminals are condemned to row in them.—The most voluptuous person, were he tied to follow his hawks and his hounds, his dice and his courtships every day, would find it the greatest torment that could befall him: he would fly to the mines and the *galles* for his recreation, and to the spade and the mattock for a diversion from the misery of a continual uninterrupted pleasure. *South*.

(2.) GALLEYS are low flat-built vessels, furnished with one deck, and navigated with sails and oars. The largest sort are employed only by

the Venetians. They are commonly 161 feet above, and 133 feet by the keel: 31 feet 3 with 23 feet length of stern post. They are furnished with three masts, and 31 banks of oars, every bank containing two oars and every oar managed by 6 or 7 seven slaves, who are usually chained thereto. In the fore part they have 3 little batteries of cannon, of which the lower of two 16 pounders, the 2d of two 24 pounders and the uppermost of 2 two-pounders: the 31 pounders are also planted on each quarter, complement of men for one of these galleys 1000 or 1200. They are esteemed very competent for bombarding or making a descent upon an enemy's coast, as drawing but little water, having by their oars frequently the advantage of a ship of war, in light winds or calms, by reaching the latter near the surface of the sea, by scouring her whole length with their shot at the same time keeping on her quarter on so as to be out of the direction of her cannon. The galleys next in size to these, which are called *half galleys*, are from 120 to 130 feet 18 feet broad, and 9 or 10 feet deep. They have two masts, which may be struck at pleasure, are furnished with two large lateen sails, and pieces of cannon. They have commonly 21 of oars. A size still less than these are called *petty galleys*, carrying from 12 to 16 banks of oars. There are very few galleys now besides those in the Mediterranean, which are found by experience to be of little utility except in fine weather, a circumstance which renders their service extremely precarious. They generally keep close under shore, but sometimes venture out to sea to form a summer cruise.

GALLEY-HEAD, a promontory of Ireland on the coast of Cork, on the extremity of which is Dundee Castle. This is sometimes fatally taken by sailors, for the Old Head of Kinsale, the light of the latter is not seen. It lies 10 SSW. of Bandon bridge. Lon. 8. 54. W. 51. 31. N.

* GALLEY-SLAVE. *n. f.* [*galley* and *slave*] a man condemned for some crime to row in the galley.—As if one chain were not sufficient to poor men, he must be clogged with innumerable chains: this is just such another freedom as Turkish *galley-slaves* do enjoy. *Bramble*.—Heed *galley-slaves* despise manumission. *Dec. of*

The turges gently dash against the shore
Flocks quit the plains, and *galley-slaves* their

Galley

GALLEY-WORM, in zoology. See LULUS.

GALL-FLY, in entomology. See CYNIPID.

(1.) GALLI, in antiquity, a name given to priests of Cybele, from the river Gallus in Phrygia; but of the etymology of the name we have no certain account. All that we learn about them is, that they were eunuchs and Phrygians, and in their solemn processions they danced, bare drummed, cut and slashed themselves, played tumblers, pipes, cymbals, &c. and driving asses loaded with the sacred trumpery of the deity. When a young man was to be initiated, he was to throw off his clothes, run crying to the midst of their troop, and there with sword and castrate himself; after this he was

the street with the parts cut off, in his row them into some house, and in the life put on a woman's dress. These priests names also of *Cætes*, *Corybantes*, and The chief priest was called *Archi-Gallus*. Her of priesthood is found both amongst and Romans. See *Lucret.* lib. ii. and *Juv.*

GALLI, the Gauls. See **GALLIA** and

GALLI, five small desolate islands on the the *Principato Citra* of Naples. They used to be the *Syræusæ*, or islands once called by the Sirens, which Ulysses passed with caution and hazard. Great revolutions, have been occasioned in their shape, size, number, by the effects of subterranean fire; learned persons go so far as to assert, the rocks have risen from the bottom of the Homer's time; consequently, that those who dwelt on some other spot, probably *Sic-Capri*. The tradition of Sirens residing there is very ancient and universally admitted what they really were, divested of their and poetical disguise is not easy to discover **SIREN**. The *Syræusæ* were only three in number; and therefore if these and the *Galli* name, two more must have since risen, or they have been split into five by a subterranean convulsion. On the largest is a watch-tower, and the next has a deserted hermitage. The island is only a narrow semicircular ridge with a shallow coat of soil; two other little islands, and some jagged rocks just peeping above the waves, correspond with this one so as to form the outline of a volcanic crater. The composition of them all is at top a calcareous rock extremely shaken, tumbled, and confused, mixed with masses of breccia, disposed in a most irregular manner; below these is lava, and the deeper you follow it the stronger are the marks of how the surface of the water, and in some places above it, the layers are complete blocks of lava. Hence we may presume, that central fire heaved up to light the torrifed substance originally lay near their focus, with all the strata that covered them from the time the layers incline downwards from E. to W. the air seems to have forced its way into the mass while in fusion, and by checking the sintering caused many large caverns to be left in these islands are uncultivated and uninhabited. The old hermit of St Antonio died. Myrrors most of the surface.

GALLIA, in ancient geography, a large country in Europe, called *GALATIA* by the Greeks. The inhabitants were called **GALLI**, *CELTÆ*, *CELTÆ*, and *Celtescythæ*. Ancient Gaul was divided into 4 different parts by the Romans, called *Gallia Belgica*, *Narbonensis*, *Aquitania*, and *Cisalpine*. Though Julius Cæsar divides it only into *Belgica* and *Cisalpine*. Besides these grand divisions there is often made of *Gallia Cisalpina* or *Citerior*, and *Gallia Transalpina* or *Uterior*, which last comprehended the whole of Gaul, properly so called, as possessed by the ancient Gauls. The inhabitants were brave warriors, and overcame the Roman army at the city of Rome, and invaded Greece

in different ages. They spread themselves over the greatest part of the world. They were very superstitious in their religious ceremonies, and revered their priests as if they had been gods. They long maintained bloody wars against the Romans, and Cæsar resided 10 years in their country before he could entirely subdue them. See **GAUL**.

1. **GALLIA AQUITANICA** contained the late provinces of *Poitou*, *Saintonge*, *Guienne*, *Berry*, *Limousin*, *Gascogne*, *Auvergne*, &c. and was situated between the *Garumna*, the *Pyrenean mountains*, and the ocean.

2. **GALLIA BELGICA** was the largest province, bounded by Germany, *Gallia Narbonensis*, and the German ocean; and contained the modern countries of *Alsace*, *Lorraine*, *Picardy*, with part of the *Low Countries*, of *Champagne*, and of the *isle of France*.

3. **GALLIA CELTICA**, or **LUGDUNENSIS**, was bounded by Belgium, *Gallia Narbonensis*, the *Alps*, and the ocean. It contained the countries heretofore known by the names of *Lyonnois*, *Touraine*, *Franche Comté*, *Senenois*, *Switzerland*, and part of *Normandy*. It was also called *Comata*, because the people suffered their hair to grow to an uncommon length.

4. **GALLIA CISALPINA**, or **CITERIOR**. By these names the Romans understood that part of Gaul which lies in Italy, on this side of the *Alps*, in regard to the inhabitants of Rome. They also styled it *Gallia Togata*, because the Roman gowns called *toga* were worn by the people. It is now chiefly comprehended in the **CISALPINE REPUBLIC**.

5. **GALLIA CISPADANA** was applied to a part of Italy conquered by some of the Gauls; and meant the country on this side of the *Po*, with respect to Rome. See **CISPADANA**.

6. **GALLIA NARBONENSIS**, which contained the provinces lately called *Languedoc*, *Provence*, *Dauphiné*, and *Savoy*, was bounded by the *Alps* and *Pyrenean mountains*, by *Aquitania*, Belgium, and the *Mediterranean*. *Gallia Narbonensis* was called *Braccata*, on account of the peculiar covering of the inhabitants for their thighs.

7. **GALLIA TRANSALPINA**, or **ULTERIOR**, was the name given by the Romans to that part of Gaul, which lay beyond the *Alps*, in regard to Rome.

8. **GALLIA TRANSPADANA**, was the name given to that part of Italy, conquered by the Gauls, which lay beyond the *Po*, in respect of Rome.

GALLIANO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of *Montagna*, and ci-devant duchy of *Milan*, 6 miles SSE. of *Como*.

(1.) * **GALLIARD**. *n. f.* [*gaillard*, French; imagined to be derived from the Gaulish *ard*, genius; and *gay*.] 1. A gay, brisk, lively man; a fine fellow.—

Selden is a galliard by himself. *Cleaveland*.
2. An active, nimble, spritely dance. It is in both senses now obsolete.—I did think, by the excellent constitution of thy leg, it was form'd under the star of a galliard. *Shakespeare's Twelfth Night*.—

There's nought in France
That can be with a nimble galliard won:
You cannot revel into dukedoms there. *Sh. H. V.*
—If there be any that would take up all the time,
let him find means to take them off, and bring o-

thers

use to do with those that
Bacon.—The triplas and
 re an agreement with the
 in; when *galliard* time and
 in the medley of one dance. *Bacon*.
 * *GALLIARDA*, (*g* 1, *def* 2.)
 iently in great request, con-
 motions and actions, some-
 times along the room,
 and sometimes along the room.
 It was also called *Roman-
 esque*, because brought from Rome. *Thomas Ar-
 beau*, in his *Orchesography*, describes it as con-
 sisting of 5 steps and 5 positions of the feet, which
 the dancers performed before each other, and
 whereof he gives us the score or tablature, which
 is of six minims and two triple times.

GALLIARDA, in the Italian music, a tune
 that belongs to the dance, called *GALLIARD*. The
 air of it is lively in triple time.

* *GALLIARDISE*. *n. f.* [French.] Merriment;
 exuberant gaiety. Not in use.—At my nativity
 my ascendant was the watery sign of Scorpius; I
 was born in the planetary hour of Saturn, and I
 think I have a piece of that leaden planet in me:
 I am no way facetious, nor disposed for the mirth
 and *galliardise* of company. *Brown's Rel. Med.*

GALLIC, or } *adj.* belonging to, or origina-
GALLICAN, } ting from France.

* *GALLICISM*. *n. f.* [*gallicisme*, French; from
gallicus, Latin.] A mode of speech peculiar to the
 French language: such as, he *figured* in contro-
 versy; he *beld* this conduct; he *beld* the same lan-
 guage that another had *beld* before: with many
 other expressions to be found in the pages of *Be-
 dingbroke*.—In English I would have *Gallicisms* a
 voided, that we may keep to our own language,
 and not follow the French mode in our speech.
Pelton on the Classes.

GALLICO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ul-
 tra, 5 miles N. of Reggio.

* *GALLIGASKINS*. *n. f.* [*Galige Gallo-Vas-
 conum*. *Skinner*.] Large open hose. Not used but
 in ludicrous language.—

My galligaskins, that have long withstood
 The Winter's fury, and encroaching frosts,
 By time subdu'd, what will not time subdue,
 An horrid chasm disclose. *Philips.*

* *GALLIMATIA*. *n. f.* [*galimatias*, French.]
 Nonsense; talk without meaning.

* *GALLIMAUFTRY*. *n. f.* [*galimaufree*, Fr.]
 1. A hoch-poch, or haph of several sorts of broken
 meat; a medley. *Hanmer*.—They have made of
 our English tongue a *gallimauftry*, or hodge podge
 of all other speeches. *Spenser*. 2. Any inconsis-
 tent or ridiculous medley.—They have a dance,
 which the wenches say is a *gallimauftry* of gam-
 bols, because they are not in't. *Shak. Wint. Tale*.
 —The painter who, under pretence of diverting
 the eyes, would fill his picture with such varieties
 as alter the truth of history, would make a ridi-
 culous piece of painting, and a mere *gallimauftry*
 of his work. *Dryd. Duf.* 3. It is used by *Shake-
 speare* ludicrously of a woman.—

Sir John affects thy wife.
 —Why, sir, my wife is not young.
 —He wooes both high and low, both rich and poor;
 loves thy *gallimauftry*, friend. *Shak.*

GALLINACEOUS, *adj.* an appella-
 to the birds of the order of the gallinæ.

GALLINACEUS LAPIS, a glossy sub-
 duced by volcanic fires; the same with
obsidianus of the ancients. A species of it
 from Paris, of a beautiful black, refer
 colour of a large crow, in that coun
gallinago.

GALLINÆ, in ornithology, an order
 See ORNITHOLOGY.

GALLINARA, an island of the L
 public, on the coast of Genoa, 10 mile
 nale. Lon 25. 50. E. of Ferro. Lat 44

(1.) *GALLING*, or EXCORIATION
 cine. See EXCORIATION.

(2.) *GALLING OF A HORSE'S BACK*,
 occasioned by heat, and the chafing of
 the saddle. To prevent it, some take a
 well garnished with hair, and fit it ne
 the pannel of the saddle, so that the
 may be next the horse. When a horse
 galled upon a journey, take out a li
 stuffing of the pannel over the swelling
 a piece of soft white leather on the in
 pannel; anoint the part with salt butte
 ry evening wipe it clean, rubbing it t
 soft, anointing it again with butter, or
 of that, with grease: wash the swellin
 every evening with cold water and
 strew it with salt, which should be left
 horse be saddled in the morning.

GALLINULE. See *FULICA*, N° 3

GALLIO, a district of Maritime And
 the *SETTE COMMUNI*, or seven commu-
 cenza. In 1762, the church and above
 were burnt.

GALLIOPOLIS, or *GALLIPOLIS*, 2
 of the United States, in the North W
 ritory, seated on the Ohio, 140 miles
 lumbia, 300 SW. of Pittsburgh, and 3
 Philadelphia. The inhabitants are shie
 Lon. 83. 9. W. Lat. 39 2. N.

* *GALLIOT*. *n. f.* [*galliotte*, French]
 swift galley.—Barbarossa departing out
 pontus with eighty gallees, and certa
 shaped his course towards Italy. *Knoll*

GALLIPAGO ISLES. See *GALIF*.

(1.) *GALLIPOLI*, a sea port town
 in the province of Otranto, with a b
 It stands on a rocky island, joined to
 nent by a bridge. From the remotest
 this was a station so favourable to come
 every maritime power wished to sec
 nothing has been done to improve its
 vantages. Mr Swinburn informs us,
 ther harbour nor shelter for shipping.
 demolished Gallipoli for its adherence
 rick of Arragon The Venetians treat
 great cruelty in the 15th century; and
 was pillage by the turks. To preserve
 ture calamities, Charles V. repaired an
 ened its fortifications; and from that
 the present war, it has enjoyed the
 peace and trade, which have rendered
 opulent and gayest town upon the coa
 its inhabitants do not exceed 6000 i
 Consumptions and spitting of blood ar
 occasioned by the great subtilty of the

d from every quarter. The buildings are, and some of the churches have good

The cotton trade brings in about cats a year. Silk and saffron were formerly of traffic; but heavy duties and op-
ve caused them to be abandoned. The
od, but from dryness of climate, and
s of soil, the vintage frequently fails.
great support of the place: two thirds
duce of its olive plantations are export-
ce and the north of Italy. Neapolitan
also buy up the oils, from year to year,
e an olive appears upon the tree; and
is afterwards settled by public authori-
11 miles W. of Otranto. Lon. 18. 10.
1. 18. N.

LLIPOLI, a sea port town of European
in the province of Romania, seated at the
the sea of Marmora; with a good har-
a bishop's see. It contains about 10,000
100 Greeks, and a great number of Jews.
is a handsome structure, with domes
ith lead. The town is an open place,
no other defence than a paltry square
he houses of the Greeks and Jews have
above 3½ feet high, to prevent the
m riding into their houses. Lon. 26.
1. 40. 24. N.

IPOLIS. See GALLIOPOLIS.

LIPOF. *n. f.* [*gleye*, Dutch, shining
beer. The true derivation is from *gald*,
inery. *Gala*, or gallypot, is a fine paint-

A pot painted and glazed, commonly
medicines.—Plato said his master Socra-
ke the apothecary's *gallipots*, that had
sides apes, owls, and satyrs; but with-
m drugs. *Bacon's Apophth.*—

phials in nice discipline are set;
gallipots are rang'd in alphabet. *Garth*.
crinus thought it unsafe to trust the real
is phial and *gallipot* to any man. *Spect.*—
that dost *Æsculapius* deride,
r his *gallipots* in triumph ride. *Fenton*.
UM, in botany. See GALIUM.

ELLO, an island of the South Sea, near
of Peru, which was the first place pos-
the Spaniards when they attempted the
of Peru; it is also the place where the
s used to come for wood and water, and
ir vessels. Lon. 88. 0. W. Lat. 2. 30. N.

ELLO, an island of S. America, in the
of Popayan. Lat. 2. 40. N.

GRÆCIA, a country of Asia Minor,
nia and Cappadocia. It was inhabited
y of Gauls; who assumed the name of
Æci, because a number of Greeks had
ed them in their emigration. See GA-

IS, John; born at Paris in 1632, was
d scholar; but chiefly noted for having
njunction with M. de Sallo who formed
be first publisher of the *Journal des Sça-*
first journal was published Jan. 5, 1665;
entlemen criticised new works so rigor-
the whole tribe of authors united and
wn. De Sallo declined entirely after
ation of the 3d number: but Gallois
o send out a 4th on January 4th, 1666;

Part: 1

though not without a most humble advertisement
at the beginning, wherein he declared, that the
author "would not presume to criticise, but sim-
ply give an account of the books." This, with
the protection of M. Colbert, reconciled the pub-
lic to it: and thus began literary journals, which
have been continued from that time to this, under
various titles, and by various writers. Gallois
continued his journal to 1674, when more import-
ant occupations obliged him to turn it over to o-
ther hands. M. Colbert had taken him into his
house to teach him Latin; and when he lost his
patron in 1683, he was first made librarian to the
king, and then Greek professor in the royal college.
He died in 1707.

GALLO-MANIA, *n. f.* [from *Gallia*, France;
and *mania*, madness.] a new word, which owes its
origin to the present political ferment in public
opinion: used in contempt respecting the opinions
of those who are supposed to be infected with the
principles now generally prevailing in France; as
to religion or government. It might have been
long ago applied to the general taste among the
higher ranks, for French fashions, French cook-
ery, the affectation of French words and phrases,
&c. in preference to English.

(1.) * GALLON. *n. f.* [*gelo*, low Latin.] A
liquid measure of four quarts.—Beat them into
powder, and boil them in a gallon of wine, in a
vessel close stopped. *Wise man's Surg.*

(2.) GALLON is a measure of capacity both for
dry and liquid things, but differs according to the
quality of the thing measured: For instance, the
wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and holds
8lb. avoirdupois of pure water; the beer and ale
gallon contains 281 solid inches, and holds 10lb.
3¼ oz. avoirdupois of water; and the gallon for
corn, meal, &c. 272¼ cubic inches, and holds 9lb.
13 oz. of pure water.

* GALLOON. *n. f.* [*galon*, French.] A kind of
close lace, made of gold or silver, or of silk alone.

* GALLOP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The motion
of a horse when he runs at full speed; in which,
making a kind of a leap forwards, he lifts both
his forelegs very near at the same time: and while
these are in the air, and just upon the point of
touching the ground, he lifts both his hind legs al-
most at once. *Farrier's Dict.*

* To GALLOP. *v. n.* [*galoper*, French. Deri-
ved by all the etymologists, after *Budew*, from
καλπαζω; but perhaps it comes from *gant*, all;
and *lopen*, to run, Dutch; that is, to go on full
speed.] 1. To move forward by leaps, so that all
the feet are off the ground at once.—

I did hear

The galloping of horse: who was't came by?

Shak Macb

His steeds will be restrain'd,

But gallop lively down the western hill. *Donne*.

In such a shape grim Saturn did restrain
His heav'nly limbs; and flow'd with such a mane;
When half surpriz'd, and fearing to be seen,
'The leacher gallop'd from his jealous queen.

Dryden's Virgil:

2. To ride at the pace which is performed by leaps.
—Seeing such streams of blood as threatened a
drowning life, we galloped toward them to part
them. *Sidney*.—

B d

They

They 'gan espy
An armed knight towards them gallop fast,
That seemed from some feared foe to fly. *F. G.*
—He who to r and softly goes steadily forward, in
a course that points right, will sooner be at his
journey's end, than he that runs after every one
he meets, though he gallop all day full speed.
Locke. 3. To move very fast.—

The golden sun
Gallop the zodiack in his g'rt'ring coach. *Sb.*
Whom doth time gallop withal?
—With a thief to the gallows. *Sbak.*
—He that rides post through a country may, from
the transient view, tell how in general the parts lie:
such superficial ideas he may collect in galloping
over it. *Locke.*

(1.) * GALLOPER. *n. f.* [from *gallop*.] 1. A
horse that gallops.—Mules bred in cold countries
are much better to ride than horses for their walk
and trot: but they are commonly rough gallopers,
though some of them are very fleet. *Morr. Husb.*
2. A man that rides fast, or makes great haste.

(2.) GALLOPER, in military, is the name of a
carriage, which carries a pound and a half gun.
This carriage has 12 lbs so as to be drawn without
a limber, and is thought by some to be more con-
venient and preferable to other field carriages;
and it may likewise serve for our light three and
six pounders.

GALLOTS, ISLE AUX, an island of Canada,
in the St Lawrence. Lat. 43. 33 N.

GALLUS, *n. f.* See GALLOWES.
* To GALLOW. *v. a.* [*agel-wan*, to fright, Sax.]
To terrify, to fright.—

The wrathful skies
Gallow the very wand'ers of the dark,
And make them keep their caves. *Sbak. K. L.*
(1.) GALLOWAY, in geography, a county of
Scotland, which is divided into two districts; the
western, called *Upper*, and the eastern, *Lower*.

1. GALLOWAY, LOWER, or the Stewartry of
Kirkcudbright. See KIRKCUDBRIGHT.

2. GALLOWAY, UPPER, or the county of Wig-
ton. See WIGTON.

(II.) GALLOWAY, a township of New Jersey,
in Gloucester county.

(III. 1.) * GALLOWAY. *n. f.* A horse not more
than fourteen hands high, much used in the North;
probably as coming originally from Galloway, a
shire in Scotland.

(II.) GALLOWAY, in zoology. Tradition re-
ports that this kind of horses sprung from some
Spanish stallions, which swam on shore from some
of the ships of the famous Spanish armada,
wrecked on the coast; and coupling with the
mares of the country, furnished the kingdom
with their posterity. They are much esteemed,
and of a middling size, strong, active, nervous,
and hardy.

(IV.) GALLOWAY. See GALWAY, N° 1.
(V.) GALLOWAY, MULL OF, the south cape or
promontory of all Scotland, in the county of Gal-
loway, on the Irish sea. Lon. 1. 43. W. of Edin-
burgh. Lat. 54. 44. N.

(VI.) GALLOWAY, NEW, a town of Scotland,
in Kirkcudbrightsh. near the Ken, 15 miles N. of
Kirkcudbright.

* GALLOWGLASSES. *n. f.* 1. It is worn like-

wife of footmen under their shirts
which footmen the Irish call *galla*
which name doth discover them also
English; for *gallogla* signifies an Ei-
or yeoman. And he being so arm-
shirt of mail, down to the calf of h
long broad ax in his hand, was the
armature; and was instead of the
now weareth a cosset, before the cor-
or almost invented. *Spenser on Ir. l.*
otherwise than *Spenser*.] Soldiers an
Irish, who serve on horseback.—

A puissant and mighty pow'r
Of *galloglasses* and stout kerns,
Is marching hitherward in proud

(1.) * GALLOWES. *GALLOWES* *n.*
by fame in the singular; but by mo-
plural, or sometimes has another ph
Gal'go, Gothick; *gaulga*, Saxon; *galy*
some derive from *gall*, high, other
Welsh, power: but it is probably
galloos, to fright, from *agel-wan*, th-
ing the great object of legal terror
had over two posts, on which malefac-
ed.—This monster sat like a hangm-
of *galloos*; in his right hand he was
ing a crown of laurel, in his left h-
money. *Sidney*.—I would we were al-
and one mind good; O, there w-
of gaolers and *gallowes*. *Shakspr. C.*
I prophesied, if a *galloos* were
This fellow could not drown.

—He took the mayor aide, and w-
that execution must that day be doi-
fore required him that a pair of *gall*
erected. *Hayward*.—A poor fellow,
galloos, may be allowed to feel the l-
while he is upon Tyburn road. *Swift*
that deserves the gallows.—

Cupid hath been five thousand
—Ay, and a shrewd unhappy *gall*

(2.) GALLOWES, among our ances-
ed *furca*, fork; a name by which i-
minated abroad, particularly in Fra-
In this latter country, the reason of
subsists; the gallows being a real f-
the ground, across the legs whereof
to which the rope is tied. See FUR-

* GALLOWFREE. *adj.* [*gal'loos*
empt by destiny from being lodged
Let him be *gallowfree* by my
And nothing suffer, since he totl

* GALLOWTREE. *n. f.* [*galloos*
tree of terror; the tree of executi-
He hung their conquer'd arms
fame,
On *gallowtrees*, in honour of his

A Scot, when from the *gallow*
Drops into Styx, and turns a sol

GALLULADI, a town of Sw
Gothland, 10 miles E. of Gothenb
(1.) GALLUS, Cornelius, an a-
poet, born at Forum Julium, in t-
a particular favourite with August-
made him governor of Egypt: bu

in there occasioned his banishment and the loss of his estate; for grief of which he put an end to his life. He wrote 4 books of love elegies; Virgil has complimented him in many places. **GALLUS**, the Cock, in ornithology. See **INDEX**.

GALLUS, a river of Phrygia.

GALLEY, in printing, a frame into which the compositor empties the lines out of his composing stick in which he ties up the page when it is set. The galley is formed of an oblong board, with a ledge on three sides, and is used to admit a false bottom called a *galley slice*. See **GALLEY-HEAD**.

NEIKIRCHEN, a town of Austria.

OMBATZ, a town of Servia, 20 miles S. of Orsova.

OPINA, in botany, a genus of the digynia class, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants.

OVSKOI, a fort of Russian Siberia.

OWAH, or **GHALVAN**, a town of Africa, on the Nile.

ALSTON, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, 10 miles long, and from 4 to 5 broad. The soil is mostly light and gravelly, partly rich clay. The climate is moist but healthy. The quantity of arable acres is 7,200. Oats are the principal produce; peas, beans, potatoes, wheat, and barley are also cultivated. There are many fine old oaks, particularly very large firs in the parish.

The elm measures 24 feet round, 12 feet of the top, and spreads into 24 branches, which is itself a large tree. Great quantities of excellent cheese are made, and about 1000 flax are annually manufactured in the parish. The population, in 1790, stated by the Rev. Mr. Smith, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1,200 and had increased 564 since 1755. The number of sheep was above 2,600. There are several retreats of Sir William Wallace, in the parish, some of which still bear the name of the patriot. See **BEG**, N° 1; **WALLACE**.

There are 3 lint mills, 1 paper mill, and 1 mill in the parish. One of these last, seat- ing Irvine, is called *Patie's Mill*, and claims credit of having given birth to Ramsay's cele- brated *The Lass of Patie's Mill*.

ALSTON, a flourishing village in the above parish, (N° 1.) seated on the great roads from Edinburgh to Ayr, and from Glasgow to Dumfries, passing through it. The population, in 1790, was 1,200. It has two great fairs, in July and August, and in the evening before St Peter's fair fires are lighted on all the adjacent hills.

ALLA, a town of Sardinia, 14 miles S. of Cagliari.

GAULTIES, or **GAULTIES**, mountains of Ireland, in the counties of Limerick, Tipperary, and Cork.

ELECTRICITY. See **ELECTRICITY**, *Index*.

ALENTEJO, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo; 10 miles N.W. of Estremoz.

GALLOWAY, or **GALLOWAY**, a county of the province of Connaught, 76 miles long, from E. to W. and 40 broad; bounded by the counties of Clare, Tipperary, King's County, and the sea. The Shannon washes the E. and SE. and forms a lake

several miles long. The county contains 17 baronies, 13 boroughs; 28 churches, 116 parishes, about 28,200 houses, and 142,000 souls. The climate is warm and the soil fertile. The chief towns are Galway, (N° 2.) Tuam, Ballinasloe, and Loughrea. Before the Union with Great Britain, this county sent 2 representatives to parliament, for itself, and 6 from the boroughs.

(2.) **GALWAY**, the capital of the above county, (N° 1.) is surrounded with strong walls, has large straight streets, and the houses are built of stone. It has a good trade into foreign parts, on account of its harbour, which is defended by a fort. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs, and recorder; and, before the Union, returned two members to parliament. It has but one parish church, which is a large and beautiful Gothic structure; an exchange; barracks for 10 companies of foot, a charter school, and an hospital. It was one of the strongest towns in the kingdom: it held out some time against General Ginkle, who invested and took it after the battle of Aughrim. Its fortifications were then repaired; the walls are flanked by bastions, but are mostly decayed. The salmon and herring fisheries are carried on here with great spirit, and employ 700 boats; the quantity of kelp manufactured and exported is considerable; and the linen manufacture, is important. In 1296, Sir William de Burgh founded a monastery here for Franciscan friars, on St Stephen's island, situated without the N. gate of the town. His tomb was discovered in June 1779, 4 feet under ground, with his family arms, and a very long broad sword, elegantly carved thereon. Near the W. gate of the town, without the walls, was the monastery of St Mary of the hill. There are no remains of it except the cemetery; the building having been demolished by the townsmen, in 1652, to prevent Cromwell from turning it into a fortification. This town is seated on the bay of Galway, 49 miles WSW. of Athlone, and 96 W. of Dublin. Lon. 8. 58. W. Lat. 53. 15. N.

(3.) **GALWAY**, a township of New York, in the county of Saratoga.

(4.) **GALWAY BAY**, a large bay of the Atlantic, on the W. coast of Ireland; 20 miles long and 7 broad. The N. side of it is dangerous for ships.

GAMA, Vasco DE, a Portuguese admiral, celebrated for his discovery of the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, was born at Synes; and, in 1497, was sent to the Indies by king Emanuel: he returned in 1502, and sailed thither again with 13 vessels richly laden. He was made viceroy of the Indies by king John III; and died at Cochin on the 24th Dec. 1525. Stephen and Christopher De Gama, his sons, were also viceroys of the Indies, and celebrated in history.

GAMACHES, a town of France, in the dep. of Somme, 12 miles SW. of Abbeville.

GAMBACH, a town of Germany, in the principality of Solms Braunfels, 2 m. W. of Munzenberg.

* **GAMBADE**. } n. f. [*gamba*, Italian, a leg.]

* **GAMBADO**. } Spatterdashes; boots worn upon the legs above the shoe.—The pettifogger ambles to her in his *gambadoes* once a week. *Dennis's Letters*.

GAMBAIS, a town of France, in the depart. of Seine and Oise; 3 miles E. of Houdan.

IMBOUTO, a town of the dep. of Tessino, and cit. 12 miles from Vigevano. It is one of the Cisalpine republic, near Po, and is devant Cremona.

META, a town of the Cisalpine republic, seated on the Naviglio, 18 miles from Milan. It had 2000 citizens, in 1797. **MBA**, a town or district of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of the Mela, on the confines of Mantua; containing 3 parishes, and 4000 citizens.

(1.) **GAMBARÈ**, a district of Maritime Austria, in the Dogado, W. of Venice, extending from the banks of the lakes to the Paduan. The soil is fertile, but the climate is not healthy.

(2.) **GAMBARÈ**, a village in the above district, (N. 1.) on the Brenta. It has a chapel on the ruins of the abbey of St Ilario.

GAMBARO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, 24 miles S. of Piacenza.

GAMBASCA, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, and in the marquise of Saluzzo, on a rivulet which runs into the Po 6 miles W. of Saluzzo.

(1.) **GAMBIA**, a country of Africa, ceded to Britain by the peace, in 1783.

(2.) **GAMBIA**, a large river of Negroland in Africa, generally supposed to be a branch of the Niger. See **NIGER**, **NILE**, and **SENEGAL**.

GAMBINA, a river of Italy, in the Cisalpine republic, and department of Upper Po.

* **GAMBLER**. *n. f.* [A cant word, I suppose, for *game* or *gamester*.] A knave whose practice is to invite the unwary to game and cheat them.

GAMBLE'S STATION, a fort of the United States, in Tennessee, 12 miles from Knoxville.

(1.) * **GAMBOGE**. *n. f.* *Gamboge* is a concentrated vegetable juice, partly of a gummy, partly of a resinous nature, heavy, of a bright yellow colour, and scarce any smell. It is brought from America and the East Indies, particularly from Cambaja, or Cambogia. *Hill*.

(2.) * **GAMBOGE** is partly of a gummy, and partly of a resinous nature. See **CAMBOGIA**. It is chiefly brought to us in large cakes or rolls from Cambaja in the East Indies. The best sort is of a deep yellow or orange colour, breaks shining and free from dross: it has no smell, and very little taste, unless kept in the mouth for some time, when it impresses a slight sense of acrimony. It immediately communicates to spirit of wine a bright golden colour, and almost entirely dissolves in it; Geoffroy says, except the sixth part. Alkaline salts enable water to act upon this substance powerfully as a menstruum; the solution is somewhat transparent, of a deep blood red colour, and passes the filtre: the dulcified spirit of sal ammoniac readily and entirely dissolves it, and takes up a considerable quantity; and this solution mixes either with water or spirit, without growing turbid. As a pigment, it makes a beautiful yellow, which is much used by the painters. Dr Lewis says, that it makes a beautiful and durable citron yellow stain upon marble, whether rubbed in substance on the hot stone, or applied in form of a spiritous tincture. When it is rubbed on cold marble, the stone must afterwards be heated, to make the colour

As a medicine, gamboge evacuates both ways; some condemn it as acting with great violence, and occasioning dangerous cathartes. Geoffroy seems fond of it, and says, that he has frequently given from 4 to 8 grains, without its proving at all emetic; and that its operation is soon over, if given in a liquid form, and sufficient. It stands not in need of any corrector. In form of a bolus or pill, it is most apt to be retentive, but very rarely has this effect if *mercurius dulcis*. He nevertheless cautions its use where the patient cannot easily bear it. It has been used in dropsy with tartar or jalap, or both, to quicken the action. It is also recommended by some in cases of the tape worm, if given in a liquid form, and if the expelled in 2 or 3 hours, it is repeated 3d time with safety and efficacy. It has been given to this extent to children. This is said to be the report by Baron Van Swieten, which was by Dr Hucensward, and with his success in the removal of the tape worm.

* **GAMBOL**. *n. f.* [from the verb. *gambol*.] A hop; a leap for joy.—A gentleman's favourite spaniel, that would be still toying upon him, and playing a thousand tricks. *L'Esfrange*.

Bacchus through the conquer'd And beats in gambols his'd before him.

2. A frolic; a wild prank.—

For who did ever play his gambol With such unsuffering gambols?

* To **GAMBOL**. *v. n.* *gambol* dance; to skip; to frolic; to jump for merry frolics.—

Bears, tigers, ounces, par Gambol'd before them. *Antic*
The king of elfs, and little fair Gambol'd on heaths, and danc'd o

The monsters of the flood Gambol around him in the wat'ry And heavy whales in awkward me

2. To leap; to start.—

'Tis not madness That I have utter'd; bring me to And I the matter will record, w Would gambol from.

GAMBON, a river of France, w the Seine, near Andely.

* **GAMBREL**. *n. f.* [from *gambrel* Ital.] The leg of a horse.—What admirable, than for the principles of tendon to be so mixed as to make and yet to have the strength of iron by the weight which it endures, lyi gambrel, doth then the tendon, wh with a man upon his back. *Grege*.

GAMERON, **GOMERON**, or **BE** a city of Peina. See **GOMERON**.

VISSA, a town of Maritime Austria, miles E. of Cabo of Istria.

ME. s. f. [*gaman*, a jest, Islandick.] any kind.—

ve had pastimes here, and pleasing
Shakesp.

posed to earnest or seriousness.—

in her head they set a garland green,
ned her 'twixt earnest and 'twixt game.

Spenser.

merriment; sportive insult.—

y not seek occasion of new quarrels,
fusal. to distress me more;

a game of my calamities? *Milt.*

natch at play. 5. Advantage in play.

I vouchers for our fame we stand,

the game into each other's hand. *Dryd.*

pursued; measures planned.—This

the present game of that crown, and

ill begin no other 'till they see an end

mple. 7. Field sports: as, the chace,

out this hour he make his way,

e colour of his usual game,

ere find his friends with horse and men,

im free from his captivity. *Shak.*

arms to use, or nets to frame

ists to combat, or to tame,

the myst'ries of that game. *Waller.*

rtismen, that were abroad upon game,

mpany of bustards and cranes. *L' Hér.*

pursued in the field; animals appro-

legal sportsmen.—

eg, and men, not beasts, shall be his

r,

u, and hostile snare, such as refuse

an to his empire tyrannous. *Milton.*

such a variety of game springing up be-

at I know not which to follow. *Dryd.*

hound will follow the person he pur-

ll hounds the particular game they have

troubled.—

ith thy Cynthia hurl the pointed spear

ough bear, or chace the flying deer;

Chloe take a nobler aim,

in hearts we fling, nor ever miss the

e. *Prior.*

Nimrod first the bloody chace began,

y hunter, and his prey was man:

ighty Norman boasts that barb'rous

e,

aces his trembling slaves the royal game.

Pope.

n my labour, if its length you blame,

ow but wise, you rob me of my game.

Young.

contests, exhibited as spectacles to the

ames are done, and Cæsar is returning.

Shakespeare.

when ent'ring the Olympick game,

uge ox upon his shoulders came. *Denb.*

ME, in law, (§ 1. def. 8.) signifies birds, or

n or killed by fowling or hunting. The

f such animals *feræ naturæ* as are known

denomination of game, with the right of

taking, and destroying them, is vested

alone, and from him derived to such of

his subjects as have received the grants of a chace, a

park, or free warren. By the law of nature, indeed,

every man, from the prince to the peasant, has an

equal right of pursuing, and taking to his own use,

all such creatures as are *feræ naturæ*, and there-

fore the property of nobody, but liable to be seized

by the first occupant. But it follows, (says Black-

stone,) from the very end and constitution of so-

ciety, that this natural right, as well as many others

belonging to man as an individual, may be restrain-

ed by positive laws enacted for reasons of state, or

for the supposed benefit of the community. This

restriction may be either with respect to the place

in which this right may, or may not, be exercised;

with respect to the animals that are the subjects

of this right; or with respect to the persons allowed

or forbidden to exercise it. And, in consequence

of this authority, we find, that the municipal

laws of many nations have exerted such power of

restraint; have in general forbidden the entering

on another man's grounds, for any cause, without

the owner's leave; have extended their protection

to such particular animals as are usually the ob-

jects of pursuit; and have invested the preroga-

tive of hunting and taking such animals in the so-

vereign of the state only, and such as he shall au-

thorize. Many reasons have concurred for making

these constitutions: as, 1. For the encouragement

of agriculture and improvement of lands, by gi-

ving every man an exclusive dominion over his

own soil. 2. For the preservation of the several

species of these animals, which would soon be

extirpated by a general liberty. 3. For prevention

of idleness and dissipation in husbandmen, artificers,

and others of lower rank; which would be the

unavoidable consequence of universal licence. 4.

For prevention of popular insurrections and re-

sistance to the government, by disarming the bulk

of the people: which last is a reason oftener meant

than avowed, by the makers of forest or game

laws. Nor, certainly, in these prohibitions is

there any natural injustice, as some have weakly

enough supposed: since, as Puffendorf observes,

the law does not hereby take from any man his

present property, or what was already his own;

but barely abridges him of one means of acquiring

a future property, that of occupancy; which in-

deed the law of nature would allow him, but of

which the laws of society have in most instances

very justly and reasonably deprived him. Yet, how-

ever defensible these provisions in general may be,

on the footing of reason, or justice, or civil policy,

we must, notwithstanding, acknowledge, that, in

their present shape, they owe their immediate ori-

ginal to slavery. It is not till after the irruption

of the northern nations into the Roman empire,

that we read of any other prohibitions, than that

natural one of not sporting on any private grounds

without the owner's leave. With regard to the

rise and original of our present civil prohibitions,

it will be found, that all forest and game laws were

introduced into Europe at the same time, and by

the same policy, that gave birth to the feudal

system; when those swarms of barbarians issued

from their northern hive, and laid the foundation

of most of the present kingdoms of Europe on the

ruins of the western empire. For when a con-

quering general came to settle the economy of a

conquished country, and to part it out among his soldiers or feudatories, who were to render him military service for such donations; it behoved him, in order to secure his new acquisitions, to keep the *rustici* or natives of the country, and all who were not his military tenants, in as low a condition as possible, and especially to prohibit them the use of arms. Nothing could do this more effectually than a prohibition of hunting and sporting: and therefore it was the policy of the conqueror to reserve this right to himself, and such on whom he should bestow it; which were only his capital feudatories or greater barons. And, accordingly, we find, in the feudal constitutions, one and the same law prohibiting the *rustici* in general from carrying arms, and also proscribing the use of nets, snares, or other engines for destroying the game. This exclusive privilege well suited the martial genius of the troops, who delighted in a sport, which in its pursuit and slaughter bore some resemblance to war. *Vita omnis* (says Cæsar, speaking of the ancient Germans) *in venationibus atque in studiis rei militaris consistit*. And Tacitus in like manner observes, that *quoties bella non ineunt, multum venatibus, plus per otium transigunt*. And indeed, like some of their modern successors, they had no other amusement to entertain their vacant hours; they despising all arts as effeminate, and having no other learning than was couched in such rude ditties as were sung at the solemn carousals, which succeeded these ancient huntings. And it is remarkable, that in those nations where the feudal policy remains the most unaltered, the forest or game laws continue in their highest rigour. In France, before the revolution, all game was properly the king's; and in some parts of Germany it is death for a peasant to be found hunting in the woods of the nobility. With us in Britain, also, hunting has ever been esteemed a most princely diversion and exercise. The whole island was replenished with all sorts of game in the times of the Britons; who lived in a wild and pastoral manner, without inclosing or improving their grounds; and derived much of their subsistence from the chase, which they all enjoyed in common. But when husbandry took place under the Saxon government, and lands began to be cultivated, improved, and inclosed, the beasts naturally fled into the woody and desert tracts, which were called the *forests*; and, having never been disposed of in the first distribution of lands, were therefore held to belong to the crown. These were filled with great plenty of game, which our royal sportsmen reserved for their own diversion, on pain of pecuniary forfeiture for such as interfered with their sovereign. But every freeholder had the full liberty of sporting upon his own territories, provided he abstained from the king's forests. However, upon the Norman conquest, a new doctrine took place; and the right of pursuing and taking all beasts of chase or *venary*, and such other animals as were accounted *game*, was then held to belong to the king, or to such only as were authorised under him. And this, as well upon the principles of the feudal law, that the king is the ultimate proprietor of all the lands in the kingdom, they being all held of him as the chief lord, or lord *paramount of the fee*; and that therefore he has

the right of the universal soil, to enter the land and to chase and take such creatures at his pleasure: as also upon another maxim of the common law, that these animals are *bona vacantia* having no other owner, belong to the king as a prerogative. As therefore the former realm was held to vest in the king a right to pursue and take them any where, the latter was supposed to vest in the king, and such as he should authorise, an *exclusive* right. This right, thus vested in the crown, was exerted with the utmost rigour, and after the time of the Norman establishment, not only in the ancient forests, but in the new ones which the Conqueror made, by laying out vast tracts of country, depopulated for the purpose, and reserved solely for the king's diversion; in which were exercised the most tyrannies and oppressions, under colour of forest laws for the sake of preserving the beasts of chase, to kill any of which, within the limits of the forest, was as penal as the death of a man. And in consequence of the same principle, king John issued a general interdict upon the winged as well as the footed creation: *capturam avium per totam regiam interdixit*. The cruel and oppressive hardships, which these forest laws created to the subject, occasioned our ancestors to be anxious for their reformation, as for the relaxation of the feudal rigours and the other exactions imposed by the Norman family; and accordingly the immunities of *charta de foresta* as was intended for, and extorted from the king, with much difficulty, as those of *magna charta*. By this charter, confirmed in parliament (1215. III.) many forests were disafforested, or of their oppressive privileges, and regulations made in the regimen of such as remained. Particularly killing the king's deer was made a capital offence, but only punished by imprisonment, or abjuration of the realm, by a variety of subsequent statutes, together with the long acquiescence of the crown without enforcing the forest laws, this prerogative is now no longer a grievance to the subject. But the king reserved to himself the *forest* for his own diversion, so he granted out from time to time other tracts of land to his subjects under the name of *chases* or *parks*; or gave them licence to hunt such in their own grounds; which included smaller forests in the hands of a subject, but governed by the forest laws; and by the common law no person is at liberty to take or kill any of the beasts of chase, but such as hath an ancient chase or warren, unless they be also beasts of prey. As to a prior species of game, called *beasts and fowls of warren*; the liberty of taking or killing them is another franchise, or royalty, derived likewise from the crown, and called *free warren*; a word which signifies preservation or custody: as the liberty of taking and killing fish in a stream or river is called a *free fishery*; of which however, no new franchise can at present be created by the express provision of *magna charta* 16. The principal intention of granting these franchises, or liberties, was in order to protect the game, by giving him a sole and exclusive power of killing it himself, provided he preserved it for other persons. And no man but he who

the warren, by grant from the crown, which supposes one, can justify sporting upon another man's soil; nor thorough strictness of common law, either sporting at all. However new this may seem, it is a regular consequence as has been before delivered, that the sole hunting and destroying game belongs to the king. This appears, as well from the deduction here made, as because he has his subjects an exclusive right of taking which he could not do, unless such a right inherent in himself. And hence it follows that no person whatever, but he who derives his right from the crown, is by law intitled to take or kill any beast of his game whatsoever. It is true, that, in consequence of the crown, the frequent enclosure of warren in ancient times, and the introduction of new penalties of late by certain statutes preserving the game, this exclusive right of the king is little known or considered; so that many are exempted from these motions looking upon himself as at liberty to do as he pleases with the game: whereas it is strictly true, and that no man, unless qualified he may vulgarly be esteemed, can encroach on the royal prerogative of game, unless he can show a particular grant of free warren; or a prescription in times of a grant; or some authority under parliament. As to the latter, there are instances wherein an express permission was ever given by statute; the one in 1271. altered by 9 Jac. I. c. 11. and repealed by 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 25. which gave authority, so long as they remained in the hands of the owners of free warren, to lords of manors to appoint game-keepers, for the use of such lord or lady; since that time some alteration still subsists, and plainly shews a power not to have been in them before. The truth of the matter is, that these game laws qualify nobody, except in the instance of a gamekeeper, to kill game: but only to enable a regular and formal process of an action against an injured person, who perhaps too might receive, these statutes inflict additional penalties covered either in a regular or summary way of the king's subjects, from certain inferior rank who may be found offending against the law. But it does not follow that persons exempted from these additional penalties are authorized to kill game. The circumstance of 1000 l. per ann. and the rest, are not prohibitions but exemptions. And these persons exempted from the penalties of the game are not only liable to actions of trespass by the owner of the land; but also, if they kill game within the limits of any royal franchise, they are liable to actions of such who may have the sole or free warren therein. Upon the

whole, it appears, that the king, by his prerogative, and such persons as have, under his authority, the ROYAL FRANCHISE of CHASE, PARK, or FREE WARREN, (See these articles,) are the only persons who may acquire any property, however fugitive and transitory, in these animals *feræ naturæ*, while living; which is said to be vested in them *propter privilegium*. And such persons as may thus lawfully hunt, fish, or fowl, *ratione privilegii*, have only a qualified property in these animals: it not being absolute or permanent, but lasting only so long as the creatures remain within the limits of such respective franchise or liberty, and ceasing the instant they voluntarily pass out of it. It is held indeed, that if a man starts any game within his own grounds, and follows it into another's, and kills it there, the property remains in himself. And this is grounded on reason and natural justice; for the property consists in the possession; which possession commences by the finding it in his own liberty; and is continued by the immediate pursuit. And so, if a stranger starts game in one man's chase or free warren, and hunts it into another liberty, the property continues in the owner of the chase or warren; this property arising from privilege; and not being changed by the act of a mere stranger. Or if a man starts game on another's private grounds, and kills it there, the property belongs to him on whose grounds it was killed, because it was also started there; this property arising *ratione soli*. Whereas if, after being started there, it is killed in the grounds of a third person, the property belongs not to the owner of the first ground, because the property is local; nor yet to the owner of the second, because it was not started in his soil; but it vests in the person who started and killed it, though guilty of a trespass against both the owners. See LAWS, RESPECTING GAME.

(3.) GAMES, in antiquity, (§ 1. *def.* 9.) were public diversions, exhibited on solemn occasions. Such among the Greeks were the Olympic, Pythian, Isthmian, Nemean, &c. games; and, among the Romans, the Apollinarian, Circensian, Capitoline, &c. games. See APOLLINARIAN, FUNERAL, § 3, OLYMPIC, PYTHIAN, &c.

(4.) GAMES, MODERN, are usually distinguished into those of exercise and address, and those of hazard. To the first belong chess, tennis, billiards, &c. and to the latter those performed with cards, or dice, as back-gammon, ombre, picquet, whist, &c. See BACK-GAMMON, CARDS, DICE, GAMING, &c.

* To GAME. *v. n.* [*gaman*, Saxon.] 1. To play at any sport. 2. To play wantonly and extravagantly for money. *Gaming* leaves no satisfaction behind it: it no way profits either body or mind. *Locke*.

(1.) * GAMECOCK. *n. s.* [*game* and *cock*.] Cocks bred to fight. They manage the dispute as fiercely as two gamecocks in the pit. *Locke*.

(2.) GAME-CKOCK. See COCK-FIGHTING.

* GAME-EGG. *n. s.* [*game* and *egg*.] Eggs from which fighting cocks are bred.—

Thus boys hatch game-eggs under birds of prey,

To make the fowl more furious for the fray.

(Garth.)

(1.) GAME.

n. f. [game and keep.] A
or game, and sees it is not

You're a merry *gamester*

My lord Sands.

Shakeſp

4. A prostitute. Not in use.—

She's impudent, my lord

And was a common *gamester* to the

GAMELIA, in Grecian antiquity, a nuptial
sacrifice, held in the ancient Greek
before a marriage; so called,

had of shewing themselves un-
esent to their had to some
ad particular obligation.

GAMELION, the ancient chronology, was
the 8th month of the Athenian year, containing 29
days, and answering to the end of January and
beginning of February. It was thus called, as be-
ing, in the opinion of the Athenians, the most
proper season of the year for marriage.

GAMELORA, an island in the Mediterranean,
near the NE. coast of Tunis, 3 miles E. of Cape
Zibeeb.

GAMESOME. *adj.* [from game.] Frolic-
some; gay; sportive; playful; sportful.—Geron,
though old, yet *gamesome* kept one end with Cos-
mas. *Sidney*.

I am not *gamesome*; I do lack some part
Of that quick spirit that is in Antony.

Shakeſp. Jul. Cesar.

The *gamesome* wind among her tresses plays,
And curl'eth up those growing riches short.

Pauſan.

Behal, in like *gamesome* mood.

Milton.

—This *gamesome* humour of children should rather
be encouraged, to keep up their spirits and
improve their strength and health, than curbed or
restrained. *Locke*.

GAMESOMELY. *adv.* [from *gamesome*.]
Merrily.

GAMESOMENESS. *n. f.* [from *gamesome*.]
Sportiveness; merriment.

GAMESTER. *n. f.* [from game.] 1. One
who is vitiously addicted to play.—Keep a *game-
ster* from the dice, and a good student from his
book, and it is wonderful. *Shakeſp.*—A *gamester*,
the greater master he is in his art, the worse man
he is. *Bacon*.—

Gamesters for whole patrimonies play;

The steward brings the deeds, which must con-
vey

The whole estate.

Dryd. Juv.

—Could we look into the mind of a common
gamester, we should see it full of nothing but
trumps and mattadores: her slumbers are haunt-
ed with kings, queens, and knaves. *Addis.*—

All the superfluous whims relate,

That fill a female *gamester's* pate,

What agony of soul she feels

To see a knave's inverted heels.

Swift.

—Her youngest daughter is run away with a *game-
ster*, a man of great beauty, who in dressing and
dancing has no superior. *Law*. 2. One who is
engaged at play.—

When lenity and cruelty play for kingdoms,

The gentler *gamester* is the soonest winner. *Shak.*

—A man may think, if he will, that too eyes see
no more than one; or that a *gamester* seeth always
more than a looker on: but, when all is done,
the help of good counsel is that which setteth bu-
siness straight. *Bacon*. 3. A merry frolicsome per-
son.—

GAMET, an island of Denmark, 3
the continent, and 2 WSW. of Ripen

(1.) **GAMING**, the art of playing
any game, particularly those of hazard
dice, tables, &c. Gaming has at all
considered as of pernicious consequ-
commonwealth; and is therefore
bited by law. It is esteemed a practice
to supply, or retrieve, the expences of

Luxury; it being a kind of tacit con-
the company therein engaged do, in-
ceed the bounds of their respective fo-

therefore they cast lots to determine
the ruin shall at present fall, that the
saved a little longer. But, taken in
is an offence of the most alarming natu-

by necessary consequence, to promote
ness, theft, and debauchery, among
lower class; and, among persons of
rank, it has frequently been attended

sudden ruin and desolation of ancient
families, an abandoned prostitution of

ciple of honour and virtue, and too oft
in suicide. To restrain this pernicious

the inferior sort of people, the stat
VIII. c. 9. was made; which prohibi

gentlemen, the games of tennis, ti-
dice, bowls, and other unlawful div-

specified, unless in the time of Christ
pecuniary pains and imprisonment. A

law, and also the statute 23 Geo. II.
pecuniary penalties, upon the master

lic house, wherein servants are permit-
as well as upon servants themselves w-

gaming there. But this is not the prin-
of complaint; it is the gaming in high

mands the attention of the magistrat
to which every valuable consideration

and which we seem to have inherit
ancestors, the ancient Germans; w-

describes to have been bewitched w-
of play to a most exorbitant degree.

dict themselves (says he) to dice (whic
ful) when sober, and as a serious c-

with such a mad desire of winning or
when stript of every thing else, they

lost their liberty, and their very selves
goes into a voluntary slavery; and, 1

and stronger than his antagonist, suffi-
be bound and sold. And thus perie

bad a cause they call the point of ho-
in re prava perversacia, ipsi quem vs

would almost be tempted to think
describing a modern Englishman. M

thus intoxicated with so frantic a spi-
rit of little avers: because the same fal-

lour that prompts a man to sacrifice
deter him from appealing to the magi-

is proper that laws should be, and be-
heli, that gentlemen may consider w-

they wilfully incur, and what a con-

sharpers; who, if successful in play, are be paid with honour, or, if unsuccessful in their power to be still greater gainers ing. See § 3.

GAMING, CHANCE IN. Hazard, or chance, of mathematical consideration, because of more and less. Gamesters either set an equality of chance, or are supposed

This equality may be altered in the the game, by the greater good fortune of one of the gamesters, whereby he have a better chance, so that his share in is proportionably better than at first.

and less runs through all the ratios be- ality and infinite difference, or from an ittle difference till it come to an infinite- ne, whereby the game is determined.

a game, therefore, with regard to the is a chance of the proportion the two r to each other. The probability of an eater or less, according to the number of

r which it may happen, compared with ices by which it may either happen or fail.

ivre, in a treatise *de Mensura Sortis*, has the variety of chances in several cases in gaming, the laws of which may be

l by what follows. Suppose p the num- s in which an event may happen, and ber of cases wherein it may not happen,

have the degree of probability, which is her as p to q . If two gamesters, A and on this footing, that, if the cases p hap- all win; but if q happen, B shall win,

ke be a ; the chance of A will be $\frac{p a}{p+q}$, f B $\frac{q a}{p+q}$; consequently, if they sell the

es, they should have that for them re-

If A and B play with a single die, on ion. that, if A throw two or more aces

rows, he shall win; otherwise B shall it is the ratio of their chances? Since

one case wherein an ace may turn up, herein it may not, let $a=1$, and $b=5$.

since there are eight throws of the die,

nd you will have $a+b|n-b^n-nab^n-1$, $n-1$: that is, the chance of A will be

B as 663991 to 10156525, or nearly as

and B are engaged at single quoits; playing some time, A wants 4 of being

6; but B is so much the better game- is chance against A upon a single throw

as 3 to 2; What is the ratio of their Since A wants 4, and B 6, the game

ed at nine throws; therefore, raise $a+b$ h power, and it will be $a^9+9 a^8b+36$

$b^3+126 a^5b^4+126 a^4b^5$, to $84 a^3b^6+36$

b^3+6^9 : call a 3, and b 2, and you will tio of chances in numbers, viz. 1759077

A and B play at single quoits, and A gamester, so that he can give B 2 in 3:

ratio of their chances at a single throw? e chances as x to 1, and raise $x+1$ to

hich will be $x^3+3 x^2+3 x+1$. Now ld give B 2 out of 3, A might under- three throws running; and consequent-

PART I.

ly the chances in this case will be as x^3 to $3x^2+3 x+1$. Hence $x^3=3 x^2+3 x+1$; or $2x^3=3x^2+3x-3x+1$. And therefore $x\sqrt[3]{2}=x+1$; and, con- sequently, $x=\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}-1}$. The chances, therefore, are

$\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}-1}$, and 1, respectively. Again, suppose I

have two wagers depending, in the first of which I have 3 to 2 the best of the lay, and in the second,

7 to 4; What is the probability I win both wagers? I. The probability of winning the first is $\frac{3}{5}$, that

is the number of chances I have to win, divided by the number of all the chances: the probability

of winning the second is $\frac{7}{11}$; therefore, multiply- ing these two fractions together, the product will

be $\frac{21}{55}$, which is the probability of winning both wagers. Now, this fraction being subtracted from

1, the remainder is $\frac{34}{55}$, which is the probability I do not win both wagers: therefore the odds against

me are 34 to 21. II. If I would know what the probability is of winning the first, and losing the

second, I argue thus; the probability of winning the first is $\frac{3}{5}$, the probability of losing the second

is $\frac{4}{11}$: therefore multiplying $\frac{3}{5}$ by $\frac{4}{11}$, the pro- duct $\frac{12}{55}$ will be the probability of my winning the

first, and losing the second; which being subtrac- ted from 1, there will remain $\frac{43}{55}$, which is the

probability I do not win the first, and at the same time lose the second. III. If I would know what

the probability is of winning the second, and at the same time losing the first, I say thus: The

probability of winning the second is $\frac{7}{11}$: the pro- bability of losing the first is $\frac{2}{5}$: therefore, multi- plying these two fractions together, the product

$\frac{14}{55}$ is the probability I win the second, and also lose the first. IV. If I would know what the pro-

bability is of losing both wagers, I say, the pro- bability of losing the first is $\frac{2}{5}$, and the probability

of losing the second $\frac{4}{11}$: therefore the probability of losing them both is $\frac{8}{55}$: which, being subtrac- ted from 1, there remains $\frac{47}{55}$: therefore, the odds

of losing both wagers is 47 to 8. This reasoning is applicable to the happening or failing of any e-

vents that may fall under consideration. Thus if I would know what the probability is of missing

an ace four times together with a die, this I con- sider as the failing of four different events. Now

the probability of missing the first is $\frac{5}{6}$, the second is also $\frac{5}{6}$, the third $\frac{5}{6}$, and the fourth $\frac{5}{6}$; therefore

the probability of missing it four times together is $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} = \frac{625}{1296}$; which being subtracted

from 1, there will remain $\frac{671}{1296}$ for the probabili- ty of throwing it once or oftener in four times;

therefore the odds of throwing an ace in four times, is 671 to 625. But if the flinging of an ace was

undertaken in three times, the probability of mis- sing it three times would be $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} = \frac{125}{216}$; which

being subtracted from 1, there will remain $\frac{91}{216}$ for the probability of throwing it once or oftener in

three times: therefore the odds against throwing it in three times are 125 to 91. Again, suppose

we would know the probability of throwing an ace once in four times, and no more: since the

probability of throwing it the first time is $\frac{1}{6}$, and of missing it the other three times, is $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6}$, it

follows, that the probability of throwing it the first time, and missing it the other three successive

Since, is $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{16}$; because it is possible to hit every throw as well as the first, it follows, that the probability of throwing it once in four throws, and missing the other three, is $\frac{1}{16} \times \frac{15}{16} = \frac{15}{256}$; which being subtracted from 1, there will remain $\frac{241}{256}$ for the probability of throwing it once, and no more, in four times. Therefore, if one undertake to throw an ace once, and no more, in four times, he has 100 to 796 the work of the day, or 5 to 8 very near. Suppose two events are such, that one of them has twice as many chances to come up as the other; what is the probability that the event, which has the greater number of chances to come up, does not happen twice before the other happens once, which is the case of flinging 7 with two dice before 4 once? Since the number of chances is as 2 to 1, the probability of the first happening before the second is $\frac{2}{3}$, but the probability of its happening twice before it is but $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3}$ or $\frac{4}{9}$: therefore it is 5 to 4, seven does not come up twice before four once. But, if it were demanded, what must be the proportion of the facilities of the coming up of two events, to make that which has the most chances come up twice, before the other comes up once? The answer is, 22 to 5 very nearly: whence it follows, that the probability of throwing the first before the second is $\frac{22}{27}$, and the probability of throwing it twice is $\frac{44}{27} \times \frac{44}{27}$, or $\frac{1936}{729}$: therefore the probability of not doing it is $\frac{533}{729}$: therefore the odds against it are as 145 to 144, which comes very near an equality. Suppose there is a heap of 12 red cards, and another heap of 12 black cards. What is the probability, that, taking one card at a venture out of each heap, I shall take out the two aces? The probability of taking the ace out of the first heap is $\frac{1}{12}$, the probability of taking the ace out of the second heap is $\frac{1}{12}$: therefore the probability of taking out both aces is $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{12} = \frac{1}{144}$, which being subtracted from 1, there will remain $\frac{143}{144}$: therefore the odds against me are 143 to 1. In cases where the events depend on one another, the manner of arguing is somewhat altered. Thus, suppose that out of one single heap of 12 cards of one colour I should undertake to take out first the ace; and, secondly, the two: though the probability of taking out the ace be $\frac{1}{12}$, and the probability of taking out the two be likewise $\frac{1}{12}$: yet, the ace being supposed as taken out already, there will remain only 11 cards in the heap, which will make the probability of taking out the two to be $\frac{1}{11}$: therefore the probability of taking out the ace, and then the two, will be $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{1}{11}$. In this last question the two events have a dependence on each other; which consists in this, that one of the events being supposed as having happened, the probability of the other's happening is thereby altered. But the case is not so in the two heaps of cards. If the events in question be n in number, and be such as have the same number a of chances by which they may happen, and likewise the same number b of chances by which they may fail, raise $a+b$ to the power n . And if A and B play together, on condition that if either one or more of the events in question happen, A shall win, and B lose, the probability of A's winning will be

$$\frac{a^n + b^n - 1}{a + b}; \text{ and that of B's winning will be } \frac{b^n}{a + b};$$

for when $a+b$ is actually raised to the only term in which a does not occur is b^n : therefore all the terms but the last are to A. Thus if $n=3$, raising $a+b$ to the power 3, all the terms but the last are to A; and therefore the probability of A's winning will be

$$\frac{a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3}{a + b}, \text{ or } \frac{a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2}{a + b},$$

and the probability of B's winning is

$$\frac{b^3}{a + b} \text{ for the only term in which } a \text{ does not occur are the } a^2b \text{ and } ab^2.$$

(3.) GAMING, LAWS AGAINST. Car. II. c. 7. if any person by playing shall lose more than 100l. at play, shall not be compellable to pay the value, the king, the other to the informer. 9 Ann. c. 14. enacts, that all bonds, covenants, given for money won at play, sent at the time to play withal, shall be void: that all mortgages and incumbrances made upon the same consideration, shall be void to the heir of the mortgager: person at one time loses 10l. at play, the winner, and recover it back by 10l. at law; and, in case the loser does not pay, the person may sue the winner for treble cost; and the plaintiff in either case the defendant himself upon oath: and of these suits no privilege of parliamen allowed. The statute farther enacts person cheats at play, and at one time than 10l. or any valuable thing, he is to be indicted thereupon, and shall forfeit five l. shall be deemed infamous, and corporal punishment as in case of wilful perjury. By several statutes of the reign of king all private lotteries by tickets, cards, particularly the games of faro, basset, a hazard, passage, roly-polly, and all with dice, except backgammon), are under a penalty of 200l. for him that keeps such lotteries, and 50l. a-time for Public lotteries, unless by authority of parliament and all manner of ingenious device for the promotion of sales or otherwise, the end are equivalent to lotteries, prohibited by a great variety of statutes, and heavy pecuniary penalties. But particular provisions will be ever lame and deficient games of mere chance are at once prevented by the invention of sharpers being swifter than the punishment of the law, which only humours one device to another. The statute 1. Geo. IV. to prevent the multiplicity of gaming, directs that all matches under 50l. value shall be null and void, to be paid by the winner

ing, and pool, by such as advertise the
y statute 12 Geo. II. c. 34. the statute 9
urther enforced, and some deficiencies
the forfeitures of that act may now be
in a court of equity; and, moreover,
n be convicted, upon information or in-
of winning or losing at any sitting 10 l.
ithin 24 hours, he shall forfeit five times

Thus careful has the legislature been
t this destructive vice: which may show
aws against gaming are not so deficient,
es and our magistrates in putting those
ecution.

ITZ, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 12
W. of Marburg.

IACANOR, or } a town of the ile of
IADOUR, } Bechian, one of the

IMER. *n. f.* [Of uncertain etymology;
rom *grand mere*, and therefore used com-
old women.] The compellation of a
rresponding to gaffer: as, *Gammer Gur-*
dle, an old play.

ING, and } Two towns of Austria,
ING MARKET, } 10 m. E. of Waidhofen.

IAMMON. *n. f.* [*gambone*, Ital.] 1. The
f an hog salted and dried; the lower
: fitch.—

or what price thy venal tongue was sold;
gammus of some sev'n years old. *Juv.*
was, that give a relish to the taste,
tted fowl, and fish, come in so fast,
e the first is out, the second stinks.

Dryden's Pers.

of play with dice.—

The quick dice,
der leaping from the box, awake
inding *gammus*. *Thomson's Autumn.*
MMON, § 1. *def. 2.* See BACK-GAMMON.
IONING, among seamen, denotes se-
s of a rope taken round the bowsprit,
d through holes in knees of the head,
enter security of the bowsprit.

IUT. See GAMUT.

B, a town of the Helvetic republic, part-
anton of Schweitz, and partly in that
5 miles S. of Appenzel.

IE, a parish of Scotland, on the coast
ire, 9½ miles long, and 3½ broad. The
y barren, but in many places very fertile,
is almost one continued chain of stupen-
s, 200 yards high, and abounds with
haddocks, turbot, &c. The salmon
the Dovern is let by the E. of Fife, for
year. The church was built in 1004,
likely to last for many ages more. The
i in 1790, stated by the rev. Mr Wilson,
rt to Sir J. Sinclair was 3000, and was
bled since 1732. Longevity is common.
ter, Mr Wilson, was in his 97th year,
ransmitted his Statistical Account; se-
r persons were then living above 90;
rman died a few years before aged 109.
i has been much improved by the exer-
ie earl of Fife, the late Mr Garden of
id Lord Gardenston.

IAMUT. *n. f.* [*gama*, Ital.] The scale
notes.—

Madam, before you touch the instrument,
To learn the order of my fingering,
I must begin with rudiments of art,
To teach you *gamut* in a briefer sort. *Shak.*

When by the *gamut* some musicians make
A perfect long, others will undertake,
By the same *gamut* chang'd to equal it:
Things simply good can never be unfit. *Donne.*

Long has a race of heroes fill'd the stage,
That rant by rote, and through the *gamut* rage;
In songs and airs express their martial fire,
Combat in trills, and in a fugue expire. *Addis.*

(2) GAMUT, GAMMUT, or GAM-ut. See
MUSIC. The invention of this scale is owing to
Guido Aretin, monk of Arezzo, in Tuscany, a-
bout A. D. 1009; though it is not so properly an
invention, as an improvement on the diagram or
scale of the ancients. See ARETIN, N° 2. Several
alterations have been made in the *gamut*; M. le
Maire, particularly, has added a 9th note; viz. *fi*;
and the English usually throw out both *ut* and *fi*,
and make the other five serve for all.

(1.) GAN, a city of China, of the first rank;
capital of the province of Se-tchuen. Lon. 13. 8.
W. of Peking. Lat. 31. 16. N.

(2.) GAN, a town of France, in the department
of the Lower Pyrenees, 4½ miles S. of Pau, and
10 E. of Oleron.

(3.) * GAN, for *began*, from *'gin* for *begin*.—

The noble knight *'gan* feel

His vital force to faint.

Spenser.

GAN, a town of Arabia Felix.

(1.) GANARA, a populous and fertile country
of Africa, on the banks of the Niger.

(2.) GANARA, the capital of the above country,
The natives trade in gold, senna, and slaves. Lon.
16. 0. E. Lat. 12. 20. N.

GANAT, a town of France, in the department
of Allier, on the Loire; 15 miles NE. of Moulins.

* To GANCH. *v. a.* [*ganciare*, from *gancio*, a
hook, Italian; *ganche*, French.] To drop from
a high place upon hooks by way of punishment;
a practice in Turkey, to which *Smith* alludes in
his *Pocockius*.—

Cohors catenis qua pia stridulis

Gemunt onusti, vel sude trans lnum

Luctantur acta, pendulive

Sanguineis trepidant in uncis. *Musa Angl.*

GANDANOOKS, or EGYPTIAN HERRINGS,
in ichthyology, a species of fish, belonging either
to the genus of CLUPEA or SCOMBER, of which
vast shoals are caught in the Forth, about the
end of Sept. J. P. Erskine, Esq. of Marr, thus
describes them in his Statistical Account of Alloa.
“ They have a faint resemblance of the mackerel,
but with a long sharp bill like a snipe. This be-
comes fatal to them on our muddy banks, as the
bill is fixed in the mud; and in this way they are
entangled, and caught in great quantities, on the
ebbing of the tide. They are not unpleasant, but
rather dry. They are, however, a great relief to
many poor people. *Stat. Acc.* Vol. VIII. p. 598.

GANDE, a river of Germany, which runs in-
to the Leine, 4 miles WSW. of Gandersheim.

GANDELU, a town of France, in the depart-
ment of Aisne, 8 miles WNW. of Chateau Thier-
ry, and 9 N. of Ferte.

(1.) * GANDER. *n. f.* [*gandra*, Saxon.] The
male

make
as the
five ge
deep drinketh the goose
—One *gander* will serve
lyst.

anthology See ANAS, N° 4.
town of Saxony, in Wol-
It has a famous abbey
ose abbess is a princess. It
of G r.

GANDIA, a sea-port of Spain in Valencia,
with an university. It was taken by the French
in 1706. It is 28 miles S. of Valencia, and 40
NNE. of Alicant. Lon. o. 25. W. Lat. 39. 21. N.

GANDJA, or GANGEA, a town of Asia, in
Georgia, 15 miles NW. of Baku, and 200 SE. of
Teflis. Lon. 47. 10. E. Lat. 41. 12. N.

GANDICOT, or } a town and fort of Indof-
GANDICOTTA, } tan, in the circar of Cud-
dapa, on a mountain near the Penarr. The
road to it is narrow, and cut in the rock, along
the side of a dreadful precipice. Near it is a dia-
mond mine. It is seated in the dominions of the
late Sultan Tippoo, now belonging to Britain. It
lies 87 miles NW. of Nellore, and 33 WNW. of
Cuddapa.

GANDINA, or } a populous town of the Ci-
(1.) GANDINO, } salpine republic, in the de-
partment of Seno, and ci-devant Venetian prov.
of Bergamascio; 10 miles NW. of Bergamo. It
is well built, and has a good trade in cloth and silk.

(2.) GANDINO. See SERIANA. N° 2.

GANGAM, a town in the island of Ceylon,
60 miles SSE of Columba.

GANGSBOROUGH. See GAINSBOROUGH.

GANET ISLANDS, a cluster of small isles, near
the E. coast of Labrador. Lon. 56. 10. W. Lat.
54. 0. N.

GANFORD, a town in Durham, near Burnard.

* GANG. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A number
herding together; a troop; a company; a tribe;
a herd. It is seldom used but in contempt or ab-
horrence.—Oh, you panderly rascals! there's a
knot, a gang, a pack, a conspiracy against me.
Shak: Merry Wives.—As a gang of thieves were
robbing a house, a mastiff fell a barking. *L'Estr.*

Admitted in among the gang,
He ad, and talks as they befriend him. *Prior.*

* To GANG. *v. n.* [*gangen*, Dut. *gangan*, Sax.
gang, Scottish.] To go; to walk; an old word
not now used, except ludicrously.—

But let them gang alone,
As they have brew'd, so let them bear blame.

—Your flaunting beaux gang with their breasts o-
pen. *Arbutnot.*

GANGANELLI. See CLEMENT XIV.

GANGEA. See GANDJA.

GANGLT, a town of Germany, in the cir-
cle of Westphalia, and ci-devant duchy of Juli-
ers; now annexed to the French republic, and
included in the dept. of the Roer: 12 miles SSE.
of Ruremond.

(1.) GANGES, a large and celebrated river of
India. It rises in the mountains which border on
the Thibet, in 96° lon. E. and 35° 45' lat. N. It
crosses several kingdoms, running from N. to S.
and falls into the bay of Bengal by several mouths.
The waters are lowest in April and May, and
highest before the end of September. It over-

flows yearly like the Nile; and renders it
fruitful as the Delta in Egypt. The
these parts hold the water of this river in
neration; and it is visited annually by a
ous number of pilgrims from all parts.
The British have several settlements on it.
The greatest happiness that many of the
wish for, is to die in this river. See I
FOOTER.

(2.) GANGES, a town of France, in
of Herault, 20 miles NE. of Lodeve, a
of Montpellier.

(3, 4.) GANGES ISLANDS, two small i-
tween Borneo and the Gulf of Siam.
45. E. Lat. 4. 45. N.

* GANGHON. *n. f.* [French.] A kin-
er. *Ainsworth.*

(1.) * GANGLION. *n. f.* [*ganglion*].
in the tendinous and nervous parts.—It
usually represent every bone dislocated
possibly it be but a ganglion, or other
mour, or preternatural protuberance of
of a joint. *Wise man.*

(2.) A GANGLION, in anatomy, is a
quently found in the course of the n-
which is not morbid; for wherever any n-
out a branch, or receives one from an-
where the nerves join together, there is
a ganglion or plexus, as may be seen at
ning of all the nerves of the medulla spi-
in many other places of the body.

(3.) A GANGLION, in surgery, (*§ 1.*)
tubercle, generally moveable, in the e-
internal part of the carpus, upon the t-
ligaments in that part; usually without
to the patient.

* To GANGRENATE. *v. n.* [from *g*]
To produce a gangrene; to mortify.—
terized, *gangrenated*, *islated*, and mor-
come black, the radical moisture or vit-
suffering an extinction. *Brown's Vulgar*

(1.) * GANGRENE. *n. f.* [*gangren*
grana, Lat.] A mortification; a stop-
culation followed by putrefaction.—It
ment may be transferred unto the cure of
either coming of themselves, or introdu-
much applying of opiates. *Bacon's Nat*

She saves the lover, as we gangren.

By cutting hope, like a lopt limb, aw-
—A discolouring in the part was suppe-
proach of a gangrene. *Wifem. Surg.*—I
stance of the soul is festered with the
the gangrene is gone too far to be c-
these inflammations will rage to all eter-

(2.) A GANGRENE, is a very great a-
ous degree of inflammation, wherein the
fected begin to corrupt. See MED-
SURGERY.

(1.) * To GANGRENE. *v. n.* [*gangren*
from the noun.] To corrupt to mortifi-
cold countries, when men's noses are
mortified, and, as it were, *gangrened*
if they come to a fire they rot off pre-
that the few spirits that remain in them
suddenly drawn forth, and so putrefact
complete. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Gangrened members must be lop'd
Before the nobler parts are tainted to die

GANGRENE. v. n. To become mor-
bonds immedicable
d fester, and gangrene
mortification. *Milton's Agonistes.*

ions are subject to mortification, so
dies they are apt to gangrene after o-
at fat be not speedily digested out.
urgery.

RENOUS. adj. [from *gangrene*.] Mor-
acing or betokening inortification.—
turning acrimonious, corrodes the
lucing hæmorrhages, pustules red,
d, black and gangrenous. *Arbutnot.*

WAY. n. f. In a ship, the several
ages from one part of it to the other.

WEEK. n. f. [gang and week.] Ro-
when processions are made to lus-
inds of parishes. *Dict.*

COULOR, a town of India, belong-
reat Mogul, 131 miles E. of Bagna-
a very rich diamond mine. Lon. 82.
15. 46. N.

1, a town of Indostan, on the bay of
nging to Britain. Lon. 85. 20. E.
N.

CHIE BRIDGE, a remarkable bridge
rth Esk, in the Mearns, consisting of
, 52 feet wide, standing on two tre-
cks. at a great height above the river:
J. Black, in 1732. See BLACK, N° 5.

T, a town of France, in the dept. of
ci-devant prov. of Bourbonnois; 27
Moulins.

LOR, an island in the Gulf of St Law-
Bird Island. Lat. 48. 0. N.

NET, or SOLAND GOOSE. See PE-
N° 2.

NET ISLAND, an island in the South
e N. coast of New Zealand.

a town of European Turkey in Ro-
miles NE. of Gallipoli.

IZ, a town of Germany, in Stiria.

CH, a town of Germany in Austria,
V. of Maultern.

T, a town of France, in the dept. of
nees, 4 miles S. of Pau.

r, a town of Germany, in the Tirol-
WNW. of Landeck.

ANTELOPE. GANTLET. n. f. [gant-
corrupted from *gantelope*, *gant*, all,
to run, Dutch.] A military punish-
rich the criminal running between the
es a lash from each man.—

ould'st thou, friend, who hast two legs

thou to run the gantlet these expose,
le company of hob-nail'd shoes? *Juv.*
ntlemen are driven with a whip, to
tlet through the several classes. *Locke.*

TELOPE; IN SHIPS OF WAR, is exe-
following manner: The whole ship's
posed in two rows, standing face to
sides of the deck, so as to form a lane
go forward on one side, and return
other; each person being furnished
twisted cord, called a *knittle*, having
ts upon it. The delinquent is then

stripped naked above the waist, and ordered to
pass forward between the two rows of men, and
aft on the other side, a certain number of times,
rarely exceeding three, during which every per-
son gives him a stripe as he runs along. In his
passage through this painful ordeal, he is some-
times tripped up, and very severely handled while
incapable of proceeding. This punishment, which
is called *running the gauntlet*, is seldom inflicted,
except for such crimes as will naturally excite a
general antipathy among the seamen; as, on some
occasions, the culprit would pass without recei-
ving a single blow.

(3.) **GANTELOPE, IN THE LAND SERVICE.**
When a soldier is sentenced to run the gantelope,
the regiment is drawn out in two ranks facing
each other; each soldier, having a switch in his
hand, lashes the criminal as he runs along naked
from the waist upwards. While he runs, the
drums beat at each end of the ranks. Sometimes
he runs 3, 5, or 7, times, according to the nature
of the offence. The major is on horseback, and
takes care that each soldier does his duty.

GANTLET. See GANTELOPE and GAUNT-
LET.

GANTON, a town near Scarborough, Yorksh.

GAN-YE, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in
the prov. of Se-Tchuen, 52 miles W. of Hoa.

GANYMEDES, in mythology, a beautiful
youth of Phrygia, son of Tros and brother to Ilus,
kings of Troy; or, according to Lucian, the son
of Dardanus. Jupiter was charmed with him;
and carrying him away, made him his cup-bearer
in the room of Hebe. Some say that he caused
him to be carried away by an eagle, and others
affirm he was himself the ravisher under the form
of that bird. He deified this youth; and to com-
fort his father made a present to him of some of
those swift horses that the gods rode upon.

* **GANZA. n. f.** [*ganfa*, Spanish, a goose.] A
kind of wild goose, by a flock of which a virtuoso
was fabled to be carried to the lunar world.—

They are but idle dreams and fancies,
And favour strongly of the *ganza's*. *Hudib.*

(1.) **GAOGA**, a country of Africa, W. of Nubia.

(2.) **GAOGA**, a town in the above territory, feat-
ed on a large lake. Lon. 26. 0. E. Lat. 16. 0. N.

(1.) * **GAOL. n. f.** [*geol*, Welsh; *geole*, Fr.]
A prison; a place of confinement. It is always
pronounced and too often written *jail*, and some-
times *goal*.—

Then am I the prisoner, and his bed my gaol. *Sh.*

Have I been ever free, and must my house

Be my retentive enemy, my gaol? *Sh. Timon.*

—If we mean to thrive and do good, break open
the gaols, and let out the prisoners. *Shak. H. VI.*

(2.) **GAOL.** Every county has two gaols, one
for debtors, which may be any house where the
sheriff pleases; the other for the peace and mat-
ters of the crown, which is the county gaol. If
a gaol be out of repair, or insufficient, &c. jus-
tices of peace, in their quarter-sessions, may con-
tract with workmen for the rebuilding or repair-
it; and by their warrant order the sum agreed on
for that purpose to be levied on the several hun-
dreds, and other divisions in the county by a just
rate, 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 19. See PRISON.

* **To GAOL. v. a.** [from the noun.] To im-
prison;

prison; to commit to gaol.—*Gaol*ing vagabonds, was chargeable, pestiferous, and of no open example. *Bacon*.

(1.) * **GAOL DELIVERY.** *n. f.* [*gaol* and *deliver*.] The judicial process, which, by condemnation or acquittal of persons confined, evacuates the prison.

Then doth th' aspiring soul the body leave,
Which we call death; but were it known to all,
What life our souls do by this death receive,
Men would it birth or *gaol-delivery* call. *Davies*.

—These make a general *gaol-delivery* of souls, not for punishment. *Saunders*.

(2.) **GAOL DELIVERY.** The administration of justice being originally in the crown, in former times our kings in person rode through the realm once in 7 years, to judge of and determine crimes and offences; afterwards justices in eyre were appointed; and since, justices of assize and gaol-delivery, &c. A commission of gaol-delivery is a patent, in nature of a letter from the king to certain persons, appointing them his justices, or two or three of them, and authorising them to deliver his gaol, at such a place, of the prisoners in it: for which purpose it commands them to meet at such a place, at the time they themselves shall appoint; and informs them, that, for the same purpose, the king hath appointed his sheriff of the same county to bring all the prisoners of the gaol, and their attachments, before them at the day appointed. The justices of gaol-delivery are empowered by the common law to proceed upon indictments of felony, trespass, &c. and to order to execution or reprieve: they may likewise discharge such prisoners, as on their trials are acquitted, and those against whom, on proclamation being made, no evidence has appeared: they have authority to try offenders for treason, and to punish many particular offences, by statute 3 *Hawk.* 24. 2. *Hale's Hist. Placit. Cor.* 35.

(3.) * **GAOLER.** *n. f.* [from *gaol*.] Keeper of a prison; he to whose care the prisoners are committed.—

This is a gentle provost; seldom, when
The steel'd *gaoler* is the friend of men. *Shak.*
I know not how or why my surly *gaoler*,
Hard as his irons, and insolent as pow'r
When put in vulgar hands, Cleanthes,
Put off the brute. *Dryden's Cleomenes*.

—From the polite part of mankind she had been banished and immured, 'till the death of her *gaoler*. *Tatler*.

(4.) **GAOLERS.** Sheriffs are to make such gaolers for whom they will be answerable: but if there be any default in the gaoler, an action lies against him for an escape, &c. yet the sheriff is most usually charged; 3 *Inst.* 592. Where a gaoler kills a prisoner by hard usage, it is felony; 3 *Inst.* 52. No fee shall be taken by gaolers, but what is allowed by law, and settled by the judges, who may determine petitions against their extortions, &c. 3 *Geo. II. c.* 22.

GAONS, a certain order of Jewish doctors, who appeared in the East, after the closing of the *d.* The word *Gaons* signifies *excellent*, or as in the divinity schools we formerly *be, Sublime, Resolute, Angelic*, and The Gaons succeeded the *Sab-* about the beginning of the 6th

century. Chanah Meischtia was the first of the Gaons. He restored the *Pandebita*, which had been shut up for

(1.) **GAP**, in geography, a town of 1 capital of the dept. of the Upper Alps merly of the late county of Gapençois. ed on the Rhene, at the foot of a mount mineral spring. In 1692, it was bus D. of Savoy. It lies 15 miles S. of Gre 24 N. of Sisteron. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat

(2.) * **GAP.** *n. f.* [from *gap*.] 1. A in a broken fence.—

Behold the despair,
By custom and covetous pates,
By *gaps* and openings of gates. *To*
With terrors and with furies to t
And crystal wall of heav'n; which
wide,

Roll'd inward, and a spacious *gap* d
Into the wasteful deep. *Milton*

—Bushes are most lasting of any for de or to mend *gaps*. *Mort. Husb.*—I thought says God, that should make up the l stand in the *gap* before me, for the l should not destroy it. *Rogers.* 1. A The loss of that city concerned the Chs monweal; manifold miseries afterwards the opening of that *gap* to all that side c dom. *Knolles.* 3. Any passage.—

So stands the Thracian herdsman
Spear

Full in the *gap*, and hopes the hunts
And hears him rushing in the wood.

4. An avenue; an open way.—The fo of England passed into them a great p prerogatives; which though then it w tended, and perhaps well deserved, yet a *gap* of mischief lies open thereby, t with it were well stop. *Spenser.* 5. deficiency.—If you violently proceed, mistaking his purpose, it would make in your honour. *Shak. K. Lear.*—No botch or *gap* in the works of nature.

Any interstice; a vacuity—

Each one demand, and answer to
Perform'd in this wide *gap* of time,
We were dissolv'd. *Shak. Wn*

—That I might sleep out this great *g* My Anthony is away. *Shak. Ant. Cleo*

To make 'twixt words and lines b
Wide as meridians in maps.

—One can revive a languishing conver sudden surprising sentence; another is terous in seconding; a third can fill with laughing. *Swift.* 7. An opening of in speech during the pronunciation of five vowels.—The hiatus, or *gap* bet words, is caused by two vowels openi other. *Pope.* 8. To *stop a GAP*, is to some mean shift: alluding to hedges in dead bushes, 'till the quicksets will gr

His policy consists in setting traps
In finding ways and means, and *stop*

9. To *stand in the GAP*. To make d expose himself for the protection of so danger.—What would become of the

re none more concerned for her rights
? Who would stand in the Gap? *Lesley.*

GAPE. *v. n.* [*gapan*, Saxon.] 1. To
mouth wide; to yawn.—

men there are love not a gaping pig;
that are mad, if they behold a cat.

Shakeſp.

or yawning, and stretching, do pass from
in; for that that causeth gaping and
is when the spirits are a little heavy
pour. *Arbutnot.*—

retches, gapes, unglues her eyes,
as if it be time to rise.

Swift.

in the mouth for food, as a young bird.

As callow birds,
mother's kill'd in seeking of the prey,
heir nest, and think her long away;
each leaf that stirs, each blast of wind,
the food which they must never find.

Dryden.

a drought the thirsty creatures cry,
upon the gather'd clouds for rain,
first the martlet meets it in the sky,
th wet wings joys all the feather'd train,

Dryden.

re earnestly; to crave: with *for*.—
er grim death appears in all her shapes;
agry grave *for* her due tribute gapes.

Denham.

my fortune be not thou a slave;
it hath thou to fear beyond the grave?
who gap'ſt *for* my estate, draw near;
ould whisper somewhat in thy ear.

Dryden.

Her.—What shall we say of those who
days in gaping after court favour and
is? *L'Eſt.* 5. With *at*.—Many have
the church revenues; but, before they
low them, have had their mouths stop-
e church-yard. *South.* 6. To open in
holes.—

flume my noble father's person,
k to it, altho' itself should gape

me hold my peace. *Shak. Hamlet.*
that ground gape, and swallow me alive,
I shall kneel to him that slew my father.

Shak. Hen. VI.

at horse-muffel, with the fine shell, doth
rut as the oysters do. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*
eption of one is as different from the
of the other, as when the earth falls
r the incisions of the plough, and when
d greedily opens itself to drink in the
aven, or the refreshments of a shower.
be mouth of a little artery and nerve
the cavity of these vessels. *Cheyne's*

7. To open with a breach.—

lanks, their pitchy coverings wash'd a-
r,
ld, and now a yawning breach display:
ring waters, with a hostile tide,
ro' the ruins of her gaping side. *Dryd.*

these actions can be performed by ali-
vell as medicines, is plain; by observing
of different substances upon the fluids
when the vessels are open and gape by a
Robert. 8. To open; to have an hiatus.
not, to the best of my remembrance,

one vowel gaping on another for want of a cæsuræ
in this poem. *Dryden.* 9. To make a noise with
open throat.—

And, if my muse can thro' past ages see,
That noisy, nauseous, gaping fool is he. *Rosce.*
10. To stare with hope or expectation.—

Others will gape t' anticipate
The cabinet designs of fate;
Apply to wizards, to foresee

What shall, and what shall never be. *Had.*
11. To stare with wonder.—Parts of different spe-
cies jumbled together, according to the mad ima-
gination of the dawber; and the end of all this to
cause laughter: a very monster in a Bartholomew
fair, for the mob to gape at. *Dryd. Duſt.*—

Where elevated o'er the gaping crowd,
Clasp'd in the board the perjurd head is bow'd,
Betimes retreat. *Gay's Trivia.*

12. To stare irreverently.—They have gaped upon
me with their mouth. *Job. xvi. 30.*

GAPENCOIS, a ci-devant county of France,
in the prov. of Upper Dauphiny, 27 miles long
and 18 broad. Gap was the capital. It is now
included in the dept. of Upper Alps.

GAPENNES, a town of France in the dept.
of Somme, 7 miles NE. of Abbeville.

* **GAPER.** *n. s.* [from *gape*.] 1. One who
opens his mouth. 2. One who stares foolishly.
3. One who longs or craves.—The golden shower
of the dissolved abbey lands rained well near into
every gaper's mouth. *Carew's Survey.*

GAPSAL, a town of Russia, 36 miles SW. of
Revel.

* **GAP TOOTHED.** *adj.* [*gap* and *toothed*.]
Having interstices between the teeth.—The reeve,
miller, and cook, are distinguished from each o-
ther, as much as the mincing lady prioress and
the broad speaking gap-toothed wife of Bath. *Dryd.*
Fab. Pref.

(1.) * **GAR**, in Saxon, signifies a weapon;
so *Edgar* is a happy weapon; *Ethelgar*, a noble
weapon. *Gibson's Camden.*

(2.) **GAR**, or **HORN-FISH.** See **ESOX.**

* **To GAR.** *v. a.* [from *giera*, Icelandick.] To
cause; to make. Obsolete. It is still used in
Scotland.—

Tell me, good Hobbino!, what *gars* thee greet?
What! hath some wolf thy tender lambs yteorn?

Or is thy bagpipe broke, that sounds so sweet?
Or art thou of thy loved lass forlorn. *Spens.*

GARA, or **LOUGH GARA**, a lake of Ireland,
in Sligo county, 20 miles S. of Sligo.

GARABUSA, an island in the Mediterranean,
near the W. coast of Candia, taken by the Turks
in 1692. Lon. 41. 8. E. Lat. 35. 36. N.

GARAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Cha-
rente, 4 miles ESE. of Angoulême.

GARACHIA, or } a town on the W. coast of
GARACHICO, } the isle of Teneriffe.

GARACK, or **BAHHREIN**, an island in the gulf
of Persia, near the mouth of the Euphrates.

GARAMA, in ancient geography, the capital of
the Garamantes in Lybia Interior; near the spring
of the Cinyphus, now in ruins. It lay S. of Gætulia,
extending from the springs of the Cinyphus, and
the Gir, to the mountains which form at the *Val-*
lis Garamantica, (Pliny): or from the springs of
the Bagradas to the lake Nuba, (Ptolemy)

GARA.

See GARAMA.

Garde, a very ingenious letter-founder, who began, in Paris; where he began, in 1564, to set his printing types, free of the Gothic, or (as it is called) black letter, and brought it to such perfection, that he had the glory of it before him, and of being scarcely ever excelled by his successors in that useful art. His types were prodigiously multiplied: both by the great number of matrices he struck, and the types founded in resemblance of his in all parts of Europe. Thus in Italy, Germany, England, and Holland, the booksellers by way of recommending their books, distinguished the types by his name; and in particular, the small Roman was by way of excellence known among the printers of these nations by the name of *Garmond's small Roman*. By the special command of K. Francis I. he founded three sizes of Greek types for the use of Robert Stephens, who with them printed all his beautiful editions of the New Testament, and other Greek authors. He died at Paris in 1561.

GARAN, an island of Scotland, on the coast of Sutherland, 3 miles ESE. of Cape Wrath.

GARASSE, France, a remarkable jesuitical writer, the first author of that irreconcilable enmity which so long subsisted between the Jesuits and Janseuists, in the church of Rome, was born at Angoulême, in 1585, and entered the Jesuits college in 1600. As he had a quick imagination, a strong voice, and a peculiar turn to wit, he became a popular preacher in the chief cities of France; but distinguished himself still more by his writings, which were bold, licentious, and produced much controversy. The most considerable in its consequence was intitled *La somme theologique des vertus capitales de la religion Chretienne*; which was first attacked by the abbot of St Cyran, who observing in it a prodigious number of falsifications of the scriptures and of the fathers, besides many heretical and impious opinions, conceived the honour of the church required him to undertake a refutation. Accordingly he published a full answer to it; while Garasse's book was also under examination of the doctors of the Sorbonne, by whom it was afterwards condemned. Garasse replied to St Cyran; but the Jesuits were forced to remove their brother to a distance from Paris; where, probably weary of his inactive obscurity, when the plague raged at Poitiers, in 1631, he begged leave of his superiors to attend the sick, in which charitable office he was infected and died.

GARAUP, a Cape of France, in the dept. of Var, and ci-devant prov. of Provence, near Antibes. It runs far into the sea and forms the bay of Cannes.

GARAZU, a town of Brazil, 25 miles N. of Olinda.

* GARB. *n. f.* [*garbe*, French.] 1. Drefs; cloaths; habit.—

Thus Belial, with words of reason's garb,

Counsel'd ignoble ease and peaceful sloth.

Milton.

himself into the garb, and habit of a

professor of physic, and sets up. *L'Eclat* of drefs.—

Horace's wit, and Virgil's state,
He did not steal, but emulate;
And when he would like them appear
Their garb, but not their cloaths; and

3. Exterior appearance.—

This is some fellow,
Who, having been prais'd for blunt affect

A saucy roughness, and constrains it
Quite from his nature. *Sh.*

* GARBAGE. *n. f.* [*garbear*, Spanish etymology is very doubtful.] 1. The offal; that part of the inwards which and thrown away.—

The cloyed will
That satiate, yet unsatisfied desire,
Both fill'd and running, ravening for
Lungs after for the garbage. *J.*

Lust, though to a radiant angel like
Will fate itself in a celestial bed,
And prey on garbage. *Sh.*

A flum more sensible than the roe
Of old Aruspicy and augury,
That out of garbage of cattle
Presag'd th' events of trace or battle

Who, without aversion, ever
On holy garbage, though by Homer

—When you receive condign punishment
to your confessor, that parcel of guts a
Dryden.

GARBE, in heraldry, a sheaf of grain, born in several coats of arms, represent summer.

* GARBEL. *n. f.* A plank next to ship. *Bayey.*

* GARBIDGE. *n. f.* Corrupted from
—All shavings of horns, hoofs of ca
and garbage, is good manure for land.

* GARBISH. *n. f.* Corrupted from
—In Newfoundland they improve the
with garbage of fish. *Mort. Husb.*

* To GARBLE. *v. a.* [*garbellare*, Italian]
sift; to part; to separate the good from
But you who fathers and tradition

And garble some, and some you qu

—Had our author set down this com
out garbling, as God gave it, and jo
to father, it had made directly against

—The understanding works to collate
and garble the images and ideas, the
and memory present to it. *Cheyne's P.*

* GARBLER. *n. f.* (from *garble*.)
parates one part from another.—A fa
in this clause may best be discovered
jectors, or at least the garblers of it.
amner.

GARBO, a town of Tuscany, 6
of Larchen.

* GARBO. *n. f.* [*garbouille*, French]
gho, it is a disorder; tumult; uproar.

Look here, and at thy sovereign
What garbo's the awak'd. *Scot. A*

HANSKOL, a town of Ruffian Siberia, 80 miles S. of Tobolsk.

LA, a town of Spain, in the province of 18 miles N. of Tortosa.

LASSO DE LA VEGA, or **Garcias Laf-vega**. See **VEGA**.

INIA, in botany; a genus of the mon-der, belonging to the dodecandria class and in the natural method ranking un-der order, *Sicernes*. The calyx is tetra-ferior; there are 4 petals; the berry is ous, and crowned with a shield-like There is but one species; viz.

MA NGOSTANA, a tree of great ele- producing the most pleasant fruit of own. See *Plata CLX, fig. 4*. This been very accurately described by Dr n honour of whom, Linnaeus gave it the the 35th vol. of the *Philos. Transf.* It informs us, to about 17 or 18 feet high, straight taper stem like a fir," having a it in form of an oblong cone, composed ranches and twigs, spreading out equal- sides without leaving any hollow. Its

oblong, pointed at both ends, entire, f a shining green on the upper side, and e on the back. Its flower is composed almost round, or a little pointed; their embles that of a rose, only deeper and . The calyx of this flower is of one anded, and cut into 4 lobes. The two es are something larger than the lower y are greenish on the outside, and of p red within: the red of the upper ones ily than that of the lower ones. This

loses all the parts of the flower; it is by a pedicle, which is green, and con- mes out of the end of a twig above the of leaves. The fruit is round, of the small orange, from an inch and an half ches diameter. The body of this fruit is of one cavity, composed of a thick rind, ke that of a pomegranate, but softer, nd fuller of juice. Its thickness is com- a quarter of an inch. Its outer colour

brown purple, mixed with a little grey green. The inside of the peel is a rose ad its juice is purple. This skin is of a - astringent taste, like that of a pome- nor does it stick to the fruit it contains. e of this fruit is a furrowed globe, divid- gments, like those of an orange, but un- size, and not adhering to each other.

ber of these segments is always equal to e rays of the top which covers the fruit. r there are of these segments; the bigger There are often in the same fruit leg- big again as any of those that are on the :m. These segments are white, a little it, fleshy, membranous, full of juice like r raspberries, of a taste of strawberries s together. Each of the segments in- ect of the figure and size of an almond s. These seeds are covered with two s, the outermost of which serves for a be filaments and membranes of which is composed. The substance of these

There are often in the same fruit leg- big again as any of those that are on the :m. These segments are white, a little it, fleshy, membranous, full of juice like r raspberries, of a taste of strawberries s together. Each of the segments in- ect of the figure and size of an almond s. These seeds are covered with two s, the outermost of which serves for a be filaments and membranes of which is composed. The substance of these

PART I.

seeds comes very near to that of chestnuts, as to their consistency, colour, and astringent quality.

"This tree (says Dr Garcin,) originally grows in the Molucca islands, where it is called *mangostan*, but has been transplanted from thence to the islands of Java and Malacca, at which last place it thrives very well. Its tuft is so fine, so regular, so equal, and the appearance of its leaves so beautiful, that it is at present looked upon at Batavia as the most proper for adorning a garden and affording an agreeable shade. There are few seeds, however, to be met with in this fruit that are good for planting, most part of them being abortive." He adds, that one may eat a great deal of this fruit without any inconvenience; and that it is the only one which sick people may be allowed to eat without any scruple. Other writers concur in their praises of this fruit. Rumphius observes, that the mangostan is universally acknowledged to be the best and wholesomest fruit that grows in India; that its flesh is juicy, white, almost transparent, and of as delicate and agreeable a flavour as the richest grapes; the taste and smell being so grateful, that it is scarce possible to be cloyed with eating it. He adds, that when sick people have no relish for any other food, they generally eat this with great delight; but, should they refuse it, their recovery is no longer expected. "It is remarkable (says he) that the mangostan is given with safety in almost every disorder. The dried bark is used with success in the dysentery and tenesmus; and an infusion of it is esteemed a good gargle for a sore mouth or ulcers in the throat. The Chinese dyers use this bark for the basis of a black colour, to fix it the firmer." Captain Cook, in his *Voyage round the World*, vol. iii. p. 737, says this tree is peculiar to the East Indies. The fruit is about the size of the crab-apple, and of a deep red wine colour. On the top of it is the figure of 5 or 6 small triangles joined in a circle; and at the bottom several hollow green leaves, which are remains of the blossom. When they are to be eaten, the skin or rather flesh must be taken off; under which are found 6 or 7 white kernels, placed in a circular order; and the pulp with which these are enveloped is the fruit, than which nothing can be more delicious. It is a happy mixture of the tart and the sweet, which is no less wholesome than pleasant; and, like the sweet orange, is allowed in any quantity to those who are afflicted with putrid or inflammatory fevers.

GARCON, or **GARSOON**, a French term, literally signifying a boy, or young man unmarried, applied to certain inferior officers, among us called *grooms*, *garçones*. Thus all the servants in the late French king's chambers, wardrobe, &c. who held the lesser offices thereof under the proper officers, were called *garçons de la chambre, de la garderobe*, &c.

(1.) * **GARD**. *n. f.* [*garde*, French.] Ward-ship; care; custody.

(2.) **GARD**, in geography, a department of France, comprehending part of the ci devant province of Languedoc. It is bounded on the N. by the departments of Lozere and Ardeche; on the E. by the Rhone; on the S. by the Mediterranean, and

FF

the

and on the W. by those of Nîmes is the Capital. ancient Roman aqueduct in of Nîmes, erected, it is sup- n the time of Augustus Cæsar, s the water of the spring of near Uzès. It is 160 feet in of three bridges, reared one s to unite two craggy moun- and uppermost of these brid- f great blocks of stone, with- n the bridge, on which this the lowest, under which runs arches. Lewis XIV. when , the damages which this su- sustained by time, caused a travellers now pass, to be le of the lower range of arches. s the of the Cispine republic, i the Austria, the line of ealy of Campo Formio ran- end of it. It is formed by

two rivers, the Sarac and the Tuscoulano; and is 30 miles long, from 2 to 10 broad, and 100 feet deep. The whirlwinds from the mountains of Trent and Verona give it a stormy motion re- ssembling the waves of the sea. It was anciently named *Benacus*, and is described by Virgil in his *Georgics*, lib. 2. as peculiarly subject to these tem- p.⁸ *notis motibus* :

"*Benacus with tempestuous billows vext.*"

From this its ancient name is derived the modern name of the department, *Benaro*, which is seated on its banks. Its fish are famous for their delici- ous flavour; and the fishery was formerly farmed at 8000 silver ducats. It belonged entirely to Verona before the treaty of Campo Formio.

(2.) **GARDA**, an open town of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese, N. of Lacize; anciently a for- tress, with a citadel now in ruins, where the em- press Adelheit widow of Lothair, and wife of Otho I, was confined by Berenger II. It is seat- ed at the end of the lake, (N. 1.) 17 miles NW. of Verona. Lon. 11. 4. E. Lat. 45. 36. N.

(3.) **GARDA**, a district of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese, containing 8 parishes.

GARDANNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the mouths of the Rhone, 9 miles NNE. of Marseilles.

GARDANT, or **GUARDANT**, in heraldry, de- notes any beast full-faced and looking right for- ward.

GARDE, a town of France, in the dep. of Vaucluse, and district of Toulon; 6 miles W. of Marseilles.

GARDEIAH, a town of Africa, the capital of Beni-Mezzag. Lon. 2. 30. E. Lat. 32. 15. N.

GARDELBEN, or) a town of Brandenburg,

GARDELEGEN, } famous for its beer, and cloth manufacture; 44 miles WNW of Branden- burg.

(1.) **GARDEN**, Francis, Lord Gardenstone, the ad. son of Alexander Garden of Troup, Esq, by Jean, daughter of Sir Francis Grant, Lord Cullen, was born at Edinburgh, 24th Ju. 8, 1721. After passing through the usual course of liberal education, at that university, he studied the law

admitted a member of the faculty of

Advocates in 1744. He soon began gushed in his practice as an advoca- tive rectitude of understanding, imagination, as well as by a manly guement, which is often more f sophical artifice. Although his life seemed to throw obstruction his rising to eminence in his profes- ing him too often to indulge in ti cup of pleasure, yet the native vig- raised him so high in the public ef- with little or no political interest, rose to the high legal functions of cate Depute, and Solicitor Gene- different offices, particularly the- gushed himself no less by his legal by his liberal views, independent li- terested conduct. His professional lawyer derived the highest lustre from in the Douglas cause, in which b- by Mr Wedderburn, (the present cellor,) before the parliament of Pa- knowledge in the law, and fluent e- French language, procured him an- tion. In 1764, he was promoted t- able offices of a Judge in the courts- Justiciary. The former of these l- death, but resigned the latter in 171- ous and conduct in both were equa- ed by integrity and discernment, b- candour. He was remarkable for his decisions in civil causes; and- Juries on criminal trials did equal head and his heart. In 1762, he- estate of Johnstone, in Kincardines- after set on foot a plan of the most li- ment of its value by an extension o- Laurencekirk; which, from being- or 7 houses, containing only 54 per- to the rank of a burgh of barony, g- own magistrates, and filled with- dustrious inhabitants, who carry- portant manufactures, and have a- weekly market, &c. See LAURENC- In Dec. 1785, upon the death of his- Alexr. Garden Esq; M. P. for Abe- succeeded to the estate of Troup, a year, and a fortune of 40,000l. T- lord Gardenstone's income had nev- than adequate to the liberal expen- his rank and the generosity of his- turally led him. But this addition- year to his former income enabled l- his generous propensities to the f- stance of his liberality to a man of a- versity we have mentioned in our- late Dr Brown. (See BROWN, N. 7. similar instances of his private bene- be condescended on, did our room- however, we cannot entirely pa- lordship's zeal for the principles- Constitution having led him not o- active part himself, in promoting a- Royal Boroughs, but also to influer- merchant in Aberdeen with whom- mate, to show equal zeal in the ca- his business had been considerab- Gardenstone no sooner got posses-

he made his mercantile friend a present. The same liberal principles of public philanthropy led him to give 300l. to the Society for the Borough reform, as well as a sum to the Association for the Abolition of the African Slave Trade: in which last he took a zealous and active part, by attending at several of the Society's first public meetings in Edinburgh, and signing their addresses and resolutions in the Newspapers. On Sept. 1786, he set out for Dover, on his way to France. After visiting Paris, he went to Provence, and spent the winter at Aix. In spring 1787, he returned northwards; he visited Geneva, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and the Provinces; passed through Germany, and having surveyed all its great cities, numerous monuments of its ancient as well as its many natural curiosities, returned to his native country, in 1789, after an absence of 3 years, in much better health than when he left it. He died at his seat at Moray, Edinburgh, on the 21st July 1793, at the age of 57 years. With regard to his person, he was above the middle size, robust and healthy, and as to his dress, Diogenes himself was his model. His manners were highly polished, and his conversation was highly interesting. Of his comprehensive genius, and excellent classical taste as an author, a few writings he has published afford evidence. His *Travelling Memorandums*, are evidently written "on the spur of the moment," and discover not only just observation on all subjects which occurred to his recollection, but an acquaintance with the best authors, a talent for composition, and a gayety of fancy, which never fails to please. His *Criticisms on English Historians* appear to be impartially just and striking; though some might be thought to favour of democratic principles. His *Letter to the Inhabitants of Moray* exhibits a mind animated with the truest and philanthropic desire to promote the welfare of his rising village;—free from the taint of liberal prejudice, yet under the strong influence of the wisdom and goodness of the British government of the universe, and a full view of the infinite advantages which man derives from Revelation. Beside these acknowledgments, his lordship wrote many anonymous poems in prose and verse, which were published in his younger years in different periodicals, and which, it is to be regretted, have been collected and reprinted. Being a great admirer of *Spenser*, he began a series of Critical Poems, in the *Gentleman and the Gentlewoman*, published at Edinburgh in 1774, and stopping of that work at the end of the year, he put an end to his lordship's criticisms in that poem, and he never resumed them in any other form. As a public speaker his lordship's eloquence was natural and energetic. There was a variety and modulation in the tone of his voice, which attracted attention and delighted the

hearers. We cannot close this brief memoir, which want of room only obliges us to shorten, without mentioning, that the erection of St Bernard's well near Edinburgh, upon the model of the Temple at Tivoli in Italy, for the benefit of the health of the citizens of that metropolis, will afford a lasting monument of lord Gardenstone's taste, as well as of his public spirit. See *BERNARD'S WELL, ST.*

(2.) * GARDEN. *n. s.* [*gardd*, Welsh; *jardin*, French; *giardino*, Italian.] 1. A piece of ground inclosed, and cultivated with extraordinary care, planted with herbs or fruits for food, or laid out for pleasure.—

Thy promises are like Adonis' gardens,
Which one day bloom'd and fruitful were the
next. *Shak.*

My lord of Ely, when I was last in Holbourn,
I saw good Strawberries in your garden there.

Shak. Rich. III.

—In the royal ordering of gardens, there ought to be gardens for all the months in the year. *Bacon.*

—In every garden should be provided flowers, fruit, shade and water. *Temple.*

My garden takes up half my daily care,
And my field asks the minutes I can spare.

Harte.

2. A place particularly fruitful or delightful.—

I am arriv'd from fruitful Lombardy,

The pleasant garden of great Italy. *Shak.*

3. GARDEN is often used in composition for *border*, *tenants*, or belonging to a garden. 4. *Garden-mould*. Mould fit for a garden.—They delight most in rich black garden-mould, that is deep and light, and mixed rather with sand than clay. *Mortimer.* 5. *Garden-tillage*. Tillage used in cultivating gardens.—Peas and beans are what belong to garden-tillage as well as that of the field. *Mort. Husb.* 6. *Garden-ware*. The produce of gardens.—A clay bottom is a much more pernicious soil for trees and garden-ware than gravel. *Mort. Husb.*

(3.) GARDEN. See GARDENING.

(4.) GARDEN BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 54. 50. W. Lat. 49. 42. N.

(5.) GARDENS, FLOATING. Abbé Clavigero, in his *History of Mexico*, says, that when the Mexicans were brought under subjection to the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the miserable little islands on the lake of Mexico, they had no land to cultivate, until necessity compelled them to form moveable fields and gardens, which floated on the waters of the lake. The method which they adopted, to make these, and which they still practise, is extremely simple. They plait and twist together willows and roots of marsh plants or other materials, which are light, but capable of supporting the earth firmly united. Upon this foundation they lay the light bulrushes which float on the lake; and over all, the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various; but generally they are about 8 perches long, and not more than 3 in breadth, and have less than a foot of elevation above the surface of the water. These were the first fields which the Mexicans had after the foundation of Mexico.

the...
nber
became named
they cultivated
plants, which
their gods, as
At present th
of garden h
rise, innume
of flowers an
arrive by the
that capital.

...plants thrive in them surpris-
ly; the mud of the lake affords a very fertile soil,
and requires no water from the clouds. In the
large gardens there is commonly a little tree, and
even a little hut to shelter the cultivator and de-
fend him from rain or the sun. When the *Chi-
nampa*, or owner of a garden, wishes to change
his situation, to remove from a disagreeable neigh-
bour, or to come nearer to his own family, he
gets into his little vessel, and by his own strength
alone if the garden is small, he tows it after him,
and conducts it wherever he pleases. That part
of the lake, where these floating gardens are, is a
place of high recreation, where the senses receive
all possible gratification.

(6.) GARDENS, HANGING, in antiquity, gardens
raised on arches by Nebuchadnezzar king of Ba-
bylon, to gratify his wife Amyctis, daughter of
Astyages king of Media. Q. Curtius makes them
equal in height to the walls of the city, viz. 50
feet. They contained a square of 400 feet on
every side, and were carried up into the air in
several terraces laid above one another, and the
ascent from terrace to terrace was by stairs 10 feet
wide. The arches sustaining the whole pile were
raised above one another, and it was strengthened
by a wall, surrounding it on every side, of 22 feet

in thickness. The floors of each of
the arches were first laid large flat
long and 4 broad. Over them was a
mixed with a great quantity of bit
which were two rows of bricks clost
together by plaster, and over all wa
sheets of lead; and upon the lead
mould of the garden. The mould
of such a depth as to admit the la
take root and grow: and it was
various kinds of trees, plants, and
the upper terrace there was an engi
water was drawn up out of the river
the whole garden.

* To GARDEN. *v. n.* [from the
cultivate a garden; to lay out garden

At first, in Rome's *pro* ag
When both her kings and consuls hel
Or garden'd well. *Ben Jon*

—When ages grow to civility and el
come to build stately, sooner than to
ly; as if gardening were the grea
Bacon.

* GARDENER. *n. s.* [from *garde*
attends or cultivates gardens.—Our
gardens, to the which our walls are
that, if we plant nettles, or low
power lies in our will. *Shak Spee*
tread down any loose ground. If
sown onions or turnips. *Bacon's Na*
gardener may lop religion as he pleat
The life and felicity of an excellen
preferable to all other diversions. *E*

Then let the learned *gard'ner* ex
The kinds of stocks, and what th
bear.

GARDENIA. See GARDINIA.

G A R D E N I N G.

INTRODUCTION.

SECT. I. DEFINITIONS.

GARDENING is thus defined by Dr John-
son:

* GARDENING. *n. s.* [from *garden*.] The act
of cultivating or planning gardens.—My compo-
sitions in *gardening* are after the Pindarick man-
ner, and run into the beautiful wildness of nature,
without affecting the nicer elegancies of art. *Spee*

In the preceding definition, Dr Johnson is ma-
nifestly deficient. GARDENING is an ART, which
comprehends a great variety of *arts*, both of the
planning and cultivation of gardens. Considered
in its utmost extent, whatever contributes to ren-
der the scenes of vegetable nature delightful, forms
a part of gardening; but in its more limited sense,
it denotes the cultivation of gardens for the sake
of their produce. In this last sense, as the most
important, we mean chiefly to treat of it.

SECT. II. HISTORY of GARDENING.

GARDENING, says Mr Walpole, in his *History*

of Modern Gardening, was probabl
first arts that succeeded to that of bu
and naturally attended property an
possession. Culinary, and afterwa
herbs, were the objects of every hea
it became convenient to have them
without seeking them at random i
meadows, and on mountains, as
were wanted. When the earth cea
spontaneously all those primitive lux-
ture became requisite, separate inclo-
ing herbs grew expedient. Fruits
same predicament; and those most i
demanded attention, must have ext
extended the domestic inclosure.

NOAH planted a vineyard, and
wine, and every body knows the
Thus we acquired vineyards, as w
gardens, and orchards. No doubt
of all these sorts was the garden of E
radite was a great deal larger than a
read of afterwards, being inclosed
Pison, Gihon, Hiddekel, and Euphr
ry tree that was pleasant to the sigh

er in it; and as two other trees were like-
 und there, of which not a slip or sucker
 s; it does not belong to the present dis-
 . After the Fall, nobody was suffered
 r into the garden; and the poverty and
 ies of our first ancestors hardly allow-
 m time to make improvements in imita-
 it, supposing any plan had been prefer-
 A cottage and a slip of ground for a cab-
 and a gooseberry-bush, such as we see by the
 a common, were in all probability the ear-
 sts and gardens: a well and bucket succeed-
 the Pilon and Euphrates. As settlements in-
 d, the orchard and the vineyard followed;
 e earliest princes of tribes possessed just the
 aries of a modern farmer.

ters, we may well believe, remained long in
 tuation; and we have reason to think, that
 any centuries the term *garden* implied no
 than a kitchen garden or orchard. The
 s of ALCINOUS, in the *Odyssey*, is the most
 med in the heroic times. No admirer of
 r can read his description without rapture.
 continues our author, what was that boast-
 radise with which

the gods ordain'd

grace Alcinous and his happy land?
 diverted of harmonious Greek and bewitch-
 etry, it was a small orchard and vineyard,
 some beds of herbs and two fountains that
 ed them, inclosed within a quick-set hedge.
 hole compass of this pompous garden in-
 four acres:

acres was th' allotted space of ground,
 d with a green inclosure all around.
 es were apples, figs, pomegranates,
 olives, and vines. Alcinous's garden was
 d by the poet, enriched by him with the
 gift of eternal summer, and no doubt an
 of imagination surpassing any thing he
 ever seen. As he has bestowed on the same
 y prince a palace with brazen walls and co-
 s of silver, he certainly intended that the gar-
 d should be proportionably magnificent. We
 are, therefore, that, as late as Homer's age,
 nclosure of 4 acres, comprehending orchard,
 yard, and kitchen garden, was a stretch of
 y the world at that time had never beheld,"
 ere this era, however, we have in the sacred
 s hints of a garden still more luxuriously
 ed. We allude to the Song of Solomon,
 p. ii. v. 1.) part of the scene of which is un-
 edly laid in a garden. Flowers and fruits
 particularly spoken of as the ornaments and
 produce of it; and besides these, aromatic ve-
 gables formed a considerable part of the gratifi-
 cations it afforded. The camphor and the cinna-
 m tree, with all trees of frankincense, and
 the chief spices flourished there, (Cant. iv. 13.)
 LONDON tells us, (Eccl. ii. 4, 5.) That he made
 great works;—gardens and orchards, and
 d in them trees of every kind. Indeed we
 suppose his gardens to have been both amp-
 ly and curiously furnished, seeing the kinds, na-
 ture, and properties of the vegetable tribes, were
 his favorite study with the royal philosopher, and
 he deemed a subject worthy of his pen: for we
 are told, that he wrote of plants, from the great

cedar of Lebanon down to the hyssop of the wall.
 (2 Kings iv, 33.) Fountains, and streams of water
 appear also to have had a share in the composition;
 probably for ornament as well as use.

The HANGING GARDENS of Babylon were a
 still greater prodigy. But as they are supposed to
 have been formed on terraces and the walls of the
 palace, whither soil was conveyed on purpose, Mr
 Walpole concludes, "they were what sumptuous
 gardens have been in all ages till the present, un-
 natural, enriched by art, possibly with fountains,
 statues, balustrades, and summer-houses, and
 were any thing but verdant and rural." Others,
 however, have allowed them greater praise.
 They seem, in many respects, to have been laid
 out with good taste. Their elevation not only
 produced a variety and extent of view, but was
 also useful in moderating the heat. Such a si-
 tuation would likewise suit a greater variety of
 trees and plants than a plain surface, and would
 contain a larger as well as a more diversified ex-
 tent.

The suiting of the situation to the nature of the
 trees seems, from the account given by Josephus,
 (*Contra Apion*, lib. i. § 19.) to have been one view
 in the erecting the building in such a manner.
 And the success seems to have been answerable,
 as the trees (says Quintus Curtius, lib. 5.) flourish-
 ed extremely well, and grew as tall as in their na-
 tive situations. On the whole, they seem to have
 been formed with judgment and taste, and well
 adapted to the situation and circumstances.

The eastern gardens appear to have been plant-
 ed adjoining to the house or palace to which they
 belonged. Thus, king Ahasuerus went immedi-
 ately from the banquet of wine to walk in
 the garden of the palace. Esther, vii. 7. The
 garden of CYRUS, at Sardis, mentioned by Xeno-
 phon, seems to have been contiguous to the pa-
 lace; as was that of ATTALUS, mentioned by
 Justin. l. 36. c. 4. The hanging gardens at Ba-
 bylon, were not so much adjacent to the palace,
 as a part of the palace itself. since several of the
 royal apartments were beneath them. *Diod.* lib. 2.

We are not certain what the taste for gardening
 was among the Greeks. The ACADEMUS was a
 wooded shady place; and the trees appear to
 have been of the olive species. It was situated be-
 yond the limits of the walls, and adjacent to the
 tombs of the heroes; and tho' we are not inform-
 ed of the particular manner in which this grove
 was laid out, it may be gathered from Pausanius's
Attica, that it was elegantly ornamented. At the
 entrance was an altar dedicated to Love. Within
 the Academus, were the altars of Prometheus, the
 Muses, Mercury, Minerva, and Hercules; and
 at a small distance was the tomb of Plato. So
 that, in all probability, it was highly adapted by
 art, as well as nature, to philosophic reflection
 and contemplation.

PLUTARCH tells us, that before the time of Ci-
 mon, the Academus was a rude and uncultivated
 spot: but that it was planted by that general, and
 had water conveyed to it. It was divided into gym-
 nasia, or places of exercise, and philosophic walks,
 shaded with trees. These are said to have flourish-
 ed very well, until they were destroyed by Sylla,
 along with those in the Lyceum. Near the aca-
 demy

GARDENING.

SACR.

were the gardens of the philosophers, of which Epicurus; which, however, were but small. The scene of Plato's *Dial.* concerning Beauty is elegantly described as on the banks of the river Ilissus, and under shade of the plantane; but as no artificial arrangement of objects is mentioned, the prospect is to have been merely natural.

The art of gardening does not appear to have been among the Romans, otherwise than as a matter of utility, till a very late period; at least the writers on husbandry, Cato, Varro, Columella, and Palladius, make no mention of a garden as an object of pleasure, but solely with respect to its productions of herbs and fruits. The gardens of Lucullus are the first we find mentioned of remarkable magnificence; though indeed from the extravagance to which these were arrived, it is evident, they could not be the first. Plutarch speaks of them as incredibly expensive, and equal to the magnificence of kings. They contained artificial elevations of ground to a surprising height, of buildings projected into the sea, and vast pieces of water upon land. In short, his extravagance was so great, that he acquired the appellation of the *Roman Xerxes*. It is not improbable, from the consideration of Lucullus having spent much time in Asia, in a situation wherein he had an opportunity of observing the most splendid constructions of this kind, that these gardens might be laid out in the Asiatic style. The vast masses of building said to have been erected, might have borne some resemblance, in the arrangement and style, to the Babylonian gardens.

The *Tusculan Villa* of Cicero, though often mentioned, is nowhere described in his works, so as to give an adequate idea of the style in which his gardens were disposed.

Little is to be traced in Virgil relative to this subject. Pines, it seems probable, were a favourite ornament in gardens; (*Ecl.* vii. 65) and flowers, roses especially, were much esteemed, (*Georg.* iv. 218) perfumes indeed having been always highly valued in warm climates. Virgil places Anchises in Elysiun, in a grove of bays, of the sweet-scented kind. The Persian roses were chiefly valued for their excellent odour; and the same quality appears to be the cause why they were placed by Tibullus as ornaments to the Elysiun fields. There appears also to have prevailed among the Romans a piece of luxury relative to gardens, which is equally prevalent at present among us, namely, the forcing of flowers at seasons of the year not suited to their natural blowing: and roses were then, as at present, the principal flowers upon which these experiments were tried; as appears from Martial, Lampridius, and others. See *Epig.* l. vi. *co.* 80, &c.

When Roman authors, (Mr Walpole remarks,) whose climate infused a wish for cool retreats, speak of their enjoyments in that kind, they sigh for grottoes, caves, and the refreshing hollows of mountains, near irriguous and shady founts; or boast of their porticoes, walks of plants, canals, baths, and breezes from the sea. Their gardens are never mentioned as affording shade and shelter from the rage of the dog-star. Pliny

gives us descriptions of two of his villas. As he

used his Laurentine villa for his winter retreat, it is not surprising that the garden makes no considerable part of the account. All he says of that the *gestatio* or place of exercise, which surrounded the garden (the latter consequently being very large), was bounded by a hedge of vines, and where that was perished, with roses, that there was a walk of vines; and that among the trees were fig and mulberry, the soil being proper for any other sorts. On his Tusculan villa he is more diffuse; the garden makes a considerable part of the description.—and what the principal beauty of that pleasure ground was, exactly what was the admiration of this country about 60 years ago; box trees cut into many shapes, animals, letters, and the names of the maker, the artificer. In an age when architecture displayed all its grandeur, all its purity, and all its splendour, when arose Vespasian's amphitheatre, the temple of Peace, Trajan's forum, Domitian's baths, Adrian's villa, the ruins and vestiges of which excite our astonishment; a Roman consul, a friend of the emperor's friend, and a man of elegant taste and taste, delighted in what the most discerning scarcely admire in a college garden. All the ingredients of Pliny's corresponded exactly to those laid out by London and Wile on the principles. He talks of slopes, terraces, a canal, shrubs methodically trimmed, a marble basin, pipes issuing water, a cascade falling into the basin, by trees alternately planted with box and a straight walk, from whence issue paths there parted off by hedges of box and trees, with obelisks placed between every path. There wants nothing but the embroidery of flowers, to make a garden in the reign of the emperor serve for the description of one in that of William III. In one passage, however, Pliny seems to have conceived that natural irregularity to be a beauty: *in opere uroanismo, (say) he, velut illam rursus imitationem.* Something like a view was contrived amidst so much posited position. But the idea soon vanished, lived immediately enveloped the sight scene, and inscriptions in box again succeeded to compensate for the daring intrusion of nature.

In the paintings found at Herculaneum a few traces of gardens, as may be seen in the volume of the prints. They are small square enclosures, formed by trellis-work and espaliers, and regularly ornamented with vases, fountains, and cariatides, elegantly symmetrical, and proper for the narrow spaces allotted to the garden of a house in a capital city.

From these remarks, it appears how narrow and insensibly the idea of a kitchen garden grew into that which has for so many ages been generally termed a garden, and by our ancestors in the country distinguished by the name of a *pleasure garden*. A square piece of ground was originally parted off in early ages for the use of the farmer—to exclude cattle, and ascertain the produce; it was separated from the fields by a hedge, and pride and design of privacy increased, the garden was dignified by walls; and in climates where were not lavished by the ripening glow of sun and soil, fruit trees were assisted and sheltered from the surrounding winds by the like expedient; for

of luxuries, which have swelled into geometrics, have almost all taken their source in a simple fountain of reason.

Nature and prospect were thus excluded, the art of making square gardens inclosed, pomp and solitude combined to calling that might enrich and enliven the unanimated partition. Fountains, first for use, which grandeur loves to disguise out of sight, received embellishments of marbles, and at last, to contradict nature, were, tossed their waste of waters into rising columns. Art, in the hands of man, had at first been made a succedaneum in the hands of ostentatious wealth, it became a means of opposing nature; and the more perfected the march of the latter, the more sought its power was demonstrated. Directed by the line were introduced in winding streams, and terraces were hoisted in opposition to the facile slopes that immediately unite the valley to the hill. Balustrades beset precipitate and dangerous elevations, and steps rejoined them to the subjacent flat where the terrace had been dug. Vases and urns were added to the unnecessary balconies, and furnished the lifeless spot with mimic tions of the excluded sons of men. Thus pomp and expence were the constituent parts of sumptuous and selfish solitudes; and every movement that was made, was but a step from nature. The tricks of water-works were unwary, not to refresh the panting traveller, but to amuse the eye. The walks and parterres embroidered in patterns of mosaic, were but the childish endeavours of man to add novelty to reconcile greatness to a confined space.

When these impotent displays of false taste, were applied to the lovely wildness of nature, which nature has distinguished each variety of tree and shrub. The venerable romantic beech, the useful elm, even the circuit of the lime, the regular round yew, and the almost moulded orange were corrected by such fantastic admirers of art. The compass and square were of more use than the nursery-man. The meander, the quincunx, and the étoile, imposed unsatisfying sameness on every royal and garden. Trees were headed, and their sides painted green; many French groves seem green upon poles. Seats of marble, arbours, summer-houses, terminated every vista; and even where the space was too large to be being remarked at one view, was so effectual, as Pope observed,

—each alley has a brother,
If the garden just reflects the other,
Flowers were more defensibly subjected to the regularity. As Milton expressed it,
Leisure

In gardens took his pleasure.

At the garden of Marshal de Biron at Paris, containing six acres, every walk was buttoned on by lines of flower-pots, which succeeded in rows.

It does not precisely appear what our ancestors called a bower: it was probably an arbour;

sometimes it meant the whole fenced inclosure, and in one instance it certainly included a labyrinth. Rosamond's bower was indisputably of that kind; though whether composed of walls or hedges, we cannot determine. A square and a round labyrinth were so capital ingredients of a garden formerly, that in Du Cerceau's architecture, who lived in the time of Charles IX. and Henry III. there is scarce a ground plot without one of each.

In Kip's Views of the Seats of our Nobility and Gentry, we see the same tiresome and returning uniformity. Every house is approached by two or three gardens, consisting perhaps of a gravel walk and two grass plats or borders of flowers. Each rises above the other by two or three steps, and as many walls and terraces, and so many iron gates, that we recollect those ancient romances in which every entrance was guarded by giants or dragons. Yet though these and such preposterous inconveniences prevailed from age to age, good sense in this country had perceived the want of something at once more grand and more natural.

These reflections, and the bounds set to the waste made by royal spoilers, gave origin to Parks. They were contracted forests, and extended gardens. Hentzer says, that, according to Rous of Warwick, the first park was that at Woodstock. If so, it might be the foundation of a legend that Henry II. secured his mistress in a labyrinth: it was no doubt more difficult to find her in a park than in a palace, where the intricacy of the woods and various lodgings buried in covert might conceal her actual habitation. It is more extraordinary that, having so long ago stumbled on the principle of modern gardening, we should have persisted in retaining its reverse, symmetrical and unnatural gardens. That parks were rare in other countries, Hentzer, who travelled over great part of Europe, leads us to suppose, by observing that they were common in England. In France they retain the name, but nothing is more different both in compass and disposition. Their parks are usually square or oblong inclosures, regularly planted with walks of chestnuts or limes, and generally every large town has one for its public recreation.

“One man, one great man we had (continues Mr Walpole), on whom nor education nor custom could impose their prejudices; who, ‘on evil days though fallen, and with darkness and solitude compassed round’ judged that the mistaken and fantastic ornaments he had seen in gardens were unworthy of the Almighty hand that planted the delights of Paradise. He seems with the prophetic eye of taste to have conceived, to have foreseen modern gardening; as Lord Bacon announced the discoveries since made by experimental philosophy. The description of Eden is a warmer and more just picture of the present style than Claud Lorraine could have painted from Hagley or Stourhead. The first lines we shall quote exhibit Stourhead on a more magnificent scale:

Thro' Eden went a river large,
Nor chang'd his course, but thro' the shaggy hill
Pass'd underneath ingulph'd: for God had
thrown

That mountain as his garden mould, high rais'd
Upon the rapid current——

G A R D E N I N G

and in what follows:
 from veins
 with kindly thirst updrawn,
 down, and with many a rill
 at freedom of pencil, what
 re!
 sapphire fount the crisped

pearl and sands of gold,
 under pendent shades,
 each plant, and fed
 Paradise, which not *nice art*
 knots, but *nature* boon
 se on hill and dale and plain,
 the morning sun first warmly smote
 it, and where the unpierc'd shade
 the noon-tide bow'rs:—*Thus was*

various views.
 description, paint to your
 slow, contrast them with
 the terror with which the
 of his paradise, fenced
 the champaign head

in wildness, whose hairy sides
 yet overgrown, grotesque and wild,
 nished; and over head up grew
 Insupportable height of loftiest shade,
 Cedar and pine, and fir, and branching palm,
 A sylvan scene, and, as the ranks ascend,
 Shade above shade, a woody theatre,
 Of stateliest view—

and then recollect, that the author of this sublime vision had never seen a glimpse of any thing like what he has imagined; that his favourite ancients had dropped not a hint of such divine scenery; and that the conceits in Italian gardens, and Theobalds and Nonfuch, were the brightest originals that his memory could turnish. His intellectual eye saw a nobler plan, so little did he suffer by the loss of sight. It sufficed him to have seen the materials with which he could work. The vigour of a boundless imagination told him how a plan might be disposed, that would embellish nature, and restore art to its proper office, the just improvement or imitation of it.

“Now let us turn to an admired writer, posterior to MILTON, and see how cold, how insipid, how tasteless is his account of what he pronounced a perfect garden. We speak not of his style, which it was not necessary for him to animate with the colouring and glow of poetry. It is his want of ideas, of imagination, of taste, that deserve censure, when he dictated on a subject which is capable of all the graces that a knowledge of beautiful nature can bestow. SIR WILLIAM TEMPLE was an excellent man; MILTON, a genius of the first order.

“We cannot wonder that Sir William declares in favour of parterres, fountains, and statues, as necessary to break the sameness of large grass-plats, which he thinks have an ill effect upon the eye, when he acknowledges that he discovers fancy in the gardens of Alcimus. Milton studied the ancients with equal enthusiasm, but not bigotry; and had judgment to distinguish between the want of invention and the beauties of poetry. Com-

pare his paradise with Homer's garden ascribed to a celestial design. For Sir just to observe, that his ideas center in a garden. He had the honour of country many delicate fruits, and he did not cite than disposing them to the best

“The best figure of a garden (say) a square or an oblong, and either undescending; they have all their beauties in the air, the view, make amends for the want of variety, which is very great in small gardens, by the terrace-walks, in level places, and the stone stairs that are one to the other. The perfectest garden I ever saw, either at home or that of Moor park in Hertfordshire, it about 30 years ago. It was made by the late Duke of Bedford, esteemed among the best of her time, and celebrated by Dr Johnson with very great eulogy, excellent for much cost; but greater sums may be expended without effect or honour, if they are in proportion to money, or ‘if nature is to be imitated;’ which I take to be the great rule in every thing else, as far as it is not only of our lives but of our joy; [We shall see how natural that ad was.] “Because I take the garden to have been in all kinds the most perfect, at least in the figure and disposition I ever have seen, I will ascribe it to those that meet with such a situation above the regard of common expense the side of a hill, upon which the but not very steep. The length where the best rooms and those of me are, lies upon the breadth of the great parlour opens into the middle gravel walk that lies even with it, as lie, as I remember, about 300 paces broad in proportion; the border set with laurels and at large distances, the beauty of orange trees out of flower. From this walk are three descents of steps, in the middle, and at each end a large parterre. This is divided by gravel walks, and adorned with and eight statues in the several quadrants of the terrace walk, are two fountains and the sides of the parterre are raised by large cloisters open to the garden, and the sides of stone, and terminating other summer houses even with which are paved with stone, and walks of shade, there being none whole parterre. Over these two cloisters are terraces covered with lead and fountains; and the passage into these airy of the two summer-houses at the end of the terrace walk. The cloister facing it is covered with vines, and would have served for an orange house, and the other for other more common greens, and not, been cast for that purpose, if gardening had been then in as much vogue. From the middle of this parterre by many steps flying on each side

between them, covered with lead, and the lower garden, which is all fruit-trees cut the several quarters of a wilderness, very shady; the walks here are all green, embellished with figures of shell rock-mountains, and water-works. If the hill ended with the lower garden, and the not bounded by a common way that high the park, they might have added a tier of all greens; but this want is supplied garden on the other side the house, all of that sort, very wild, shady, and with rough rock-work and fountains. This park when I was acquainted with it, and its place, I think, that I have seen in my before or since, at home or abroad.

unnecessary to add any remarks on this. Any man might design and build a garden, who had been born in and never of Holborn. It was not, however, peculiar to William Temple to think in that way. How many Frenchmen are there who love our gardens, and still prefer unnatural steps and shady cloisters covered with Nautre, the architect of the groves and Versailles, came hither on a mission to our taste. He planted St James's and Parks—no great monuments of his in-

farther justice to Sir William Temple, or omit what he adds: 'What I have best forms of gardens is meant only of in some sort regular; for there may be a wholly irregular, that may, for ought be more beauty than any of the others: we owe it to some extraordinary disposition in the seat, or some great race of judgment in the contrivance, which may by disagreeing parts into some figure, yet, upon the whole, be very agreeable. Nothing of this I have seen in some place more of it from others, who have among the Chinese, a people whose thinking seems to lie as wide of ours in Europe as our country does. Their greatest recreation is employed in contriving figures, beauty shall be great and strike the eye, without any order or disposition of parts, that is commonly or easily observed. And though hardly any notion of this sort of beauty, we find a particular word to express it: and find it hit their eye at first sight, they say awadgi is fine or is admirable, or any sign of esteem: but I should hardly adhere to these attempts in the figure of gardens, they are adventures of too hard attempt for any common hands; and though we more honour if they succeed well, more dishonour if they fail, and it is none they will; whereas in regular figures to make any great and remarkable

only Kent and a few others were not so, or we might still be going up and down the open air. It is true, we have lately, as Sir William Temple did, many imitations of nature in the gardens of the Chinese. The former is certainly

truly true: they are as whimsically irregular, as European gardens are formally uniform and unvaried:—but with regard to nature, it seems as much avoided, as in the squares and oblongs and straight lines of our ancestors. An artificial perpendicular rock starting out of a flat plain, and connected with nothing, often pierced through in various places with oval hollows, has no more pretension to be deemed natural than a lineal terrace or a parterre. The late Mr Joseph Spence, who had both taste and zeal for the present style, was so persuaded of the Chinese Emperor's pleasure-ground being laid out on principles resembling ours, that he translated and published, under the name of Sir Harry Beaumont, a particular account of that inclosure from the Collection of the Letters of the Jesuits. But except a determined irregularity, one can find nothing in it that gives any idea of attention being paid to nature. It is of vast circumference, and contains 200 palaces, besides as many contiguous for the eunuchs, all gilt, painted, and varnished. There are raised hills from 20 to 60 feet high, streams and lakes, and one of the latter five miles round. These waters are passed by bridges:—but even their bridges must not be straight—they serpentine as much as the rivulets, and are sometimes so long as to be furnished with resting-places, and begin and end with triumphal arches. The colonades undulate in the same manner. In short, this pretty gaudy scene is the work of caprice and whim, and, when we reflect on their buildings, presents no image but that of unsubstantial tawdriness. Nor is this all. Within this fantastic Paradise is a square town, each side a mile long. Here the eunuchs of the court, to entertain his imperial majesty with the bustle and business of the capital in which he resides, but which it is not of his dignity ever to see, act merchants, and all sorts of trades; and even delightedly exercise for his royal amusement every act of knavery that is practised under his auspicious government. Methinks this is the childish solace and repose of grandeur, not a retirement from public affairs to the delights of rural life. Here too his majesty plays at agriculture: there is a quarter set apart for that purpose; the eunuchs sow, reap, and carry in their harvest, in the imperial presence; and his majesty returns to Peking, persuaded that he has been in the country.

“Having thus cleared our way by ascertaining what have been the ideas of gardening in all ages, as far as we have materials to judge by, it remains to show to what degree Mr Kent invented the new style, and what hints he had received to suggest and conduct his undertaking.

“We have seen what Moor-park was, when pronounced a standard. But as no succeeding generation in an opulent and luxurious country contents itself with the perfection established by its ancestors, more perfect perfection was still sought; and improvements had gone on, till London and Wiltshire had stocked all our gardens with giants, animals, monsters, coats of arms, and mottoes, in yew, box, and holly. Absurdity could go no farther, and the tide turned. Bridgman, the next fashionable designer of gardens, was far more chaste; and whether from good sense, or that the nation had been struck by the admirable paper in the

Nº 173, he banished verdant sculpture, it even revert to the square precision of a line. He enlarged his plans, dis- make every division tally to its oppo- though he still adhered much to straight lines: the rest he diversified by wilder- d with loose groves of oak, though still surrounding hedges. As his reformation- ing, he ventured, in the royal garden- ond, to introduce cultivated fields, and- rfields of a forest appearance, by the sides- e endless and tiresome walks that stretched- one into another without intermission. was not till other innovators had broke- o from rigid symmetry.

The capital stroke, the leading step to all- s followed, was the destruction of walls- ndances, and the invention of fosses—an- et then deemed so astonishing, that the com- people called them Ha! Ha's! to express- surprise at finding a sudden and unperceived- to their walk.

A sunk fence may be called the *leading step*, these reasons. No sooner was this simple en- vement made, than levelling, mowing, and- s, followed. The contiguous ground of the

— without the sunk fence was to be harmoni- zed with the lawn within; and the garden in its- turn was to be set free from its prim regularity, that it might assort with the milder country with- out. The sunk fence ascertained the specific gar- den; but that it might not draw too obvious a- line of distinction between the neat and the rude, the contiguous out-lying parts came to be inclu- ded in a kind of general design; and when na- ture was taken into the plan, under improvements, every step that was made pointed out new beau- ties, and inspired new ideas. At that moment ap- peared Kent, painter enough to taste the charms of landscape, bold, and opinionative enough to dare and to dictate, and born with a genius to strike out a great system from the twilight of im- perfect essays. He leaped the fence, and saw that all nature was a garden. He felt the delicious contrast of hill and valley changing impercepti- bly into each other, tasted the beauty of the gentle swell or concave scoop, and remarked how loose groves crowned an easy eminence with happy or- naments; and while they called in the distant view between their graceful stems, removed and extended the perspective by delusive comparison.

“ Thus the pencil of his imagination bestowed all the arts of landscape on the scenes he handled. The great principles on which he worked were perspective, light, and shade. Groups of trees broke too uniform or too extensive a lawn; ever- greens and woods were opposed to the glare of the champaign; and where the view was less for- tunate, or so much exposed as to be beheld at once, he blotting out some parts by thick shades, to divide it into variety, or to make the richest scene more enchanting by reserving it to a farther advance of the spectator's eye. Thus, selecting favourite objects, and veiling deformities by screens of plantations, sometimes allowing the rudest walls to add its foul to the richest theatre; he recalled the compositions of the greatest masters

in painting. Where objects were wanting, he imitate his horizon, his taste as an architect be- low immediate termination. His lodges, seats, his temples, were more the work of the pencil than of his compasses. We owe the restoration of Greece and the diffusion of its texture to his skill in landscape.

“ But of all the beauties he added to the of this beautiful country, none surpassed the management of water. Adieu to canals, cataracts, fountains, and cascades tumbling down marble that last absurd magnificence of Italian and villas. The forced elevation of cataracts was more. The gentle stream was taught to glide seemingly at its pleasure; and where, continued by different levels, its course ap- peared to be concealed by thickets properly inter- and glittered again at a distance, where it was supposed naturally to arrive. Its borders smoothed, but preserved their waving irreg- A few trees scattered here and there on its banks sprinkled the same bank that accompa- meanders; and when it disappeared among hills, shades descending from the heights towards its progress, and framed the distance of light under which it was lost, as it turned to either hand of the blue horizon.

“ Thus, desiring in none but the colour of nature, and catching its most favourable moments, men saw a new creation opening before them. The living landscape was chastened or polished, transformed. Freedom was given to the trees: they extended their branches un- checked, and where any eminent oak, or master tree, escaped maiming and survived the forest, and bramble was removed, and all its branches were restored to distinguish and shade the landscape. Where the united plumage of an ancient tree extended wide its undulating canopy, and where the venerable in its darkness, Kent thinned the most tanks, and left but so many detached scattered trees, as softened the approach of the forest, and blended a chequered light with the lengthened shadows of the remaining colour.

“ Succeeding artists have added new strokes to these touches; perhaps, improve- ments brought to perfection some that have been. The introduction of foreign trees and plants, we owe principally to Archibald D. Argyle, who contributed essentially to the richness of colour peculiar to our modern landscape. The introduction of various greens, the contrast of forms between our forest trees and the northern and West- ern firs and pines, are improvements more recent to Kent, or but little known to him. The willow, and every florid shrub, each tree of a single cast or bold leaf, are new tints in the composition of our gardens.

“ But just as the encomiums are that have been bestowed on Kent's discoveries, he was without assistance nor faults. Mr Pope unduly contributed to form his taste. The design of the Prince of Wales's garden at Carlton was evidently borrowed from the Poet's Tem- ple. There was a little of affected modesty in the latter, when he said, of all his works, he was most proud of his garden. And yet it was a great effort of art and taste to impress so

very on a spot of five acres. The gh the gloom from the grotto to the the retiring and again assembling lusk groves, the larger lawn, and of the termination at the cypresses to his mother's tomb, are managed e judgment; and though Lord Peter- ed him

is quincunx, and to rank his vines, not the most pleasing ingredients of pective.

outed professed art (for the modern rts his talents to conceal his art,) ther reformers, knew not how to t limits. He had followed Nature,

her so happily, that he began to works were equally proper for imi- leaington garden, he planted dead a greater air of truth to the scene—

on laughed out of this excess. His al was, that nature abhors a straight mics, for every genius has his apes, ink that she could love nothing but

oked. Yet so many men of taste of oted themselves to the new improve- t is surprising how much beauty has out, with how few absurdities. Still

s the reformation seems to have been far. Though an avenue crossing a ating a lawn, and intercepting views to which it leads, are capital faults;

venue cut through woods, perhaps ng a park, has a noble air, and

etmen running before coaches, the inn what lord approaches,

ie habitation of some man of distinc- er places the total banishment of all atneis immediately about a house,

quently left gazing by itself in the ark, is a defect. Sheltered, and e- ks, in so very uncertain a climate as mforts ill exchanged for the few pic-

s we enjoy; and whenever a family a warm and even something of an old den, from the landscape designed for

undertaker in fashion, without inter- he picture, they will find satisfactions

ys which do not invite strangers to : their improvements."

ave brought down the history of this the present period. And from what , it must be evident, that GARDEN-

perfection to which it is now brought : entitled to a place of considerable the liberal arts. "It is, says Mr

s superior to landscape-painting as a representation: It is an exertion of ject for taste; and being realised now

r confined to the spots from which it ie; but regulates also the disposition

ments, of a park, a farm, a forest,

&c. and the business of a gardener is to select and apply whatever is great, elegant, or characteristic, in any of them to discover, or to show all the advantages of the place upon which he is employed; to supply its defects, to correct its faults, and to improve its beauties."

But though all these encomiums are justly due to gardening, upon the large scale of an ornamental garden, including a park, farm, forest, &c. yet we apprehend that enough has been said upon this subject here, and under the article FARM, § IV, 1—4. And therefore we shall restrict the remaining part of this treatise, to the description of such a plan of gardening, as will be found to answer best for those, who wish to prefer the *utile* to the *decor*, and to regard usefulness and convenience more than ornament.

SECT. III. *Of the CHOICE of GROUND for a GARDEN.*

IN the choice of a place proper for a garden, the most essential points to be considered are, the situation, the soil, the exposure, water, and prospect.

I. The situation ought to be such as is wholesome, and in a place neither too high nor too low; for if a garden be too high, it will be exposed to the winds, which are very prejudicial to trees; and if it be too low, the dampness, the vermin, and the venomous creatures that breed in ponds and marshy places, will add much to its insalubrity. The best situation is on the side of a hill, especially if the slope be easy, and almost imperceptible; if a good deal of level ground be near the house; and if it abounds with springs of water: for, being sheltered from the fury of the winds and the violent heat of the sun, a temperate air will be enjoyed; and the water that descends from the top of the hill, either from springs or rain, will not only supply fountains, canals, and cascades for ornament, but, when it has performed its office, will water the adjacent valleys, and, if it be not allowed to stagnate, will render them fertile and wholesome.

II. A good soil is next to be considered; for it is scarce possible to make a fine garden in a bad soil. There are indeed methods of meliorating ground, but they are very expensive; and sometimes, when the expence has been bestowed of laying good earth three feet deep over the whole surface, a whole garden has been ruined, when the roots of the trees have reached the natural bottom. To judge of the quality of the soil, observe whether there be any heath, thistles or such like weeds, growing spontaneously in it; for they are certain signs that the ground is poor. Or if there be large trees growing thereabouts, observe whether they grow crooked, ill shaped, and grubby; and if they be of a faded green, and full of moss, or infested with vermin: in all such cases, the place is to be rejected. But if it be covered with grass fit for pasture, the depth of the soil may be tried. To know this, dig holes in several places, six feet wide and four deep; and if there be three feet of good earth it will do very well, but less than two will not be sufficient. The quality of good ground is neither to be stony nor too hard to work; nei-

GARDENING.

SECT.

, too moist, nor too sandy and light; and clayey, which is the worst of gardens.

The next requisite is water; the want of one of the greatest inconveniences that a garden, and will bring a certain mortification whatever is planted in it, especially in drougths that often happen in a hot situation in summer; besides its usefulness gardens for making fountains, canals, &c. which are the greatest ornaments of

the last thing to be considered, is the propriety of a fine country: and though this is not absolutely necessary, yet it is one of the most agreeable qualities of a fine garden: Besides, if a garden is planted in a low place that has no kind of view, it will not only be disagreeable but unprofitable.

PART. IV. OF LAYING OUT and PLANTING GARDENS.

GARDENS are usually distinguished into FLOWER GARDENS, FRUIT GARDENS, and KITCHEN GARDENS. The first being designed for pleasure and ornament, should be placed in the most conspicuous part, that is, next to the back front of the house; and the two latter, being designed for use, should be placed less in sight. But though the fruit and kitchen gardens are here mentioned as distinct, yet they are now usually united; as they equally require a good soil and exposure, and should both be placed out of the view of the house.

In the laying out and planting of gardens, the beauties of nature should always be studied; for the nearer a garden approaches to nature, the longer it will please. According to Mr Miller, the area of a handsome garden may take up 30 or 40 acres, but no more; and the following rules should be observed in the disposition of it. There ought always to be a descent of at least three steps from the house to the garden; this will render the house more dry and wholesome, and the prospect on entering the garden more extensive. The first thing that ought to present itself to view should be an open lawn of grass; which ought to be considerably broader than the front of the building; and if the depth be one half more than the width, it will have a better effect: If on the sides of the lawn there are trees planted irregularly, by way of open groves, the regularity of the lawn will be broken, and the whole rendered more like nature.

For the convenience of walking in damp weather, this lawn should be surrounded with a gravel walk, on the outside of which should be borders 1 or 4 feet wide for flowers; and from the back of these the prospect will be agreeably terminated by a slope of ever-green shrubs; which, however, should never be suffered to exclude agreeable prospects, or the view of handsome buildings. These walks may lead through the different plantations, gently winding about in an easy natural manner; which will be more agreeable than either those long straight walks, too frequently seen in gardens, or those serpentine windings that are twisted about into so many short turns as to render it difficult to walk in them; and as no

garden can be pleasing where there is a want of shade or shelter, these walks should lead as far as possible into plantations, where persons may walk in private, and be sheltered from the sun.

Narrow rivulets, which have a constant flow, if they are judiciously led about the garden, will have a better effect than large stagnating ponds: Ponds so frequently made in large gardens, if they are intended, they should not be made into stars and other ridiculous figures, nor into mazes or labyrinths, which in a great measure appear trifling.

In a word, the several parts of a garden should be diversified; but in places where the eye is in the whole at once, the two sides should always be the same. In designs, the aim should always be at what is natural. The general disposition of a garden and of its parts ought to be accommodated to the different situations of ground, to humour its inequalities, to preserve the number of sorts of trees and shrubs in each part, and to shut out from the view of the garden no objects that may become ornaments: these extended views of the subject are not for present purpose.

A practical attention to a garden, is not to be esteemed a degrading employment. It is indeed, that pastoral and agricultural maxims we may form a judgment from the descriptions of Virgil, are greatly degenerated: employments of the shepherds and husbandmen are now become mean and sordid. The garden is usually left to a peasant. It is unreasonable to assign the labour, which, without amusement, to those who are fully amused by the prospect of their wages. The operations of grafting, of inoculating, of ingrafting, of transplanting, are curious experiments of natural philosophy; and that they are pleasant as well as curious, those can testify who have seen what they felt on seeing their attempts in the branches of practical gardening attended with success. Among the employments suitable to the age, Cicero has enumerated the superintendence of a garden. It requires no great exertion of mind or body; and its satisfactions are of a kind which please without violent agitation. A beneficial influence on health is an additional reason for an attention to it at an age when the mind is abroad.

In almost every description of the seats of the blessed, ideas of a garden seem to have prevailed. The word PARADISE is synonymous with garden. The fields of Elysium, that sweet scenes of poetry, were adorned with all that imagination can conceive to be delightful. Some of the pleasing passages of Milton, are those in which he represents the happy pair engaged in cultivating their blissful abode. Poets have always been delighted with the beauties of a garden. Lucretius is represented by Juvenal as reposing in his garden. Virgil's Georgics prove him to have been contented with rural scenes; though, to the surprise of his readers, he has not assigned a book to the subject of a garden. Seneca made it his subject (See FARM, § IV, 1) but, with all his fondness for it, he was not happy in it. The cultivating scenes which he created at the LAR

him, it is said, little pleasure in the aspectators. The truth is, he made the merit of his grounds, which should have amusement of his life, the business of it ; red himself in such troubles, by the excitation, as necessarily excluded tranquillity.

Indeed, in comparison, possess territories extensive, and sufficiently well adapted to an ornamented farm. Still fewer are of supporting the expence of preserving it in condition. But let not the rich suppose monopolized the pleasures of a garden. A plot of an acre, or a small portion, may afford real pleasure, from observing the progress of vegetation, even in a plantation of cultivated plants. A very limited tract, properly attended, will furnish ample employment for an individual. Nor let it be thought a mean care ; the hand that raised the cedar, formed the vine on the wall. Even the orchard, cultivated for advantage, exhibits beauties unobscured in shrubbery ; nor can the green-house afford an appearance to excel the blossom of the peach and the almond.

The kitchen garden ought to be situated on one side of the house, near the stables, from whence produce may be easily conveyed into it ; and against the wall, borders should be made of stone, which, according to Mr Miller, ought to be 10 feet broad. Upon these borders, exposed to the south, many sorts of early plants may be sown ; and upon those exposed to the north, may be sown some late crops, taking care not to plant any deep-rooting plants, especially peas, too near the fruit-trees.

Proceed to divide the ground into quarters of the best figures for these are a square or an oblong, if the ground will admit of it ; otherwise it may be of that shape which will be most advantageous. The size of these quarters should be proportioned to that of the garden ; if too small, they will be lost in walks, and the quarters enclosed by espaliers or fruit trees, the plants will grow up slender, for want of a more open exposure. The walks should also be proportioned to the size of the ground : these in a small garden should be 6 feet broad, but in a large one 8 or 10 feet on each side of the walk there should be a border 3 or 4 feet wide between it and the walk. In these borders may be sown small seeds or any other herbs that do not take deep roots ; but they should not be planted with the same plants two years.

The quarter nearest to the stables, and best sheltered from the cold winds, should be the hottest, for early cucumbers, melons, &c. and to it there should be a passage from the stables, or a gate through which a small cart may enter. The important points of general culture consist in digging and manuring the soil, and giving proper distance to each plant, according to their different growths : as also in keeping them free from weeds ; for which purpose, always observe to keep the dunghills free from them, or their seeds will be constantly brought in and mixed with the dung.

SECT. V. *The* GARDINER'S KALENDAR.

Under this head we proceed to point out what is proper to be done in the different months of the year, in the Kitchen-Garden, Flower-Garden, Orchard, &c. It is necessary, however, to mention here, that the arrangement in the following Kalendar, was originally drawn up for the climate of England ; but will suit those parts of Scotland where the climate is mild, equally well, upon allowing a difference of 10 or 12 days later for sowing or planting. Where the seasons are still more backward, a proportional allowance will be made by the judicious gardiner, or practitioner in this pleasant art.

JANUARY.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Asparagus, in this season, being one of the greatest rarities which the art of gardening affords, ought to be planted every month, to have a regular succession of it till April, as it is above 3 weeks before it will be fit to cut, and the 4th hotbed should now be made. Beans of the early Mazagan sort must be planted for the second crop. Beets and cabbages of every sort, intended to procure seed from, should now be planted, if it was omitted in October. Carrots, to draw young, for the first crop, should now be sown ; and those intended for seed should be planted. Cauliflower plants under glasses and frames should be covered with pea-straw, or mats, to defend them from the frost. Celery should be dug up as soon as the frost begins, for daily use, and the other covered with straw. Cress, mustard, radish, and rape, should be sown every week on a hotbed. Cucumbers for the first crop, to come in early in March, should now be sown. As soon as they are three or four days old put each into a small pot, and every week sow more to have plenty of plants. Dung should be wheeled into the kitchen garden in frosty weather, when other work cannot be done. Endive should be dug up, like the celery, as soon as the frost begins, and the rest covered with straw. Ground lying vacant should be dug up, if omitted in October, and thrown up into ridges. Hotbeds and loam should be prepared for asparagus, cucumbers and melons. Lettuces under glasses should be examined, and, if they be killed, sow more on a hotbed. Mint should be planted in pots, and if there be no hotbed, it will grow in a warm room. Mushroom beds will require regular attendance, and frost and rain must be kept out by dry straw and mats. Onions, to draw young, should be sown on a warm border. Peas under the south wall, for the first crop, should have the earth drawn up to them in a dry day, and sticks placed to them to defend them from the violence of the winds ; and sow the second crop. Plant asparagus for the 4th crop. Beans for the 2d crop of mazagans. Beets, Cabbages, carrots, parsneps for seed. Mint and potatoes on a hotbed. Onions for eschalions and seed. Radishes for the 2d crop, sow in a warm situation, and the first crop on a hotbed. Small sallading, as cress, mustard, rape, radishes, sow every week on a hotbed. Sow carrots for the first crop, and the second of peas. Sow on hotbeds, carrots and cucumbers for the first crop. Cress, mustard, radish,

radish, and rape for fallads: Sow likewise turneps.

FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Anemones which were planted in the autumn will require to be covered with pea-straw, rotten tan, or mats. Auricula and polyanthus seeds may now be sown in boxes or pots in mild weather. Auriculas should be sheltered from violent rains and frost by mats; and at the end of the month fresh earthed. Beds for bulbous roots should be digged and thrown up into ridges, that they may be planted the first fine weather, if any roots remain unplanted; but it is bad policy not to plant them in October or the beginning of November. Bulbous-rooted flowers in boxes or glasses should be removed in frosty weather, before night, from the windows; nor should they be set on chimney-pieces until they are in flower, for shade draws all flowers up very weak. Boxes made 5 inches deep, 8 wide, and 16 long, filled with light sandy earth, without any dung, are better than glasses, and will not require so much trouble. Stir up the earth often with a table fork. Carnations must be sheltered from violent rains and frost by mats. Plant at the end of the month, or sooner if the weather be mild, all sorts of bulbous roots, crocuses, as jonquils, narcissuses, polyanthus-narcissuses, snowdrops, tulips, &c. Plant flowering shrubs which are hardy, and flower early, as almonds, double-flowering cherries, honeysuckles, lilacs, mezerions, roses, &c. Shrubs and trees of all sorts may be planted at the end of this month. Sow auricula and polyanthus seeds in pots or boxes. Trenches should be cut to carry off the water, if it stands any where, after heavy rains.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Apple trees should be pruned as soon as the violent frosts are over. Espaliers ought always to be repaired before the buds of the trees begin to open. The fruit room should be often examined, to pick out all fruit which begins to decay; and nail mats before the windows to keep out the frost. Ground for planting should be prepared by digging the holes ready; and if wettish, a cart-load of good loam should be brought for each standard tree, and formed into a little hill before the tree be planted. Scrape off the moss from all fruit trees. Orchards in general are much neglected, by not cutting out the dead wood and branches that cross each other. Pear trees require pruning, both standards, espaliers, and against walls, as soon as the weather becomes mild. Prune currants, gooseberries, and raspberries. Strawberries in pots may be placed on hotbeds for forcing. Vines should not be pruned till towards the end of the month.

GREENHOUSE. Air may be given to the plants, if the weather be mild. Fire must be made if it freezes, and particularly when it begins to thaw, or if it is foggy weather, to dry the house; for dampness is as prejudicial as cold; and if there be no fire, light a few candles in frosty weather. To know for a certainty when it begins to freeze, set a pan of water near the windows. Leaves, which are any way decayed, should be constantly ~~bed off~~, particularly from the geraniums. Succulent plants, such as aloes, ficoides, &c. should have any water this month. Water for all ~~of plants~~ should be the softest that can be ~~the water~~ is the best; the chillness should

be taken off by letting it stand in the 1 days before it is used; and this month be given very sparingly. Windows in 1 ther should be kept very close, by pa of paper where the wind blows in, for tributes to the frost; and if the window covered with mats, take them down i time to admit the light; for if plants in the dark, their leaves will soon fall the outward door should be opened as possible; but, to have it proper, there another door leading through a shed.

FEBRUARY.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Asparagus sh the mats taken off the glasses, excep snows; for without light it will, not and the 5th and last crop should be 1 a hotbed. Beans of the early sorts m planted for the 3d crop, and at the e month the first crop of the large sorts, for, long-podded, &c. Sow Beets, t ground be digged very deep. Boorcc and broccoli will want earthing up, dead leaves be first picked off. Sow for the 2d crop of sugarloaf, and the fi and plant out those sown in August. S at the end of the month for the general a deep sandy soil. Cauliflowers under g be examined, all the dead leaves picke the earth stirred up. In mild weather air, and plant some out, leaving only strongest under each glass. Sow the 2d gentle hotbed. Sow cellery, for the fi a gentle hotbed, and draw earth up what remains in the ground, in dry weat coleworts, for the first crop: cress and every week on hotbeds. Cucumber be constantly attended to, to keep them u per heat, and another made for the pl last month: when they have 3 or 4 rou plant them out, 3 or 4 to each light more seed. Tye up endive for blanc plant out some for seed. Eschalots, g rocambole, should not be deferred pl the roots will be very small. Ground cant should be digged and thrown up i to prepare it ready for sowing. H should now be planted. Hotbeds for c melons, and small fallading, prepare plenty of dung. Sow leeks, and mark seed. Plant out lettuces from under the weather be mild, and sow the 2d cr plenty of air to the forced ones. Sow the beginning of the month for the first when about 3 days old, plant each in a Plant mint in pots on a hotbed. Del room beds from wet. Sow Onions at the month or beginning of the next fo ral crop: weed those sown in autumn, some for seed. Sow parsley for edgings curled, very thin on a bed, to grow lar nishing of dishes, and the large root parsneps on ground digged very deep. of the ground should have the earth d them, as they advance, in dry weathe require sticking. Sow marrowfats and sorts, and the 3d crop of hotspurs. P

ring, for the last crop. Beans for a 3d inders, for the first: Cauliflowers from glasses: Endives for blanching and seed. garlic, and romambole: Horse-radish, rom under glasses: Leeks, onions, and r feed: Potatoes on hotbeds, for the

Uncover radishes in mild weather, and aw on again at night. Sow beets, cab- rots, cauliflowers, coleworts, fennel, uces, mustard, onions, parsley, parf-, radishes, spinach. Sow on hotbeds, s, celery, cress, cucumbers, melons, adish, rape for sallads. Sow Spinach, op, and hoe the winter crop if it be too ater should be carried away, if it stands rains, by cutting trenches.

GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Anemones culuses should not be deferred planting ld weather, or they will flower weak; ds should be prepared some time before rdy annual flowers, such as sweet peas, candy-tuft, alysson, corn-bottles, per- ad some few others, may be now sown, ill flower very early. Auriculas must d by mats from wet, the decayed leaves pulled off, and fresh earthed. Box for ay be planted in mild weather. Bul- of every kind unplanted should not be e first opportunity which offers of mild and let the beds be thrown up into rid- hand. Bulbous roots in boxes, pots,

require a regular attention to water d the earth should be stirred up once a rnations must be fresh potted, and from heavy rains by mats. Flowering d forest trees of all sorts, except ever- ay be planted at the end of the month. ks, if intended to be made next month, ve the ground prepared by levelling it. or sowing amaranths, balsams, and other uals, should be prepared, and the seed e end of the month. Hyacinths, which ground, should be covered with mats by hoops. Mignonette must be sown ed, or it will do in a pot placed in a n where the sunshine comes; but let the n very thin. Perennial-rooted flowers, d of the month, may be removed from eds, and the old roots transplanted. ones and ranunculuses: Box for edg- : end of the month: Bulbous and tube- of all sorts: Flowering shrubs and or- trees: Forest trees of all sorts, except . Shrubbery should be dugged over l smooth, to destroy the young weeds to shoot; but the trees should first be Shrubs of all sorts should have the ken off, and, if small, be planted in beds nder until they are stronger; and any now be planted. Sow at the end of the dy annuals and mignonette.

GARDEN and ORCHARD. Apple and should be finished pruning the first ther. Plant Cuttings of currants and es. Prepare Grafts of apples and pears. dies, against peaches, nectarines, and in the beginning of the month; they about two feet higher than the walls,

that they may be set sloping; and must be fasten- ed with stakes, and remain there till the fruit is set. Sow Kernels of apples and pears, for stocks. Planting all sorts of fruit trees should be finished early in the month, and the roots covered with mulch. Pruning wail trees should be finished. Straw- berries may be planted at the end of the month, and the old beds dressed; those on hotbeds must be frequently watered. Vines, finish pruning be- fore they bleed. Wall-trees, as apricots, necta- rines, peaches, plums, pears, should be finish- ed pruning in the month, and those done in Octo- ber must be examined, and the dead ends cut off.

GREENHOUSE. Admit air, very freely in mild weather. Earth the top of the pots, but first take out the old an inch deep. Fire must be made in foggy weather to dry the house. Leaves this month decay very fast; therefore they will require picking off almost every day, but especially from the geraniums. Myrtles, oranges, winter cherries, and some others, water frequently, but not too much at a time. Succulent plants, as aloes, ficoi- des, &c. must not have any water given them in this month, for it will cause them to rot. Water the plants which require it frequently, but very sparing- ly; for too much moisture in the house will injure the plants. Windows may be opened for a few hours in the middle of the day, but should be shut again about two o'clock, or whenever it begins to be foggy.

M A R C H.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Alifanders sown in an- tumn, should be hoed to a foot asunder, and more seed sown. Aromatic shrubs and herbs on beds, weed and fresh earth, early in the month; and sow and plant more of all sorts. Dress artichokes, and take the suckers off for a fresh plantation. Asparagus seed must now be sown to raise roots for forcing, and for fresh beds; at the end of a- bout 12 years, destroy the old beds, but take up the roots and force them: By now and then making one new bed, a constant succession may be kept up in full vigour. Plant out that which was sown last year. Fork up the beds, and rake them smooth, but do not leave the alleys above six inches lower than the top of the bed. Water the beds in a morning, in dry weather, early in the month, with the drainings from a dunghill, to forward them. Make fresh plantations in moist weather. Plant beans, for the 4th early crop, and the 2d of Windsors. Cut off the tops of thoe in flower. Finish sowing beets. Sow boorcole of various sorts, for the first crop. Sow broccoli, of the early sort for the first crop. Cabbages, sow the 3d crop of sugarloaf, the 2d of red, and the first of savoy. Sow carrots now for the principal crop. Sow capsicums, for pickling, on a hot- bed. Cauliflowers must be planted out, leaving two only of the strongest to each glass: draw earth up to the stems, and prop up the glasses. Prick out those sown last month, and sow the 3d crop. Prick out the first crop of celery from the seedbed, and sow the 2d. Chardons must be sown, and cives planted. Prick out the first crop of colewort. Cress, mustard, radish, and rape, may now be sown in the open ground for sallading; and cover the seed for a few days with a mat, or place

place hand-glasses over it. Sow cress and mustard, very thin for seed. Cucumber beds must be kept to a good heat, by cutting off some around the sides, and adding fresh hot dung instead of it. Plant out the 2d crop on a fresh bed. About the 20th sow seeds of the turkey, and some for bell-glasses. Prepare hotbeds for planting cucumbers, and melons. Plant Jerusalem artichokes. Sow leeks. Sow kidney beans at the end of the month, on a warm border. Plant out lettuces, from under the glasses. Sow the third crop of cos or other sorts. Plant out melons, from the first hotbed. Sow cantaloupes for the 2d crop, and some on a tan-bed, and for bell-glasses. Mint-beds, weed and earth, and plant more. Mushroom beds, make for summer use. Nasturtiums for pickling, sow at the end of the month. Carefully weed onion beds before the weeds are high; and finish sowing the principal crop. Sow parsley, both curled and large-rooted. Finish sowing parsneps. Earth up peas in dry weather and stick. Sow the 2d crop of marrowfats. Plant artichokes, asparagus, beans, cives, cucumbers, Jerusalem artichokes, lettuces, melons, mushrooms, potatoes, and tarragon. Plant aromatic herbs and shrubs; as balm, camomile, lavender, mint, pennyroyal, rosemary, rue, sage, savory, thyme, &c. Pot and sweet-herbs should now be sown. Slip pot-marjoram, savory, and thyme. Weed potatoes, and plant the principal crop. Sow radishes, the 4th crop, and rampions. Sow alifanders, angelica, asparagus, basil, beets, borage, boorccole, broccoli, burnet, cabbages, capscums, carrots, cauliflowers, celery, celeriac, chardons, chervil, clary, corianders, cress, cucumbers, dill, fennel, hyssop, kidney beans, leeks, lettuces, marjoram, marygolds, melons, mustard, nasturtiums, onions, parsley, parsneps, peas, purslane, radishes, rampions, salsafy, savory, scorzonera, sea-kale, skirrets, sorrel, spinach, tarragon, thyme, tomatoes, turneps, water-cresses. Weed spinach, and sow the 2d crop. Plant tarragon, and sow tomatoes. Turneps, sow the first crop. Sow water-cresses, in a moist place, or where it may be constantly supplied with waste water from the pump. Destroy weeds, while small, which will save future trouble.

FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Anemones and ranunculuses, if any remain unplanted, must not be deferred longer than the first mild day. Anemones in flower should be covered with mats in windy or rainy weather. Annual flowers which are tender, (See Catalogue, SECT. VII.) if sown early in the month, will require a 2d hotbed to be transplanted into; and if not sown, should not be deferred any longer, to have them early and strong. Sow those also mentioned in § II. of the general Catalogue, on a moderate hotbed. Annual flowers of all the hardy sorts in the Catalogue may be sown about the middle of the month in small patches where they are to remain; hollow the earth out in the form of a basin, fifteen inches over, and an inch deep, and sow the seeds very thin all over it, and not a small patch in the middle, as is too frequently the custom. Auriculas should be removed into the stand, and if some flat oyster-shells be laid on the earth, they will keep moist, and save trouble in watering them. Borders

of the flower-garden will require over or weeded, to destroy weeds which are beginning to shoot, and then raked, that they may be neat. Box for edgings, in mild weather, should be covered with mats, and the roots in beds should be covered in rainy or stormy weather, and the plants gently up with one's fingers to destroy those also in the house must be attended to. Carnations, if not potted, should be done the beginning of this. Shrubs, and trees of all sorts, may be planted in mild weather; then cover the roots with moss, fern, or some such things, to keep the ground moist, which is better, and gives less trouble in watering. Plant flowering shrubs and forest trees, early in the month, and cover them with mats. Grass walks must be swept and rolled, and will need turning and rolling, and weeding, and cleaned from moss with a broom. Hyacinths must be covered with mats, to prevent their flowers from being cut, but not kept too close. Larkspurs, or patches, must be thinned and not more than 8 or 10 inches. Mignonette, sown the first of the month, should be transplanted, and sown. Myrtles, winter cherries, and greenhouse plants, planted against the wall, have the mats rolled up in fine weather, and the dust washed off from their leaves, and again at night. Perennial and biennial flowers must be sown on beds, very thin, that they may be strong; those sown last year should be transplanted, and the old roots of the perennials edged. Plant annuals from the first hotbed, and perennials from the seedbed. Edgings: Evergreens of all sorts: Perennials, dividing their roots, and seedlings, and sowing: Shrubs and trees early in the month. Strawberries and thrift for edging. Strawberries should be pruned early in the month, and the runners taken off, and planted a foot at least apart, and the rows two feet apart: the ground should be dug, and then raked over, that it may be neat and clean. Sow tender annuals from the hotbed: Annuals that are hardy in the ground: Biennials and perennials on beds, and trees of almost every sort. Strawberries for an edging to the shrubbery, at six feet apart; the flowers make a pleasing appearance, and afterwards you will have very large fruit, being in a single row. Plant strawberries against a south wall, which will produce flowers, and ripen the fruit. Constant weeding by hoeing while small, with a small hoe made to cut both ways, by which it may always keep your shrubbery in a very little trouble.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Apple trees, and peach trees, should have hurdles placed before them, to defend the blossoms; or else stick branches of yew, or other such, amongst them, but hurdles are the best. Those which have mats nailed over them, should have them taken away by degrees, by first taking them at the bottom, towards the end of the month. Graft trees, and cut down the buds. Place hurdles, before the wall trees.

ought to be finished pruning at the the month, if omitted till then; the late lately planted should be cut off. pruning trees of all sorts should be the beginning of the month. Straw- could now be attended to; hoe them y the weeds, and stir up the earth ; then spread some very rotten dung ver them. Those on hotbeds want ering, and the dead leaves should be cked off, to let the sun come to the plantations may now be made. Vines layered; draw some strong bearing ough the bottom of the pot, and ot into the ground; and then they planted the next season, and produce year; plant cuttings. Finish prun- , and mulch those lately planted.

USE. Give air freely in the middle xcept the wind be very cold. Earth the pots, but take the old earth out

Place geraniums near the windows air being drawn up weak. Myrtles, es, and other hardy plants, will want , and, if the weather be mild, may t to make more room, but let them l place at first. Orange trees, if their edered, will want watering with a a warm water. Those with ill shaped be cut down, and placed on a strong e ketters in pots, good strong seed, e let an inch asunder, they will grow alant plants may now have a little of much at a time. Water the plants e of the day, and only when the sun the water should be set in the house e days to take off the chafers, and er. Windows may be opened for a the middle of all fine days.

A P R I L.

GARDEN. April being the latest time e principal crops of the kitchen gar- tring directed to be performed but omitted, or the weather would not t be done early in this. Aromatic ubs of all the following sorts should tely, as balm, camomile, pennyroyal, pearwort, tansy, lavender, rose- ce, southernwood, wormwood, &c. sowing and planting asparagus early in

Let the beds be forked and raked watered twice a week with drainings . Cut off every bud, however small; e left on, they weaken the others; s in general only practised by the a gardeners. Never suffer any weeds er they are an inch high, for they sprout very much. Beans in flower heir tops cut off; and draw the stalks rop close to the wall by strings, and up. Plant the third crop of Wallflowers. scabb should have the first crop prick- the 2d sown. Cabbages of the early have their leaves tied up to forward ing. Prick out from the seedbed the 1st leaf, the 2d of red, and the first Prick out *capitata*, from the seed- ART. I.

bed, to prevent their growing weak, upon another hotbed. Weed carrots, thin the first crop, and sow the 2d to draw young. Search for caterpillars upon cabbages and apple-trees particularly. Cauli- flowers should have the earth drawn up very high to raise the glassies, and a piece of brick put under each corner, and at the end of the month taken quite away. Break down the leaves when the flowers of any begin to appear; earth the 2d crop and prick out the third. Celery, prick out the 2d crop, and sow the third. Sow cress and mu- tard, every weak. Cucumber beds must be at- tended to, and plenty of air given them, when mild; and, if the heat declines, fresh dung must be added to the sides. Make a gentle hotbed within the ground for those that are to be under bell or hand glassies, and plant them on it at the end of the month. Sow more seed, that you may have plenty of plants. Endive planted out for seed should be earthed up, and the first crop sown. Sow fennel, in drills a foot asunder, for the first crop. Hotbeds for sowing of melons for bell glassies must be prepared, and loam and rotten dung pro- cured, to be ready. Sow kidney beans, the 2d crop, and the first of the scarlet flowering. Tie up lettuces, to assist their cabbaging; those in beds should be thinned to a foot distance; others plant- ed out, and the 4th crop sown very thin in an airy place. Melon beds will require to be kept up to a good heat, and the 2d and 3d crop planted out. Finish making mushroom beds, early in the month, which will last till September. Onion beds must be attended to, to keep clear from weeds as soon as any appear, and sow the second crop to draw young. Thin Parsley for garnishing dishes, and leave those plants which have the best curled leaves. Sow the large-rooted. Earth up peas frequently, and stick them as soon as any tendrils appear. Sow the 3d crop of marrowfat. Plant beans, and mushrooms. Plant cucumbers and melons on fresh hotbeds. Potatoes should now be finished planting. Pot and sweet herbs may still be sown and planted; and weed and earth the beds. Sow purslane, on a warm border in rich earth. Sow radishes, for a 5th crop in a cool place. Ship and plant out last year's rosemary, rue, sage, savory, and thyme. Search often for flies and thrips. Sow aromatic herbs and shrubs; mu- tard, peas, purslane, and dracillas. Sow cress, in a cool place. Turnips, hoe the first crop and sow cucumbers and melons. Sow spinach, the 2d crop, the 2d. Weed all the beds of seedling, while the weeds are small, and any other crops sown.

FLOWER-GARDEN AND SHALLOTT. Anemones in stormy weather will still require covering with mats. Annual flowers on hotbeds will require thinning, and some of the strongest must be plant- ed in single pots. Hardy annuals, if not already sown as directed in March, should be deferred no longer, and sown very thin. Anemones in bloom must be constantly attended to, and defended from violent winds, but yet have plenty of air in mild weather; the seedbeds will want frequent and gentle waterings. Balm or galead may be sown or slipped, but the strongest plants will be raised from seed. Biennial and perennial flowers, fi- nish sowing early in the month. Weeds or weeds the borders of the nursery and flower-garden.

ches distant, to be ready for transplanting. Sow the 6th crop of lettuces in a row, and thin those for seed to a foot distance. Sow melons in frames with mats in the day, and lay pieces of broken earth or dishes under the fruit. Plant out the oiled papers. Examine often the onion beds, that they do not want water. Thin the onion beds to 6 or 8 inches distant. Thin the beds for garnish, and the large rooted to the soil. Parsneps must be thinned to 10 inches. Sow the last marrowfat pease in a row. Plant lettuces and melons. Weed and sweet herbs often, and gather for use before they begin to flower; then tie in small bunches, and hang them across a shady room to dry. Prick out broccoli, cauliflowers, and celery. Sow turneps for radishes. Sow radishes, the 7th crop, and cress, and black Spanish, in a cool place. Coleseed may now be sown. Seeds of all sorts should be gathered as they ripen, and defended from vermin. Sow spinach, the 5th crop, thin in a cool place. Thin the following crops, and leave them at proper distances, as, beets, at 10 or 12 inches at first, at 8 or 10 inches. Leeks may be left in the ground, and transplanted in July. Lettuces for seed, at least a foot asunder; but 15 inches will be better. Onions, at 6 or 8 inches. Parsneps, at 10 inches. Turneps at 6 or 8 inches. Sow a row of turneps, and hoe the others. Water the seedlings and cuttings frequently. The young crops is of the utmost consequence this month, especially if it be a rainy season. Must not on any account be omitted; nor weeds run to seed.

FRUIT GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Take down the fruit before their leaves are quite withered, they will be more readily found. Annuals in the hotbeds will require fresh potting, and be placed in the open air if it be settled weather, but will want frequent watering. Annuals on the borders should have the earth stirred with a hoe, and be often watered, and more so in autumn, as described under last month. Biennials and perennials, transplant from the seedbeds. Hoe and rake borders of the flower garden and shrubbery frequently. Box may be cut, but always do it in moist weather. Budded flowers of every sort, whose leaves are withered, should be taken up before they are entirely disappear, and put into shallow boxes, as directed for hyacinths, as they dry. Carnations require to be examined often, and tied up to the sticks. Search for insects. Evergreens may be clipped in moist weather.

Grass and gravel walks will often require watering, but it should be done after rain, so that the roots may be drawn out without injury: they will often want mowing and rolling.

Hyacinths, as soon as dried, should be taken up of the ground, then rubbed with a woolen cloth to clear them entirely from earth, and allow them to dry in wooden drawers; but they should be put into flower-pots, earthen pans, or brick floors, for they will contract a mildewiness, which will make them rot.

Insects of all sorts should be sought for and destroyed. Kidney beans will want earthing, sticking, and the runners to be trained to the sticks. Mignonette, from the seedbeds, should be transplanted into small pots, and only 3 put into each; it will then be ready to put into larger pots, or upon the borders. Myrtles, and other greenhouse plants against walls, should be often watered, all fore-right shoots pulled off while small, and the others nailed to the walls with long narrow shreds of fine cloth. Plant out perennials and biennials from the seedbeds in showery weather; and, if the sun should be very hot soon after, cover each plant with a flower-pot, until they have taken root. Pinks may now be increased by making pipings or cuttings, but a glass must be placed over them. Plant out all annuals from the seedbeds and hotbeds: biennials and perennials from the seedbeds: mignonette both in pots and on borders: pipings of carnations and pinks. Attend to ranunculuses, and take them up as soon as the leaves are quite withered. Rose trees may now be layered and budded, and some very rotten dung spread on the ground, and digged in, and often watered; the flies and grubs must also be attended to. Seedlings of trees, shrubs, or flowers, should be covered with mats in the daytime, and often watered; but, if in pots, remove them into the shade. Seeds of all sorts which are ripening should be attended to, and gathered before they drop out of the pods. By a little attention to them, in most seasons, enough may be got for the next year, and the expence of buying saved. Shrubberies ought frequently to be looked over; all straggling branches should be cut off or tied up; and the grounds stirred with a Dutch hoe. Shrubs in pots may be set in pans, and watered often. Sow annuals, as described under last month, to flower in autumn, in any vacancies that may be on the borders of the shrubbery or flower garden. Tulips should be taken up before their leaves are quite decayed, that they may be found more readily; and if any of the offsets be very small, plant them again directly, and lay the roots to dry in shallow boxes. Tulips produce new bulbs every year, and the old ones decay entirely; therefore they should never be taken up until the new bulbs are quite formed. Water annuals in pots constantly; seedbeds of all sorts; and shrubs and trees lately planted. Weeds, in this month, it is of the utmost consequence to destroy before they flower. When cut down they should be raked up and carried away, for many sorts will otherwise ripen their seeds lying on the ground.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Apple trees in espaliers must be often examined; all fore-right shoots should be taken off while small, and the others regularly trained to their proper distances. Search for caterpillars. If the standard apple trees be infected with caterpillars, light some damp straw, and with a fork direct the smoke through the tree, and they will soon be suffocated, and instantly drop down. Apricots must be thinned for the 3d and last time, and the shoots frequently nailed up. Blighted trees must be constantly attended to, as directed last month. Bud apricots, cherries, and peach trees. Search for caterpillars upon

upon apple trees. Cherry trees against walls should be covered with nets, to defend the fruit from birds. Look over the espalier trees often, and train the shoots in regular order. Nail up fig trees with very strong shreds. Nail up every week shoots of wall trees. Nectarines and peaches will require thinning the 2d time, nailing up the shoots and pinching off the ends where vacancies want filling up. Nail up pears and plums as they shoot, and pull off all fore-right shoots. Keep stocks, intended to be budded, free from weeds. Strawberries in flower will need frequent watering in dry weather. Lay tiles or wheat straw under the fruit of the scarlets, and pull off all decayed leaves; this will keep the fruit clean, and cause it to ripen sooner by several days. Cut off all runners as fast as they shoot. To make some fresh beds, reserve the first runners, as they are the strongest. Attend to the flowering of the hautboys, as directed under last month. Vines require constant attendance, in rubbing off improper buds, and nailing up the shoots. Water those trees frequently which are blighted: all newly planted trees in dry weather; and strawberries in flower.

GREENHOUSE. Air may now be given very freely in the greenhouse, and the windows may be kept open all night. Fresh earth aloes, and place near the windows, but take out the Americans. Plant cuttings of various sorts, under bell or hand glasses, at the end of the month. Earth all the plants every month at top, if not shifted. It makes them look neater, and grow better. Geranium seedlings sown in March will now require pricking out, and cuttings planted under glasses. March jessamines, lemons, and oranges. Layer jessamines, oleanders, &c. Plant myrtle cuttings at the end of the month under glass, but never take them off till they have grown two inches. Orange trees, if not taken out at the end of last month, will require it at the beginning of this. Clean well the leaves which are mowed, or have insects on them, with a sponge and warm water. Inarching may now be performed. Those on hot-beds, and the young seedlings, must be attended to, and the stems of the old trees should be frequently washed. Often water seedling plants of all sorts; shade them in the middle of the day, and prick out the strongest to make room for others. Succulent plants may now be shifted, the offsets taken off, placed near the windows, and be often watered. Watering some of the plants will be necessary almost every day.

JULY.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Aromatic herbs, flowers, and shrubs, gathered last month, if hung on lines will soon be dried. It is then better to strip off the leaves and flowers from the stalks, and put them into paper bags, which will preserve their flavour better, and keep them free from dust. Continuing to gather them before their flowers are too much opened. Asparagus if wished for in autumn, must be attended to at the beginning of this month; the stalks must be cut down, and, if it be dry weather, the beds must be very well watered with the draining from a dunghill. Next day fork them up lightly, and rake them smooth; if the weather continues dry, water them every night

for a week, and in about 8 or 10 days they will be fit to cut. If this be done every year, leave or 3 beds uncultivated at spring, and make some more beds to allow for this double crop. Beans, plant the 5th crop of mazagan, and the 4th of Windsor, late crops. Finish thinning of beets to their proper distance. Plant the 2d crop of kale, prick out the 3d, and the first of Arjou. Plant out the 3d crop of broccoli, and prick out the 4th. Plant the 4th crop of cabbages, and prick out the 5th. Prick out the 3d crop of red cabbages. Plant the 2d crop of Savoys, and prick out the 3d. Plant bage turneps, &c. for cattle, prick out the 4th crop. Sow carrots to draw young, the 3d crop. Earth up and often water capsicums. Plant the 4th crop of cauliflowers. Plant the 2d of celeriac, and prick out the 5th. Finish sowing coleworts, and rape. Prick out the 2d crop of coleworts. Stick cucumbers on the open ground with branches of elm or other sticks. Lay tiles over endive, or tie up the first crop; plant the 2d, prick out the 3d, and sow the 4th very thin. Take up shallots and garlic for present use. Sow fennel the 4th crop. Sow kidney beans, on a south wall, the 5th and last crop. Still plant lavender and rosemary cuttings. Plant out leeks in double rows, at six inches distance, and a foot between the rows. Sow the 7th crop of lettuces in a cool place; and hoe those intended for seed. Must be frequently attended to. Water the rooms in dry weather. Pull onions, when the leaves begin to wither, out of the ground. Sow the first crop of Welsh onions, and the last crop to draw young. Sow the 3d crop of parsley, against a south wall. Peas sown last month will be sticking. Sow the 4th crop of hotspurs. Plant red cabbages, rosemary, and Savoys. Gather herbs and sweet herbs for drying; and, as soon as dried, strip off the leaves, and put them into paper bags. Prick out broccoli, cabbages, coleworts, and boarcole. Sow radishes, the 1st crop; also turnep-rooted, and black Spanish; hoe the first. Seeds of all sorts must be attended to, and gathered as they ripen. Sow rape and turnep-radishes. Sow spinach the 6th crop, and the first of prickly, in a cool place, very thin. Sow turneps, the 5th and principal crop for winter use, and hoe the other crops. Water the beds of seedlings, and all young crops. Weeds must be constantly attended to, and raked off the ground, or else many sorts will ripen as they are on the ground.

FLOWER GARDEN AND SHRUBBERY. Annuals in pots require a constant attention, lest they should want water; and those on the borders require sticking and tying. Seeds nearly ripe must be watched and gathered, else many sorts will be lost. Annuals, to flower late in autumn, may still be sown. Auriculas and polyanthus from the seed bed should be transplanted upon a shady border, and, if possible, in rainy weather. Finish cutting of box and evergreen shrubs. Bud the curious sorts of jessamines, roses, &c. Bulbous roots must still be attended to, to take up dry and clean, and then put in shallow wooden boxes. Saffron crocus, and many other sorts, which flower in autumn, may now be planted. Carnations must be constantly watered, earwigs gathered for, and laid

pipings made. Evergreens, if required, now be transplanted, but it should be in dry weather; and let the clipping be finished and gravel walks must be frequently mowed, and rolled. Hyacinths should be taken up to see that there is no moulding on them; and if any be decayed, they should be thrown away. Kidney beans must be examined, they are trained to the sticks, and watered as they are trained. Lilies of many sorts, if they have begun to flower, may be taken up; but the roots should be of moderate size, that the small offsets must be taken up and planted again directly. Mignonette should be taken up to flower in winter, and more put in.

Myrtles, and other greenhouse plants, will require frequent nailing and watering.

Finish planting perennials and biennial seed beds. Pinks, finish making pipe cuttings. Plant auricula and polyanthus; biennial and perennial seedlings: cuttings of carnations and pinks: evergreens, if they are rainy: mignonette into pots: offsets: offsets of autumnal flowering bulbs: offsets of carnations and pinks: saffron-crocuses must be taken up, and laid in the dry; then well cleaned from earth, and put in boxes, or put into paper boxes. Finishing and budding of rose trees. Seedling trees, and flowers, must be properly watered. Seeds now begin to ripen very early must be constantly attended to, and sown. Shrubberies will require frequent watering in pruning or hoeing. Sow the last crop of annuals and mignonette. Tulips should be taken up, and as soon as dry, the earth should be rubbed off, and then laid in shallow boxes. Water annuals in pots often, seedbeds, and trees, and shrubs planted this spring. If it be rainy this month, grow very fast; the ground should be frequently hoed, and seeds sown to run to seed.

GARDEN and ORCHARD. Destroy ants, and wasps, as soon as they appear, by hanging half filled with sugar, or honey and vinegar. Often look over apricot trees; pull off the light shoots, and nail those which are to remain. Attend to blighted trees, and water them often. Budding of apricots, cherries, and finish. Currants intended to be preserved for autumn, should now be covered with straw. Often examine espalier trees, and train in them. Fig trees require nailing up as they grow, with strong nails and long threads. Fruit should be gathered in the morning, as soon as the dew has dried from it, and before it is hot, and then laid in a cool room. The fruit should now be prepared; it should be situated in a cool place, the shelves neat and clean, the fruit covered with tiles, or else white washed or painted white. Destroy insects of all sorts. Nail up the shoots of wall trees. Thin nectarines for the 3d and last time, and nail up the shoots. Water strawberries in flower in dry weather, and pull off decayed fruit. Tie up the fruit of the hantboys and other sorts to sticks. Cut off all runners as they come, and these should be planted out as soon as rain falls. Vines must be very often

attended to, to nail up the shoots, and pull off all improper buds. Wall trees require constant attention, to nail up and water in very dry weather. Water the blighted and new planted trees; strawberries in flower, or runners lately planted.

GREENHOUSE. African aloes, and other succulent green-house plants, may now be set out in the open air. Cuttings of asters, geraniums, grewias, myrtles, &c. should now be planted under bell or hand glasses, which should not be taken off until they have grown an inch. Earth the tops of all the pots, first taking a little out. Plant geranium cuttings, and prick out the seedlings before they are too thick. Those with variegated leaves do best in alcoves or under a little shelter. Paint and white-wash the greenhouse. Inarching and layering various sorts may still be performed. Plant myrtle cuttings under glasses, and water frequently near the glass, without taking them off. The small ones may be planted in beds. Orange trees must be examined: if there be insects under the leaves, wash them off. Shade and water those on hotbeds often. Plant stocks when four inches high, in separate pots. Pans should be placed under all the pots, as it is better for the plants, and saves much trouble in watering. Shade, water, and prick out seedling plants. Succulent plants, as a oes, cereuses, ficoides, and Indian figs, torch-thistles, &c. may now be set abroad. Watering the plants must be attended to every day.

AUGUST.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Sow alifanders, angelica, and chervil. Asparagus cut down last month will require constant watering. Beans planted last month will also want watering. Broccoli, cabbages, cauliflowers, and colewort, lately planted, will require hoeing around them, and earth must be drawn up to their stems. Plant out the 3d crop of broccoli. Cabbages, for the first crop at spring, should be sown about the 10th or 12th day of the month. Prick out the 2d crop of cabbage turneps. Weed carrots sown last month as soon as they appear. Sow cauliflowers, for the first spring crop, about the 20th in rich earth, but shade them in the middle of the day by mats. Earth the first crop of celery for blanching, and plant out the third. Plant out some of the 2d crop of coleworts. Sow corn salad on beds. Cucumbers for pickling, either large or small, to have them fine, should now be gathered; and they will be free from spots, and save much trouble in greening. Train them regularly into the sticks. Often tie up endive for blanching; plant out the 3d crop, and thin the 4th. Take up chalcots, garlic, and rorambois, if the stalks be quite withered: clean them from earth, and keep them in a dry place. Kidney beans, sown for the last crop, must be watered in dry weather. Finish planting out beets. Lettuces, for standing through the winter, and for forcing, must now be sown very thin at 3 different times in the month: and plant out those last sown, on a south border. Melons, in rainy weather, must be defended from wet by putting hand glasses over them; and sticks placed for the pickling melons to run up. Prepare mushroom beds, by having dung and spawn ready for the next month. Onions must be frequently

quently turned, that they may be well dried. Sow the 2d crop of Welsh onions. Gather pepper-mint for distilling, as soon as it begins to flower. Sow some hotspur peas, on a south border for the 5th and last-crop. Plant celery, endive, leeks, and lettuce. Prick out Anjou, Brussels booreole, cabbage-turneps, and turnep-rooted cabbages. Sow radishes, the 9th and last crop. Seeds, nearly ripe must be guarded from birds, particularly radish seeds. Sow cress, fennel, mustard, and sorrel. Sow the 2d crop of prickly broadcast spinach, and then, at spring, hoe it into beds 4 feet wide, with paths of 18 inches between the beds. Hoe, and sow the 6th crop of turneps. Water seedling beds in the morning. Weeds grow very fast in moist weather, and therefore must be hoed frequently, raked together and carried away.

FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Annuals in pots will want frequent watering. Those on borders sticking and tying, and the seeds gathering of those nearly ripe. Anemone and auricula seeds are sown this month by many, but they do better in Jan. or Feb. Slip and fresh-pot the auriculas. Balsams, in pots, intended to raise seed from, must be removed into shelter. Plant bulbous roots, that flower in autumn, early in the month. Bulbous roots of all sorts should have their offsets planted at the end of the month. Take off carnations layers, and plant out the pipings from under the glasses. Finish clipping of evergreen trees and shrubs. Grass walks and lawns require frequent mowing. Gravel walks must be weeded and rolled. Take up lilies, if their leaves be decayed; but the offsets must be planted again directly. Plant mignonette in pots to flower in winter, and place them under a south wall. Myrtles and greenhouse plants against walls must be pruned and nailed, and constantly watered. Plant out the pipings of pinks if they have struck roots. Plant Guernsey lilies in pots. Attend to seeds of all sorts of flowers and shrubs, and gather them as they ripen. Remove seedlings in pots, to places where they will have the morning sun. Shrubberies will want frequent hoeing to keep down the weeds. Strawberry runners will require to be constantly taken off as they shoot out, to keep the borders and walks neat. Water plants in the morning, at the end of the month. Weeds must be frequently destroyed to prevent their running to seed.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Destroy ants, flies, and wasps, by supplying fresh bottles of sugar, or honey and water. Apple trees on espaliers will require frequent examining. Budding of all trees, finish, and pull off buds and shoots from the stocks. Currants intended to be preserved, finish covering with mats. Examine espalier trees, constantly to train in the shoots. Nail up fig trees, with strong nails. Gather fruit early in the morning, and lay it in a cool room. Finish the fruit room, by white washing or painting, and putting the shelves in order. Destroy insects of all sorts. Nail up every week the fruit trees. Nail up nectarines and peaches frequently. Attend to pear and plum trees, both on walls and against espaliers, constantly. Transplant strawberry runners if rooted, in rainy weather, and *cut off all the others* as they shoot. Vines must

be constantly nailed up, as they shoot and the bunches of grapes begin to be all weak shoots must be constantly Water strawberry runners lately planted blighted fruit trees.

GREENHOUSE. Take off the offsets both African and American, and plant in separate pots. Often water the cuttings of raniums, &c. Earth the tops of a Water geraniums and myrtles, and pour on the water gently. Oranges, the middle of the month. Prune an quire it, as this is the season of the Water the young stocks and those Finish the painting and white-washing of house. Finish pricking out seedling water and shade them. Shift the p require it into large pots, and earth Succulent plants should be shifted, and of the month be rainy, take them in. freely, if the weather be dry, but in morning.

SEPTEMBER.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Aromatic herb should have their decayed stalks cut and strengthen them; and transplant them. ed in July must be earthed up, and the ed off as soon as they begin to flower. the third crop of kale and the first of the other crops and earth them up. part of the 4th crop of broccoli, and other crops. Plant out the 5th crop prick out the first crop, on a south earth up any that want it. Plant out of favoys and red cabbages; and the cabbage-turneps. Hoe carrots sown in leave them at six inches distance. Cauliflower last month must be pricked out, watered until they are rooted. Earth up them and break down the leaves if they begin Plant out the 4th crop of celery, and first and 2d to blanch. Chardons will blanching. Plant out more of the coleworts, a few at a time, to thin the cress and mustard, every week, and at the month under glasses. Cucumbers should be finished gathering; which the advantage of sticking them, and pick Plant out a little of the 4th crop of endive it, and give the rest more room. to blanch. Eichelots, garlic, and should have the offsets and small roots Lettuces must be thinned early in the sown thick, and pricked out on a south about 4 or 5 inches asunder. Melons will now be fit to gather. Make must at the beginning of the month. Gather for pickling. Finish sowing onions, in month, the 2d crop of Welsh. Weeds last month before the weeds are in water-cresses. Prick out cabbages, and lettuces. Gather seeds constantly as Sow cress, mustard, turneps, and water Finish sowing spinach for spring use, in sown last month. Plant tarragon roots thin turneps, turnep-radishes, and bl radishes. Water in dry weather any

l. Weeds must be particularly attended to the onions, carrots, and lettuces, are small.

GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Plant single flowered, at the end of the flower early. Annuals in pots must be watered to ripen the seeds. Remove that they may have the morning sun, slipping them. Balsams, cockscombs, or other curious annuals in pots, which to raise seeds from, must be placed in an alcove, greenhouse, or room to the south, and then the seeds will ripen. Plant box for edgings, at the beginning of the month, or as soon as any rain falls. Plant roots of all sorts, early in the month; sets and lilies, and crown-imperials first. Greens, at the end of the month, if it be moist. Grass walks may now be made or new ones made. Weed and roll paths often. Plant hyacinths, jonquils, anemones, polyanthus narcissus, &c. at the end of the month. Plant laurel cuttings, in

Layer laurustinus and other shrubs. Lilies which flower late, as soon as their buds are decayed, but plant the offsets again and all other sorts of lilies. Place Mignonette in pots, under shelter. Myrtles and other plants against walls must be constantly watered in dry weather. Plant out perennial feeders, divide the old roots. Plant box for evergreens; crown-imperials and lilies in the month; cuttings of laurel, honeysuckles, shrubs and trees of all sorts; and after there has been some rain. Straw-thrift for edgings. Gather seeds, in the evening of the day. Weed and earth seedling beds, hoe, and rake, shrubberies. Sow peas, as cornbottles, larkspurs, pansies, poppies, sweet peas, &c. to flower in spring. Constantly take off strawberry and replace any of the edgings which have run up entirely the old plants; then take up the earth, and bring in fresh loam. Plant bulbs, and all sorts of bulbous roots, the first of the month. Lay down turf for grass walks. Hoe and rake weeds off the ground; after the seeds will ripen, and in wet weather the roots will strike again.

GARDEN and ORCHARD. Destroy ants, and insects of all sorts constantly. Sow seeds on beds. Plant currant and gooseberry cuttings and trees. Nail up fig-trees fresh strong shreds. Attend to the fruit and pick out the rotten pears, or any which begin to decay. Put grapes in scrape, gauze, or paper. Plant currants, raspberries, strawberries. Strawberries planted early in the month, and then they will be rooted before the frost begins. Daisies and plant some strong roots in pots to winter in, and they will bear fruit till January. Dressing, in cold wet weather, of foot-paths, is proper to be spread on the borders of the garden. Vines will require frequent nailing;

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take off all the weak shoots, that the grapes may not be too much shaded.

GREENHOUSE. Remove aloe into the greenhouse in the beginning of the month, but leave out the American ones till the end. Plant cuttings and seedlings, in separate pots, and earth the tops of all the pots. Set in geraniums with variegated leaves, early in the month, and leave off watering the leaves. Take myrtles out of the ground and pot them. Fresh earth orange trees, thin the fruit, or most of it will fall off, and take them into the house at the end of the month. Take in succulent plants of all sorts, early in the month, and give them very little water. Take in aloe, variegated geraniums, and succulent plants, at the beginning of the month; orange trees and tender plants at the end; but myrtles and hardy plants may remain out till the beginning of the next month, unless there is an appearance of frosty nights. Water in the morning, and keep the windows open all night; leave off watering the geraniums over the leaves.

O C T O B E R.

KITCHEN GARDEN. As October is the only time to crop a kitchen garden before winter, omit not any thing ordered now, till next month, and if it can be done at the beginning, instead of the end of the month, it will be much better, lest the rains should come on. Weed aromatic herbs and shrubs in beds, and spread some earth over them. Cut down asparagus stalks, hoe the weeds, and spread earth from the paths on them, but first a little rotten dung. Prepare hotbeds, for forcing, and plant three-year old plants for the first crop. Beans, the early mazagan, must be planted on a south border, for the first crop. Plant out anjou boorcole, the second crop, early in the month, and hoe the ground around the others. Plant out broccoli, the rest of the 4th crop. Plant out half the cabbages, sown in August, of the early sorts, in a warm situation. Plant cabbage-turneps, early in the month, and earth up the others. Finish hoeing carrots, sown in July. Attend to cress-flowers, beginning to flower, by breaking down the leaves. Those intended for glasses will want planting out; let there be six to each glass, and the rest in a frame, or under a south wall. Plant out celery, the 5th and last crop, and earth up the 2d to blanch. Finish planting coleworts. Sow cress, mustard, and radish, under glasses, and on a hotbed at the end of the month. Tie up endive, to blanch, or lay tiles on it, and plant more. Plant eschalots, garlic, and rocambole. Throw up vacant ground into ridges. Hoe boorcole, broccoli, cabbages, and cabbage-turneps; and draw up earth to their stems. Hoe carrots and turneps. Prepare hotbeds, for forcing asparagus and lettuces. Plant out lettuces, cabbage and brown Dutch, on asparagus beds, some under glasses, and others on hotbeds for forcing. Finish gathering melons for pickling. Plant mint, in pots, on a hotbed. Cover mushroom beds well with straw and mats, to defend them from rain. Onions will require to be very well weeded, and should be examined 2 or 3 times in the month. Sow peas, the early hotspurs, on a south border near the wall, for a

first crop. Plant on hotbeds asparagus for the first crop, and lettuces and mints. Plant out, to stand for seed, beet, cabbage, carrots, parsnips, parsnips, turneps. Weed pot herbs and sweet herbs in beds; dig up the earth, and spread some over them. Seeds of all sorts should be threshed out, dried, and put into bags. Sow cress and mustard on hotbeds: Peas on a south border. Hoe spinach for the last time before winter. Destroy weeds in every part of the garden.

FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Any thing ordered last month, if omitted, should early in this, as the beginning of this month is the proper time when the flower garden and shrubbery should be put into order before the winter. Finish planting anemones, to flower early, the first week in the month. Remove zinnias and carnations, into shelter, and in wet weather cover them with mats. Balsams, cockscombs, egg plants, &c. intended to raise seed from, must be constantly attended to, to hasten the ripening of the seed. Turn over beds and composts for bulbous roots, frequently. Finish planting box for edgings, early in the month. Plant bulbous roots for edgings, in pots or boxes, and finish planting pot plants before the rain sets in. Plant a row of aconites, snowdrops, and any bulbous roots which it were early not sowing, at the beginning of the month. Plant evergreens of all sorts, early in the month. Finish laying grass walks, and repair any of the cold places. Weed gravel walks, and rake them in dry weather. Plant by this time, jonquils, lilies, narcissus, and polyanthus in redoubts, early in the month. Finish layering of shrubs. Take off suckers and layers; and, if small, plant them in beds two feet asunder, to be ready against the next season. Finish planting tulips, early in the month, and all sorts of bulbous roots. Finish laying turf early in the month. Hoe and rake off weeds, or they will root again. If possible leave nothing ordered this month unfinished, on account of the uncertainty of the weather in the succeeding month.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Gather apples and pears in the middle of fine dry days. Plant apple trees at the end of the month. Plant currants, gooseberries, and raspberries. Examine grapes in bays, to see that they are not mouldy or decayed. Gather nectarines and peaches, in the middle of the day. Orchards or fruit trees intended to be planted, should have the ground prepared, and the holes dug some weeks before the time; if the soil be very good, some loam and rotten dung should be mixed together, and

the trees planted in it. If the soil be poor, bring a cart load of earth at least 1 foot from the earth into a little hill, above and put the tree upon it, but first a foot deep in a circle of 4 feet. Gather peaches in the middle of the month, lay them in the sun for a week, they are much improved gently like a pie, and eating, the best wine. Plant peach trees, at 1 month. Plant fruit trees of all sorts, four or five trees, but sweep off all with a black brown. Finish dressing beds, and water the asparagus frequently. Vines in pots should be made the holes ready, pour water in this, gently turn them out of the pot in the hole and break it, and it cannot be disturbed, and you will next year. Finish pruning and planting early in the month.

GARTEN. Give air very day time, at the very close of the winter night until the end of the month. If of the pots. Take in geraniums monthly, if not done the last; water by, or they will begin to shoot small and become a decayed leaves. Open the best plants, or set in order, the decayed. Take in myrtles two the month. Open the trees found in the month; even the leaves there in for insects, which fasten underneath, and pick them off; if milkweed, wash them with warm urine. Water succulent plants sparingly, myrtles, orange trees, winter chesnut, woody plants often. Open the winter fine day, but keep them shut in fog.

NOVEMBER.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Any thing month, if omitted, may be finished before the rain prevents. Cut do stalks, and earth them up. Asparagus beds must have air given to it; a plant the 2d bed; cut down the straw dressing the beds. Finish planting first crop. Plant beets, cabbages, a feed. Take up carrots and lay them in frames, in the middle of fine days. Sery when dry, to blanch. Sow cress and radishes on hotbeds. Take up plant edout, and plant on the south side raised up two feet high. Throw up vines into ridges. Prepare hotbeds for fungus and lettuces. Attend to lettuce and give them air in the middle of the mushroom beds from wet. Take and large rooted parsley. Draw ear and beans above ground, and place in nice. Plant asparagus on a hotbed crop: endive on the south side of beets, cabbages, and carrots, for potatoes, sort them, pick out the best and reserve the best for use in winter. Short topped radishes about the 20th

beaten straw over the beds. Dig up fillets, and scorzoneras. Sow cress, mustard, and radishes on hotbeds for small saladings. Sowing again, if it be too thick. Drain off water; weed all the crops; and take care to prevent their rooting again.

FRUIT GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. November generally a very rainy month, if any sowing to be omitted last month, let it be done early in this. Bulbous roots, intended for forcing in water early, may now be placed on hotbeds, and let all others be finished planting during the month. Those in pots or tubs must be frequently watered, and placed as near the sun and light as possible; for in the winter they will draw up weak. Composts wanted for forcing in spring should now be collected; peat, sand, willow earth, rotten tan, dung, &c. must be laid in dry sunny places, and frequently turned over, but by no means in the open places. Gravel walks near the house must be rolled a little when the weather will permit; their being kept hard prevents weeds growing; but never throw them up into the air. Leaves should be constantly swept up as they fall, or they will spoil the walks. Myrtles against walls should have two boards six inches wide fixed, one at each side, with a mat on the top, on which a mat should be nailed up and down occasionally. Plant early in the month all bulbous roots; particularly those for forcing. Shrubberies should be pruned, and the ground hoed. All sorts of shrubs and trees must be finished planting early in the month; litter, straw, or turf, turned downwards, and laid over the roots to keep out the frost. Drains should be dug, and drains made to carry off the water wherever it stands; a large drain, placed downwards in the earth, will carry off a great quantity of water.

GARDEN and ORCHARD. Finish any sowing omitted last month, that has been omitted, &c. Finish gathering apples and pears as they come in together and sweated; the most delicate sorts, which keep long, should be wiped with a cloth. Prune and plant apple and pear trees, and pull off the green figs. Attend to the fruit room; pick out every leaf, and all decayed apples or pears. Finish plantings at the beginning of this month, and all fruit trees. Finish planting and pruning of standard and wall trees, early in the month. Plant strawberries in pots for forcing, &c.; and attend to the alpine. Finish planting and pruning of wall trees.

GREENHOUSE. Give air in the middle of the day when very foggy. Earth the tops of any pots, when any mould appears on them. Frequently pick off geranium leaves as they decay; and give them water sparingly; also, all decayed leaves, as they decay, give air of the house very much. Succulents, as aloes, ficoides, &c. will require but little water; large aloes the most. Water plants often, but give them only little at a time; dampness is more prejudicial in a greenhouse than cold.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Asparagus must be planted for the 3d crop, and give it both light and air to colour it. If the beds be not warm enough, line them with fresh dung. Broccoli, and cabbages must be well earthed up, to keep them upright, and all decayed leaves picked off. Cauliflower plants must have air while the weather is mild, and pick off dead leaves. Earth up celery when dry, for blanching. Sow cress, mustard, and radishes, on hotbeds every week. Weed and turn over dunghills in frosty weather. Tie up endive for blanching. Hotbeds must be attended to, and plenty of hot dung and loam provided for cucumbers and melons. Lettuces under glasses must have air given them in the middle of mild days. Mushroom beds must have dry straw. Earth up peas and beans above ground. Roots preserved in sand, as carrots, potatoes, &c. should be finished before the frost sets in. Search for snails in the holes of the walls. Sow cress, mustard, and radishes, on hotbeds every week. Repair, grind, and put in order tools. Set traps to catch mice in; and make trenches to drain off the water.

FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Examine auriculas frequently, and pick off all decayed leaves. Bulbous roots for forcing must be constantly attended to, to give them water, which should always be soft; and change that in the glasses when foul. Carnations in pots should be plunged into the ground; but, if ashes or sand be put between the pots, it will keep them dryer than earth. Flowers and shrubs in pots should be plunged into the ground, to keep the frost from the roots. Forest trees may still be planted, if there be not much frost; otherwise it is better to defer it till spring. Shrubs and trees may still be pruned; and long litter, &c. laid over the roots of those lately planted. Trenches and drains should be made wherever the water stands.

FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD. Examine apples and pears in the fruit room; pick out such as appear the soundest of the best sorts, and wrap each in a piece of paper. This will cause them to keep several weeks longer. Repair espaliers; prune the trees; spread some rotten dung on the border, and fork it in. Finish pruning fig trees. Guard the fruit room from frost, but give it some air, when the weather is not very damp nor frosty. Examine the orchard, and take care that the newly planted trees are well staked and mulched; and cut out the dead wood from the standard trees. Finish pruning and planting wall trees early in the month.

GREENHOUSE. Air must be given whenever the weather is mild and will permit it. Earth the tops of the pots, but first take out a little of the old. Frost must be guarded against, by keeping the doors and windows close, when it begins to freeze. Constantly pick off decayed leaves. Myrtles and other greenhouse plants against walls will require to have mats placed before them, and, in the middle of fine days, before the frost is set in, rolled up, but let down again at night. Long litter, or rotten tan, should also be laid over the roots

GARDENING.

See

he frost. Myrtles may al-
pits made against a south
by frosty weather with mats
near a foot thick. Many are preserved
near London, with only hurdles
er the pit, without any glass, and covered
ick in frost with straw and mats. Succu-
will require but very little water. Wa-
plants which require it very sparingly.
rindows for 3 or 4 hours in the middle
day.

A TABLE showing the NUMBER of
required of EACH SORT of VEGETABLES,
a REGULAR SUCCESSION through the
with the TIME of SOWING and PLANT.

GARDEN PLANTS, SEEDS, and ROOTS.

	No. of Crops.	Time of Sowing, &c.
der	1	Mar. Aug.
ica	2	Mar. Aug.
oke	1	Mar. or Apr.
ragus	1	Mar. or Apr.
— forced	5	Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. Feb.
— in autumn	1	July, it cut down
Balm	1	Mar. or Apr.
Basil	1	Mar. or Apr.
Beans, early	5	Oct. Jan. Feb. Mar. July
— late	4	Feb. Mar. Apr. July
Beets	1	Feb. or Mar.
Bourcole or kale	1	Mar. Apr. June
— Anjou	2	May, June
Borage	1	Feb. or Mar.
Broccoli	4	Mar. Apr. May, June
Burnet	1	Mar. or Apr.
Cabbages, early	1	Aug.
— late	4	Feb. Mar. May, June
— red	3	Feb. Mar. June
— Savoy	3	Mar. May, June
— for cattle	2	May, June
— for seed	1	Oct. or Nov.
Cabbier turneps	2	May, June
Camomile	1	Mar. or Apr.
Capsicums	1	Mar. or Apr.
Carrots to draw	1	Jan. Apr. July
— young	3	Feb. or Mar.
— principal crop	1	Feb.
— for seed	1	Aug. Feb. Mar. May
Cauliflowers	4	Feb. Mar. Apr. May, June
Celery	5	Mar. or Apr.
Chardons	1	Mar. Aug.
Chervil	2	Mar. or Apr.
Cives	1	Mar. or Apr.
Clary	1	Mar. or Apr.
Coleseed	1	June or July
Coleworts	2	Feb. June or July
Corn salad	2	Mar. Aug.
Cress for seed	1	Mar. or Apr.
— for salad	1	Mar. to Sept.
— on hotbeds	1	Oct. to Mar.
Cucumbers	5	Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May
— on hotbeds	3	Jan. Feb. Mar.
— for bell glasses	1	Apr.
— on open ground	1	May or June
Dill	1	Mar. or Apr.
Endives	4	Apr. May, June, July
Escarots	1	Jan. or Feb.
Eschalot	2	Feb. Sept.
Fennel	1	Feb. Aug.
Finochio	4	Apr. May, June, July
Garlic	2	Feb. Sept.
Horseradish	1	Feb. or Mar.
Hyssop	1	Mar. or Apr.
Jerusalem arti- chokes	1	Feb. or Mar.
Kidney beans	5	Mar. Apr. May, June
— Runners	2	Apr. May
Lavender	1	May or June
Leeks	1	Feb. or Mar.
Lettuces	9	Feb. to Aug.
Marjoram	2	Mar. Apr.
Marygold	1	Feb. to Apr.
Melons	3	Feb. Mar. Apr.
— for autumn	1	May
Mint	2	Mar. or Apr.
Mushrooms	2	Mar. Sept.
Mustard, for seed	1	Mar. or Apr.
— for salad	1	Mar. to Sept.
— on hotbeds	1	Oct. to Mar.
Nasturtiums	1	Mar. or Apr.
Onions to draw	1	Jan. Apr. May, June
— young	4	Feb. or Mar.
— principal crop	1	Feb. or Mar.
— for seed	1	July, Aug.
— Welsh	2	Feb. Mar. July
Parsley	3	Feb. Apr.
— large rooted	2	Feb. Mar. or Apr.
Parsnips	5	Oct. Jan. Feb. July
Peas, hot-spurs	5	Feb. Mar. Apr. May
— Marrowfat	1	Mar. or Apr.
Pennyroyal	1	Feb. Mar. Apr.
Potatoes	3	Jan. or Feb.
— on hotbeds	1	Mar. Apr. May
Pouffine	3	Jan. to Aug. as
Radishes	9	Jan. Feb.
— on hotbeds	2	Mar. to Sept.
— for salad	1	May
— for seed	1	Mar. or Apr.
Rampion	1	June or July
Rape	1	Mar. to Sept.
— for salad	2	Feb. Sept.
Rocambole	1	May, or June
Rosemary	1	Mar. or Apr.
Rue	1	Mar. or Apr.
Sage	1	Mar. or Apr.
Salsify	1	Mar. or Apr.
Savory	1	Mar. May, June
Savoy cabbage	3	Mar. Apr. June
Scorzonera	1	Mar. or Apr.
Scotch kale	3	Mar. Apr. June
Sea kale	1	Mar. or Apr.
Skirrets	1	Mar. or Apr.
Sorrel	2	Mar. Aug.
Spinach	6	Feb. to July
— Winter	2	July, Aug. or S.
Tansey	1	Mar. or Sept.
Tarragon	1	Mar. or Sept.
Thyme	1	Mar. or Apr.
Tomatoes	1	Mar. or Apr.
Turneps	6	Mar. or Aug.
— for seed	1	Feb.
Turnep-cabbage	1	May, June
Turnep-radish	2	June, July
Water-cress	2	Mar. Sept.

CATALOGUE of FLOWERS, SHRUBS, TREES USUALLY CULTIVATED.

TENDER ANNUAL FLOWERS.

Sown on a strong hotbed the last week in March, transplanted afterwards in another at 4 inches distance; then in small pots in May; afterwards in larger, and of June placed in the open air.

- | | |
|--------------|--------------------|
| Antennaria | 6. Humble plant |
| Asperula | 7. Ice plant |
| Campanula | 8. Sensitive plant |
| Centaurea | 9. Stramonium |
| C. amarantha | |

II. ANNUAL FLOWERS.

Sown on a moderate hotbed in March or April, transplanted afterwards before they are too high in light earth, and covered with mats; in the month or six weeks into pots, or border flower-garden.

- | | |
|--------------|----------------------|
| Antennaria | 8. French marygold |
| Asperula | 9. Marvel of Peru |
| Campanula | 10. Mignonette |
| Centaurea | 11. Nolana |
| C. after | 12. Palma Christi |
| C. or Indian | 13. Stock Julyflower |
| | 14. Sultan, yellow |
| anthemum. | 15. Zinnia |

Give them, six numbers to them, corresponding to these, to distinguish each sort when they come.

III. HARDY ANNUAL FLOWERS.

Sown in March or April on the borders of a garden. Those marked thus †, being hardy, may be sown in the beginning of the flower early. Hollow the earth out a little basin, about a foot over, and deep; draw a circle near the edge half an inch deep, and drop a few seeds in it; thin after they appear, and leave them at 6 inches, but the large sorts wider. In the autumn, they will want frequent watering. Save the seeds as they ripen, and you may save the trouble of buying any in another season.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------------|
| flower † | 23. Mallow |
| gigi | 24. Mignonette |
| | 25. Nasturtium † |
| th | 26. Nigella, or devil in a bush † |
| tea | 27. Pansey, or heart-ease |
| Soldavian | 28. Peas, sweet scented † |
| e | 29. Persicaria † |
| ust † | 30. Poppy † |
| , Lobel's † | 31. Safflower, or bastard saffron |
| lar trefoil | 32. Snail trefoil |
| d and white | 33. Snap-dragon |
| ulus | 34. Stock July-flower † |
| tle † | 35. Sun flower |
| er, spurting | 36. Sweet sultan |
| y, yellow | 37. Tobacco |
| g trefoil | 38. Venus's looking-glass † |
| ort | 39. Venus's navelwort |
| orn | 40. Xeranthemum |

In July, sow again annual stock, candy tuft, convolvulus minor, cornbottles, Lobel's catchfly, and yellow lupines, and they will flower until the frost kills them.

IV. BIENNIAL FLOWERS.

To be sown in March or April in beds very thin; as soon as the plants touch one another, thin them, and leave them at 4 or 6 inches asunder; those drawn out, plant at the same distance. In July transplant them all upon beds, at eight inches asunder; there to remain till the end of September, when they must be planted upon the borders of the flower garden, and they will produce their flowers the next summer, after which they will perfect their seeds and die.

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Canterbury bell | 7. Poppy, yellow horn- |
| 2. Colutea, Æthiopian | 8. Rocket [ed] |
| 3. French honeysuckle | 9. Scabious |
| 4. Globe thistle | 10. Stock Julyflower |
| 5. Honesty, or moonwort | 11. Sweet-William |
| 6. Mallow tree | 12. Tree Primrose |
| | 13. Wall flower |

V. PERENNIAL FLOWERS.

Which, if sown in the same manner as the biennials, and transplanted into the borders of the flower garden, will continue for several years.

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1. Alyssum | 11. Ox-eye daisy |
| 2. Auricula | 12. Pea, everlasting |
| 3. Bee larkspur | 13. Pinks |
| 4. Campanula | 14. Polyanthus |
| 5. Carnation | 15. Rhubarb |
| 6. Columbine | 16. Rose campion |
| 7. Flax | 17. Snap dragon |
| 8. Fox glove | 18. Valerian |
| 9. Hawkweed | 19. Greek valerian |
| 10. Hollyhock | |

VI. PERENNIAL FLOWERS.

Which are propagated by dividing their roots in spring, in March or April; or in the autumn, in September.

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Adonis flower | 26. Fraxinella |
| 2. Anemone | 27. Fumatory |
| 3. Asphodel | 28. Garlic |
| 4. Asters | 29. Gentianella |
| 5. Bachelors button | 30. Golden-locks |
| 6. Bean-caper | 31. Golden rod |
| 7. Bears-breech | 32. Greek valerian |
| 8. Borage | 33. Hellebore |
| 9. Bugloss | 34. Hepatica |
| 10. Campanula | 35. Herb bennet |
| 11. Campion | 36. Houseleek |
| 12. Cardinal flower | 37. Ladies mantle |
| 13. Christmas rose | 38. Ladies slipper |
| 14. Cowslip | 39. Ladies smoke |
| 15. Cranesbill | 40. Lily of the valley |
| 16. Crowfoot | 41. Lion's tail |
| 17. Dailies | 42. London pride |
| 18. Dog-tooth violet | 43. Loose strife |
| 19. Dragons | 44. Lupine |
| 20. Dropwort | 45. Lychnis |
| 21. Eternal flower | 46. Lychnidea |
| 22. Fennel-giant | 47. Madwort |
| 23. Feverfew | 48. Marsh Marygold |
| 24. Flag | 49. Meadow sweet |
| 25. Fox-glove | 50. Milfoil |

GARDENING.

SECT

TEAR
leaves
flower
Solomon's seal
Spiderwort
Spurge

71. Stonecrop
72. Sunflower
73. Swallow-wort
74. Thrift
75. Throatwort
76. Toadflax
77. True love
78. Vervain
79. Vervain
80. Veronica
81. Violet
82. Vipers bugloss
83. Wake-robin
84. Willow herb
85. Wolfsbane
86. Wormwood and some others; but with very little beauty to recommend them

16. Ceanothus
17. Cephalanthus
18. Cherry tree
19. Cinquefoil, shrubby
20. Clethra
21. Cornel
22. Crab tree
23. Cytisus
24. Diervilla
25. Dogwood
26. Fothergilla
27. Ginkgo, or maiden-hair tree
28. Guelder rose
29. Halesia
30. Hamamelis
31. Hawthorn
32. Hickory nut
33. Honey-suckle
34. Honey-suckle, upright
35. Hypericum
36. Jasmyn
37. Jesus-bark tree, false
38. Indigo, bastard
39. Ironwood tree
40. Judas tree
41. Kidney bean tree
42. Laburnum
43. Lac, or varnish tree
44. Leatherwood

45. Lilac
46. Mezereum
47. Nightshade
48. Olive-tree, v
49. Passion flower
50. Peach trees
51. Periploca, or nian silk
52. Plum trees
53. Puhon trees
54. Pomegranate
55. Privet
56. Raspberry
57. Rastharrow
58. Rose tree, neties
59. St Peter's w
60. Saffras
61. Service tree
62. Snowdrop, tree
63. Spindle tree
64. Spiraea
65. Sumach
66. Syringa
67. Tamarisk
68. Tea tree
69. Tooth ach t
70. Traveller's j
71. Tupelo tree
72. Viburnum
73. Weeping

VII. BULBOUS and TUBEROUS-ROOTED FLOWERS.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Aconites | 14. Lily |
| 2. Amaryllis | 15. Martagon |
| 3. Anemone | 16. Narcissus |
| 4. Bulbocodium | 17. Pancratium |
| 5. Cornflags | 18. Polyanthus Narcissus |
| 6. Crocuses | 19. Ranunculus |
| 7. Crown imperial | 20. Stylirichium |
| 8. Cyclamen | 21. Snow drop |
| 9. Daffodil | 22. Star of Bethlehem |
| 10. Garlic Moly | 23. Tuberoses |
| 11. Hyacinth | 24. Tulips |
| 12. Jorquill | |
| 13. Iris | |

To be taken up in April, May, and June, as soon as their leaves are withered, and planted again in September or October, but their offsets in August. The ranunculuses and anemones not to be planted till February. The seed to be sown in February, in boxes.

VIII. BULBOUS-ROOTED FLOWERS.

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------|
| 1. Amaryllis | 5. Daffodil, sea |
| 2. Colchicum | 6. Lily, Belladonna |
| 3. Crocus | 7. — Guernsey |
| 4. Cyclamen | 8. Saffron |

These flower in autumn. They require to be planted in August, and to be taken up in April or May, as soon as their leaves are decayed; but their offsets in July.

IX. DECIDUOUS FLOWERING SHRUBS and ORNAMENTAL TREES.

To be planted in March, April, September, and October.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Acacia, rose-flowering | 9. Bigonia or Trumpet flower |
| 2. Almond tree | 10. Bladder sena |
| 3. Allspice | 11. Bramble |
| 4. Azalea | 12. Buckthorn |
| 5. Mountain | 13. Caragana |
| 6. Pampas | 14. Cassiopeia bush |
| 7. Tree | 15. Catalpa, or Trumpet flower |

X. DECIDUOUS FOREST TREES.

To be planted from the middle of February the beginning of April, and from September to December.

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------------|------------|
| 1. Acacia | 9. Elder | 17. Maple |
| 2. Alder | 10. Elm | 18. Norway |
| 3. Ash | 11. Hickory | 19. Oak |
| 4. Beech | 12. Hornbeam | 20. Plane |
| 5. Birch | 13. Horse chestnut | 21. Poplar |
| 6. Cherry | 14. Larch (nut) | 22. Tul |
| 7. Crab-tree | 15. Lime | 23. Walnut |
| 8. Cypress | 16. Magnolia | 24. Willow |

XI. EVERGREEN FLOWERING SHRUBS and ORNAMENTAL TREES.

To be planted in March, April, September, and October.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Alaternus | 16. Juniper |
| 2. Andromeda | 17. Ivy |
| 3. Arbutus | 18. Kalmia |
| 4. Arbutus | 19. Lavender |
| 5. Bay | 20. Laurel |
| 6. Bignonia | 21. Laurustinus |
| 7. Box | 22. Magnolia |
| 8. Brooms | 23. Phillyrea |
| 9. Cassia, or South sea tea tree | 24. Privet |
| 10. Cistus or rock rose | 25. Purslane tree |
| 11. Crab-tree | 26. Pyracantha |
| 12. Cytisus, hairy evergreen | 27. Rhododendron |
| 13. Groundsel tree | 28. Rose tree |
| 14. Holly | 29. Rosemary |
| 15. Honey-suckle | 30. Rue |
| | 31. Savin |
| | 32. Spindle tree |

brier
tree

35. Widow-wail

I. EVERGREEN FOREST TREES.

planted from the middle of February till
1 April, and from September till Decem-

- | | | |
|------------|---------|--------|
| 3. Cypress | 5. Oak | 7. Yew |
| 4. Fir | 6. Pine | |

XIII. FRUIT TREES.

planted in February, March, October,
ember.

- | | |
|----------------|---------------|
| 8. Fig | 15. Pear |
| 9. Filbert | 16. Plum |
| 10. Gooseberry | 17. Quince |
| 11. Medlar | 18. Raspberry |
| 12. Nectarine | 19. Service |
| 13. Nut-tree | 20. Vine |
| 14. Peach | 21. Walnut |

Following method may be taken for *preserving*
blossoms of fruit-trees in spring. Procure
rep-burdles made of hazel or willow
about 2 or 3 feet higher than the walls.
just before the blossoms of the fruit-
in to open, place these before the trees,
n them in windy weather with stakes,
eir being taller than the walls are high,
be set sloping about two feet from the
f the wall, which will keep them steady.
e fruit is set, and entirely out of danger,
n quite away, and by keeping in a dry
ey will last many years, and will be al-
th one 3d of the first cost for lighting
in unfit for any other use.

Experiment that was made, the hurdles
ed before the trees in December; they
ded a crop of peas, and both seemed to
benefited, particularly the peas. Poi-
s might also thus be defended in spring,
e forwarder; at least it is worth trying
e walls are not too high.

XIV. HARDY GREENHOUSE PLANTS.

To be planted against a south wall, in the open
ground, the roots covered with tan or long litter.
These will not be killed except in very severe frosts,
and then they generally shoot up afresh from their
roots. By this method, many curious plants,
formerly only kept in greenhouses, will now orna-
ment the walls, where they will appear in great-
er vigour and beauty, and many may produce
both flowers and fruit, which they will not do
when confined in pots in a greenhouse.

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Bay tree | Myrtle |
| — Blue-berried Ca- | — Portugal |
| rolinian | — Upright Italian |
| 2. Boxthorn | 10. Magnolia, evergreens |
| — African | 11. Oleander |
| 3. Broom | — Red |
| — Starry | — White |
| — Montpellier | 12. Olive-tree |
| 4. Cedar tree | — Box-leaved |
| — Bermudian | — Provence |
| — Goa | 13. Pistachia nut tree |
| 5. Fig, Indian | 14. Pomegranate, dwarf |
| 6. Heath | 15. Ragwort, sea |
| — Many-flowered | 16. Rose tree, Chinese, |
| — Mediterranean | 17. Rosemary, silver- |
| — Three-flowered | leaved |
| 7. Jasmin, Catalonian | 18. Sophora |
| 8. Laurel, Alexandrian | — Small leaved O- |
| 9. Myrtle | taheite |
| — Broad-leaved Ro- | 19. Strawberry tree |
| man | 20. Tea tree, green |
| — Double-flowered | 21. Winter cherry. |

For the particular operations in gardening, see
ESPALIER, FRUIT-TREES, GRAFTING, GREEN-
HOUSE, HOTBED, INARCHING, INOCULATING,
ORCHARD, PLANTING, PRUNING, TREES, &c.
&c. and the culture of the different plants under
their respective generic names.

G A R

ENSTONE, Lord. See GARDEN, No 1.
ENSTONE, or } a small town of Scotland,
NSTOWN, } on the N. coast of Banff-
out 6 miles E. of Banff; containing 10
fishing boats, and 300 souls, in 1790.
INIA, or GARDENIA, a genus of the
2 order, belonging to the pentandria
ants and in the natural method ranking
30th order; *Contortæ*. The lobes of the
e bent obliquely to the right.

RDINER, Col. James, a brave and pi-
in the army, the son of Capt. Patrick
of the family of Torwood-Head, by
Hodge of Gladsmuir. His father had
the army under K. William III and Q.
1 died in Germany, after the battle of
His maternal uncle, Col. Hodge, was
the battle of Stecnkirk, in 1692; and
brother, Robert Gardiner, at the siege
; in 1695. Our hero was born at Car-

G A R

riden, Jan. 10th, 1688. He was educated at Lin-
lithgow, and made a very considerable progress
in the languages; but having a kind of hereditary
attachment to the military life, he served very ear-
ly as a cadet; and at 14 years of age, bore an en-
sign's commission in a Scots regiment in the Dutch
service, wherein he continued till 1702; when he
received a similar commission in a British regiment
from Q. Anne, which he bore in the famous bat-
tle of Ramillies. In this memorable action, being
sent on a desperate service, with a party of what
is called the FORLORN HOPE, he very narrowly
escaped with his life. While calling to his men,
a musket ball entered his mouth, and without
touching his tongue or his teeth, went through
his neck, and came out about 1½ inch on the left
side of the vertebræ. Not feeling the pain at first,
he began to suspect he had swallowed the ball, till
he fell with loss of blood. After this he passed
two nights and all next day in the open air, in ex-
treme

could we and had his wound dressed by an ig barber-surgeon; in spite of which he recovered. In 1706, he was raised to a lieutenancy, and soon after was made a cornet in Lord Stair's reg. of Scots Greys; and in 1711, a capt. lieutenant of dragoons. When the E. of Stair went ambassador to France, he appointed him his master of horse. In 1715, he was promoted to a captaincy, and in 1717 to a majority. In 1724, he was made major of an older regiment; in 1730, he was advanced to the rank of lieutenant colonel, and in 1743, to that of colonel of a regiment of dragoons; at the head of which he fell, fighting bravely for his country, at the battle of Preston parr, on the 21st Sept. 1745; in the 38th year of his age. In his person he was tall, graceful, strong built, and well proportioned. And being endowed with a strong constitution, he in his younger years plunged so deep in every fashionable vice, that his companions styled him the *happy rake*. But in this vortex of vice and dissipation, he was suddenly arrested in a manner almost, if not entirely *miraculous*. Our limits permit us not to quote the full account of this *phenomenon* given by Dr Doddridge, in his work entitled *Remarkable passages in the Life of Col. Gardiner*; but the substance of it is as follows: In July 1719, Major Gardiner, having spent the sabbath evening with some gay company till 11, and having an assignation with a married woman at 12, in order "to kill the tedious hour," took up a book, left by his mother or aunt in his chamber, entitled *The Christian Soldier*; wherein he expected to find some amusement from the author's spiritualizing the terms of his profession. But while reading it carelessly, he was surprised by a sudden and extraordinary blaze of light; and upon looking up, beheld to his astonishment a visible representation of our Saviour on the cross, suspended in the air, and surrounded with glory; while at the same time he thought he heard a voice, saying, "Oh sinner, did I suffer this for thee, and are these thy returns?" Struck with this amazing phenomenon, he sunk down in his arm chair, and continued for some time insensible; from which circumstance Dr Doddridge often suggested to him, that he was perhaps all the time asleep, and dreaming; but he himself considered it as not a dream, but a real waking vision. Be that as it may, the consequences were as salutary, as if an angel had been sent express from heaven to convert him; and from that time to his death he became as eminently distinguished for piety as he had formerly been for profanity. In July 1726, he married Lady Frances Edmonstone, daughter of the E. of Buchan, by whom he had 13 children. From the numerous anecdotes recorded of this great and good man by Dr Doddridge, we shall only add one more, which may afford an useful example to others in an age wherein duelling is so frequent. He had been so much addicted to this fashionable folly in his younger years, that he had fought 3 duels, before he was quite a man; but being challenged to fight a 4th after his conversion, he made this calm reply;—"I fear *fighting*, though you know I do not fear *fighting*." Dr Doddridge has summed up his character in few words, in the

quotation from Virgil prefixed as a motto work:

—*Iustior alter*

Nec pietate fuit, nec bello major &

(2.) GARDINER, Mrs Richmond, d Col Gardiner, and wife of Mr Laure writer in Edinburgh, was authoress of entitled *Anna and Edgar*; and of many other pieces, inserted in the Magazine periodical works. She died at Edinburgh.

(3.) GARDINER, Stephen, Bp. of V and chancellor of England was born Edmunds, in 1483. He was natural liard Woodville, the brother of Q. Elizabeth Edward IV, and was educated at Camb signed the divorce of Henry VIII. from rine of Spain; abjured the pope's supremacy wrote *De vera et falsa obedientia*, in be king; yet in Edward VI's reign he opposition, and was imprisoned; but w by Q. Mary. He drew up the articles between her and Philip II. of Spain. I lent against the reformers, but on his often repeated these words, *Erravi cum non flevi cum Petro*; "I have sinned w but I have not repented like Peter."

1555.
GARDINGEN, a town of Denmark duchy of Slewick; 28 miles WSW. of GARDIOLE, a town of France, in of Tarn, 18 miles SE. of Lavaur.

GARDNER, a town of Massachusetts cester county, 60 miles NW. of Boston.

(1.) GARDON, a river of France, in the dept. of the Lozere, crosses that and runs into the Rhone 4 miles N. of

(2.) GARDON OF ALAIS, a river which rises in the dept. of the Gard, p and runs into the above river N° 1.

GARDONNE, a town of the Cisalpic, in the dept. of Benaco, and ci-dev of Verona, containing 1300 citizens, on an extensive trade, in guns, &c.

GARDOUCH, a town of France, in of the Upper Garonne, 15 miles SE. of

GARDSBY, a town of Sweden in th Smaland, 28 miles N. of Wexio.

* GARE. *n. f.* Coarse wool grown legs of sheep. *Dist.*

GARED, a town of Africa, in Mor

GARENCIERES, a town of France

GARENNE, a town of France, in 1 ment of Paris, 6 miles ENE. of Paris.

GAREOULI, a town of France, in partment of Var, 5 miles S. of Brignol.

GARET, a town of Barbary, in Fei

GARFETE, a town of Portugal, in

GARGANO, a town of Naples, in tanata; 7 miles N. of Mount St Angel.

GARGANVILLARD, a town of dept. of Landes, 7 miles NW. of Rivie

GARGARA, a town of Asiatic Turli prov. of Nicosia; 20 miles W. of Adri

(1.) * GARGARISM. *n. f.* [*gargare garyme*, French.] A liquid form of u with the mouth with. *Quincy*.—Apoph

ifus draw the rheum down by the pa-
is Nat. Hist.

GARGARISMS are used when the mouth
 are inflamed, or ulcerated. A small
 may be taken into the mouth, and mo-
 about, and then spit out; or if the
 not do this, the liquor may be injected
 &c. When gargles are required, their
 be more frequently repeated than is
 common practice.

ARGARISE. *v. a.* [*γάργαιζω*; *garga-*
ch.] To wash the mouth with medica-
 —Vinegar, put to the nostrils, or *gar-*
 with ease the hiccough; for that it is af-
 and inhibiteth the motion of the spirit.
ist. Hist.—This being relaxed, may make
 of the larynx; as when we *gargarize*.
Elements of Speech.

ARGET. *n. f.* A distemper in cattle.—
 appears in the head, maw, or in the
ts. Mort. Husb.

GARGET, consists in a swelling of the
 and the neighbouring parts; to prevent
 eding in the spring is recommended.

IL, a distemper in geese, which by stop-
 head frequently proves mortal. Three
 es of garlic, beaten in a mortar with
 ter, made into little balls, and given fast-
 he ordinary means of cure.

ILESSE, a town of France, in the dept.
 5 miles SE. of Argenton.

GLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A liquor
 with the throat is washed.—His throat was
 with one of the *gargles* set down in the
 cure. *Wifeman.*

GARGLE. *v. a.* [*gargouiller*, French; *gar-*
Ital. gurgel, Germ. the throat.] 1. To
 throat with some liquor not suffered
 ely to descend.—*Gargle* twice or thrice
 poxycrate. *Harvey.*—The excision made,
 ling will soon be stopt by *gargling* with
Wifeman's Surgery.—

comb, and then they order ev'ry hair;
gargle well their throats. *Dryd. Pers.*
 rible; to play in the throat. An impro-

le which only warble long,
rgle in their throats a song. *Waller.*

arm'd you were, you ceas'd awhile to doat
 sense *gargl'd* in a eunuch's throat. *Fenton.*

GLION. *n. f.* An exudation of nervous
 a bruise, or the like, which indurates
 d immoveable tumour. *Quincy.*

NAGO, or } a quadra, or district, of
RGNANO, } the Cisalpine republic, in
 of Benaco, and ci-devant Brescian, com-
 g 1 town, (N^o 2.) 5 parishes and several

RGNANO, a town in the above district,
 ated on lake Garda, containing 3,400
 1797. It is 21 miles NE of Brescia.

GOL. *n. f.* A distemper in hogs.—The
 ie *gargol* in hogs are, hanging down of
 moist eyes, staggering, and loss of ap-
ortimer.

RGOWNNO, or } a parish of Scot-
RGUNNOCK, } land, in Stirlingsh.
 bank of the Forth, 6 miles long from N.

. PART I

to S. and 3½ broad. The surface is partly hilly
 and 3000 acres are moor lands. The soil of the
 rest is partly light and sandy, partly rich loam and
 clay. Husbandry is much improved by liming,
 inclosing, &c. but the roads are still bad, and,
 multures are not entirely abolished. Grounds for-
 merly over-run with thistles and furze, now pro-
 duce 10 bolls per acre, of wheat, barley, or oats.
 Peas, beans, hay, and potatoes, are also cultiva-
 ted. The population in 1793, stated by the rev-
 Mr James Robertson, in his report to Sir J. Sin-
 lair, was 830, and had decreased 126, since 1755.

(2.) **GARGUNNOCK,** a village in the above pa-
 rish, containing about 90 houses and 400 souls, in
 1793. Each house has a small garden.

(3.) **GARGUNNOCK, PEEL OF,** an ancient fort
 in the above parish, which was taken by Sir W.
 Wallace by stratagem from the English; but of
 which few relics now remain, though its site is
 still pointed out.

GARIA, a bay on the S. coast of Newfound-
 land, 22 miles E. of Cape Ray.

GARIDELLA, in botany, *Fennel flower of*
Crete, a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to
 the dodecandria class of plants; and in the natu-
 ral method ranking under the 26th order, *Mal-
 filique*. The calyx is pentaphyllous, with leaves
 resembling flower-petals; there are five bilabiate
 and bifid nectaria; the capsules are polyspermous,
 and adhering together.

GARIEVITZA, or Mount Claudius, a moun-
 tain of Slavonia, 16 miles N. of Krakiovelika.

(1.) **GARIGLIANO,** a river of Naples, which
 runs into the Mediterranean, 8 miles E. of Gaeta.

(2.) **GARIGLIANO,** one of the 11 departments,
 into which the ci-devant Neapolitan republic was
 divided in 1798-9.

GARIOCH, CHAPEL OF, a parish of Aber-
 deenshire, anciently called *LOGIE-DURNIO*, seated
 on the N. side of the Don; about 8 miles long
 from N. to S. and 7 broad. The climate is dry
 and healthy, the surface hilly; and the soil vari-
 ous. Oats and bear are the chief produce. There
 are considerable plantations of trees, which thrive
 well. The population in 1793, stated by the
 rev. Mr Shand in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was
 986, and had decreased 365, since 1755. The
 number of sheep was 1550, horses 209, and black
 cattle 859.

GARITENA, a town of European Turkey in
 the Morea, 32 miles W. of Argos.

GARIVAN, a town of Turkey in Bulgaria,
 near the Danube, 22 miles SW. of Driftra.

GARIZIM. See *GERIZIM*.

(1.) * **GARLAND.** *n. f.* [*garlande*, *guirland*,
Fr.] 1. A wreath of branches or flowers.—

Strephon, with leavy twigs of laurel-tree,
 A *garland* made, on temples for to wear;

For he then chosen was the dignity
 Of village-lord that Whitsuntide to bear. *Sidn.*

A reeling world will never stand upright,
 'Till Richard wear the *garland* of the realm.

—How! wear the *garland*! do'st thou mean
 the crown?

—Ay, my good lord. *Shak. Richard III.*

Then party-colour'd flow'rs of white and red
 She wove, to make a *garland* for her head.

Dryden's Fables.

Vanquish again; though she be gone,
Whose garland crown'd the victor's hair,
And reign; though she has left the throne,
Who made thy glory won by thy care. *Prior.*
Her gods and godlike heroes rise to view.

And all her faded garlands bloom anew. *Pope.*

2. The top; the principal; the thing most prized.

With every minute you do change a mind,
And call him noble, that was now your hate,
Him vile, that was your garland. *Shak.*

(1.) GARLAND is derived by Hicks from *gardel banda*, which in the northern languages signify a *nosegay artfully wrought with the hand*. The word (*§ 1. def. 1.*) denotes ornaments of flowers, fruits, and leaves, intermixed; anciently much used at the gates of temples, where feasts and solemn rejoicings were held; or at any other place where marks of public joy or gaiety were required, as at triumphal arches, tournaments, &c.

(2.) GARLAND is also used for a chaplet made of feathers, or sometimes of precious stones, worn on the head in the manner of a crown.

(1.) GARLIC, in botany. See ALLIUM.

(1.) * GARLICK, *n. f.* [*gar*, Saxon, a lance; and *lick*, the leaf that shoots up in blades. *Stimmer*, *Allium*, Latin.] It has a bulbous root, consisting of many small tubercles included in its coats; the leaves are plain: the flowers consist of six leaves, formed into a corymbus on the top of the stalk; and are succeeded by subrotund fruit, divided into three cells, which contain roundish seeds. *Miller*.—Garlick is of an extremely strong smell, and of an acrid and pungent taste. It is extremely active, as may be proved by applying plasters of garlick to the feet, which will give a strong smell to the breath. *Hill*.—Garlick has, of all our plants, the greatest strength, affords most nourishment, and supplies most spirits to those who eat little flesh. *Temple*.—

'Tis mortal sin an onion to devour;
Each clove of garlick is a sacred pow'r;
Religious nations sure, and blest abodes,
Where ev'ry orchard is o'er-run with gods. *Tate*.

(3.) * GARLICK PEAR-TREE, *n. f.* This tree is pretty common in Jamaica, and several other places of America, where it usually rises to the height of 30 or 40 feet, and spreads into many branches. When the flowers fall off the pointal, it becomes a round fruit, which, when ripe, has a rough brownish rind, and a mealy sweet pulp, but a strong scent of garlick. *Miller*.

(4.) GARLICK PEAR TREE. See CRATEVA.

(5.) * GARLICK WILD, *n. f.* A plant.

* GARLICK EATER, *n. f.* [*garlick* and *eat*.]

A mean fellow.—

You've made good work,
You and your apron men, that stood so much
Upon the voice of occupation, and
The breath of garlick eaters. *Shak. Coriolanus*.

GARLIESTOWN, a village of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, in the form of a crescent; containing 450 inhabitants in 1790.

GARLIN, a town of France, in the dept. of Pyrénées, 16 miles N. of Pau.

NE, a village in Cornwall.

MENT, *n. f.* [*guarniment*, old Fr.]
which the body is covered; cloaths;

Hence, rotten thing, or I shall shake
Out of thy garments. *Shak.*

—Our leaf, once fallen, springeth no other doth the sun or summer adorn us the garments of new leaves and flowers

Farest thing that shines below,

Why in this robe dost thou appear?

Would'st thou a while more perfect

Thou must at all no garment wear.

Three worthy persons from his fid

And dy'd his garment with their feat

—The peacock, in all his pride, does half the colours that appear in the garb British lady, when it is dressed. *Spett* him that sues for the coat, i. e. the shirt garment, take the cloak also, is a proverb too; for in the truth of the letter, a likely matter of a law suit, and signifies testing sufferance of such small losses. *A*

(2.) GARMENT. See DRESS and HAIR.

GARN, a town of Sweden, 12 m. N. GARNACHE, a town of France, in the Verdun, 3 miles NNE. of Châlons.

GARNARD, a town in the Isle of V.

(1.) * GARNER, *n. f.* [*garner*, Fr.] place in which threshed grain is stored.

Earth's increase, and toyson plenty

Barren and garner never empty. *St*

For landry faces the rural realm fur

The holdmouse builds her garner under

For gather'd grain the blind laborious

In winding mazes, works her hidden

(2.) GARNET, in geography, a river of which joins the Garraun, and runs into 4 miles SW. of Rols in Herefordshire.

* To GARNER, *v. a.* [from the noun store as in garners.—

There, where I have garner'd up

Where either I must live, or bear no

GARNERANS, a town of France, in of Saone and Loire; 6 miles S. of Maç

(1.) * GARNET, *n. f.* [*garnato*, Ital, low Latin; from its resemblance in color grain of the pomegranate.] The garn.

of a middle degree of hardness, between phire and the common crystal. It is so

rious sizes. Its surfaces are not so smooth as those of a ruby, and its colour is

strong red, with a plain admixture of a degree of colour is very different, and

wants much of the brightness of the rub

The garnet seems to be a species of the of the ancients: the Bohemian is red, w

cast of a flame colour; and the Syrian is a slight cast of purple. *Woodward's Me*

(2.) GARNET, in natural history.

NOTE. When pure and free from blem little inferior in appearance to the one

Among lapidaries and jewellers, genui are known by different names according

different degrees of colour. 1. The garly so called, is the finest and most valu

being of a very deep blood-red with a mixture of blue. 2. The rock ruby; a

improperly given to the garnet when it

ry strong but not deep red, and has a

blue: this is a very beautiful gem. 3. The or *sciran* garnet; that of a yet brighter approaching to the colour of native cinnabar, faint blue tinge. 4. The *almadine*, a garnet a little paler than the rock ruby.

GARNET COLOUR. See GLASS.

GARNETS, COUNTERFEIT, are made as follows: Take prepared crystal, 2 oz. red lead, 6 grains, 16 gr. zaffre, 3 gr.: Mix all well, and put into a crucible. cover it well with lute, and put in a potter's kiln for 24 hours. Or take 2 oz. minium, 5½ oz. manganese, 15 gr. red, 4 gr. Mix and bake them as above.

GARNISH. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Ornament; decoration; embellishment.—

So are you, sweet,
in the lovely *garnish* of a boy. *Shak.*

utter and figure they produce;

garnish this, and that for use;

seek to feed and please their guests. *Prior.*
garnished strewed round a dish. 3. [In gaols.]

A cant term. 4. *Penfuntula carceraria*; acknowledgment in money when first a prisoner is put into a gaol. *Ains.*

GARNISH. *v. a.* [*garnir*, Fr.] 1. To deck with ornamental appendages.—There were such *garnished* their proud heights with trees. *Sidney*—

All within with flowers was *garnished*,
when mild Zephyrus amongst them blew,
breathed out bounteous smells, and painted
colours shew. *Spenser.*

With taper light
deck the beauteous eye of heaven to *garnish*,
useful and ridiculous excess. *King John.*
It was a terrestrial garden, *garnished* with
lighting both the eye and taste. *Raleigh.*
The streets were *garnished* with the citizens,
in their liveries. *Bacon's Henry VII.* 2.
To embellish a dish with something laid round it.
With what expence and art, how richly drest!
G'd with 'sparagus, himself a feast!

Dryden's Juvenal.
No man lards salt pork with orange-peel,
garnishes his lamb with spitchcock'd eel.

King's Cookery.
with fetters. A cant term.

GARNISHMENT. *n. s.* [from *garnish*.] Ornament; embellishment.—The church of Sancti in Padoua is a sound piece of good art, the materials being ordinary stone, without ornament of sculpture, ravish the beholders.

GARNITURE. *n. s.* [from *garnish*.] Furniture; ornament.—They conclude, if they fall in *garniture* of their knees, that they are in furniture of their heads. *Gov. of T.*—

In sense, which pleas'd your fires an age
on,

without the *garniture* of show. *Granv.*
Nature has poured out her charms upon the
earth of our species, so they are very assiduous
looking upon themselves the finest *garniture*.
Spektor.

Gar, a river of the Cisalpine republic, in the
department of Lower Po. It is one of the
tributaries of the Po, and falls into the Adriatic.
Port of Garo.

(1.) **GARONNE**, a fine river in the S. of France, which rises in the Pyrenees, and taking a NW. direction, waters Toulouse and Bourdeaux, below which it is joined by the Dordogne, and thence to its entrance into the bay of Biscay is called the GIRONDE. It has a navigable communication with the Mediterranean by its junction with the *ci-devant* Royal Canal. See CANAL, § 6.

(2.) **GARONNE, UPPER**, a department of France, bounded on the N. by that of Lot; on the NE. by that of Tarn; on the SE. by those of Aude and Arriege; on the S. by Spain, and on the W. by the dept. of the Upper Pyrenees and Gers. It contains part of the *ci-devant* province of LANGUEDOC. The Garonne runs through it. Toulouse is the capital.

* **GAROUS.** *adj.* [from *garum*.] Resembling pickle made of fish.—In a civet cat an offensive odour proceeds, partly from its food, that being especially fish; whereof this humour may be a *garous* excretion, and odious separation. *Brown.*

GARRACHICA, a sea port town of the isle of Teneriffe. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and overwhelmed by an eruption of the volcano on the Peak, in 1704: so that houses are now built where ships then lay at anchor.

GARRAF, a town of Spain in Catalonia, on the coast, 10 miles SW. of Barcelona.

(1.) * **GARRAN.** *n. s.* [Erse. It imports the same as gelding. The word is still retained in Scotland.] A small horse; a hobby. A Highland horse, which, when brought into the North of England, takes the name of *galloway*.—When he comes forth, he will make their cows and *gar-rans* to walk, if he doth no other harm to their persons. *Spenser.*—Every man would be forced to provide Winter-fodder for his team, whereas common *garrans* shift upon grass the year round; and this would force men to the enclosing of grounds, so that the race of *garrans* would decrease. *Temple.*

(2.) **GARRAN**, in geography, a river of England, which runs into the Wye. See GARNER, N° 2.

GARRESSIO, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, 9 miles SW. of Ceva.

(1.) * **GARRET.** *n. s.* [*garite*, the tower of a citadel, Fr.] 1. A room on the highest floor of the house.—

The mob, commission'd by the government,
Are seldom to an empty *garret* sent. *Dryden.*
—John Bull skipped from room to room; ran up stairs and down stairs, from the kitchen to the *garret*. *Arbutnot.*—

On earth the god of wealth was made
Sole patron of the building trade;
Leaving the arts the spacious air,
With licence to build castles there:
And 'tis conceiv'd their old pretence,
To lodge in *garrets*, comes from thence. *Swift.*
2. Rotten wood. Not in use.—The colour of the shining part of rotten wood, by day-light, is in some pieces white, and in some pieces inclining to red, which they call the white and red *garret*. *Bacon.*

(2.) **GARRET**, or } an island in the Pacific o-
GARRET DENNIS. } cean, about 42 miles in
circumference, N. of New Ireland. The natives
are

armed with lances, bows and
 5. E. Lat. 2. 30. S.
 ARRE: E n. f. [from *garret*.] An in-
 of a garret.
 LETSTOWN, a town of Meath, Ireland.
 ICK, David, Esq; the great Koscius of
 country, who for near 40 years shone
 luminary in the dramatic hemisphere,
 at the Angel Inn at Hereford, in 1716.
 His father, Capt. Peter Garrick, was a French refu-
 ge, and had a troop of horse which were then
 quartered in that city. This rank he maintained
 in the army for several years, and was a major at
 his death. Mr Garrick received the first rud-
 iments of his education at Litchfield; which he
 afterwards completed at Rochester, under the ce-
 lebrated Mr Colson, since professor at Cambridge.
 Dr Johnson and he were fellow students at the
 same school; and went up to London to push
 themselves into active life, in the same coach. On
 the 9th March 1736, he was entered at Lincoln's
 Inn. He soon quitted the law and followed for
 some time the business of a wine merchant; but
 at last he gave way to the irresistible bias of his
 mind, and joined a travelling company of come-
 dians at Spilwich, where he went by the name of
Lyddle. Having in this poor school of Apollo got
 some acquaintance with the theatric art, he burst
 at once upon the world, in 1740-1, in all the lus-
 tre of perfection, at the little theatre in Goodman's
 Fields, then under the direction of Henry Giffard.
 The character he first performed was Richard III.
 in which, like the sun bursting forth behind a
 cloud, he displayed in the earliest dawn a some-
 what more than meridian brightness. His unpa-
 ralleled excellence quite astonished the public. To
 see a young man, in his 14th year, and a mere
 novice to the stage, reaching at one step to that
 height of perfection, which the then capital perform-
 ers of the English stage, had not been able to ap-
 proach half way, after an experience of many
 years, was a phenomenon that could not but
 become the object of universal speculation and ad-
 miration. The theatres at the west end of the
 town were deserted; Goodman's Fields, from
 being the rendezvous of citizens and their wives,
 became the resort of all ranks of men; and Mr
 Garrick continued to act till the close of the sea-
 son. Being offered very advantageous terms for
 performing in Dublin during part of the summer
 1741, he went over, and found the same just ho-
 mage paid to his merit, which he had received
 from his own countrymen. In the following win-
 ter he engaged with Fleetwood then manager of
 Drury Lane: in which he continued till the year
 1745, when he again went over to Ireland, and
 continued there the whole season, joint manager
 with Mr Sheridan of the theatre royal in Smock
 Alley. Thence he returned to England, and en-
 gaged for the season of 1746 with Mr Rich at Co-
 vent Garden. This was his last performance as
 an hired actor; for in the close of that season Mr
 Fleetwood's patent for the management of the
 theatre in Drury Lane being expired, Mr Gar-
 rick and Mr Lazy purchased the property of it,
 novation of the patent; and in winter
 and it with the greatest part of Mr Fleet-
 y, and with the addition of Mr

Barry, Mrs Pitchard, and Mrs Cibber, in
 vent Garden. To trace Mr Garrick thro'
 various occurrences of his life, would swel-
 count to many pages. Suffice it to say,
 nued in the full enjoyment of fame to t
 of his retirement. His universality of t
 never once admitted of a competitor.
 comedy, an I farce, the lover and the
 jealous husband who suspects his wife
 caute, and the thoughtless lively rake w
 it without design, were all alike his ow
 and ridicule, doubt and despair, tran
 tenderness, compassion and contempt;
 lously, fear, fury, and simplicity: all to
 possession of his features, while each of
 peared to be the sole possessor of his
 the several characters of Lear and Ham
 ard, Dorilas, Romeo, and Lufignam
 Ranger, Bayes, Druggier, Kiteley, Brut
 nedult, we saw the muscular conforma
 our ideas attached to them all. In the
 ture, from whom alone this great perf
 rowed all his lessons, is inexhaustible, I
 darling son, and truest representative,
 limited scope for the diversity of his ge
 manner of imitating her various pa
 There is one part of his theatrical conc
 will ever be recorded to Mr Garrick
 while virtue, morality, and purity of p
 ners, are held in esteem: and that is
 which he showed to banish from the sta
 plays that carry with them an immora
 and to prune from those which do n
 whole, tend to promote the interests o
 scenes of licentiousness, as a redunda
 and liveliness of imagination had induc
 our comic writers to indulge in, and
 too prevalent spirit of gallantry and in
 given sanction to. The purity of t
 stage was beyond a doubt much mor
 blished during the administration of th
 minister, that it had ever been during
 managements. He carried his moral,
 pious principles with him into the te
 ment of the theatre itself, and rescued
 from that obloquy which had brier
 the profession. Of a class of men
 accounted blackguards, unworthy the
 of the virtuous, he made gentlemen, i
 with society, and introduced them to t
 of social life. The theatre was no lo
 ed the nursery of vice; and the mor
 ous, and even the religious part of n
 not hesitate to partake of the ration
 ment of a play, when they could pas
 evening undisgusted with the licenti
 uncorrupted by the immorality, of th
 Notwithstanding the numberless and
 vocations attendant on his profession
 and his station as a manager; yet hi
 genius frequently burst forth in vario
 ductions in the dramatic and poetic
 merit of which leads us to regret his
 to compose more extensive and impo
 Though his merit as an author is no
 magnitude, yet his great knowledge
 manners, of stage effect, and his ha
 lively and striking satire, made him;

d his prologues and epilogues in part:—
 are almost innumerable, possess such
 perfection, both in the conception and
 as to stand unequalled. His Ode on
 of Mr Pelham run through 4 editions
 in six weeks. His Ode on Shakespeare
 by piece; and when delivered by him-
 self, most capital exhibition. His altera-
 tions of Shakespeare and other authors have been
 successful, and at times exploded. The
 the grave-digger's scene from Hamlet
 be forgiven by the frequenters of the
 Drury Lane. Though necessary to the
 of the scene, they are unwilling to lose
 erling wit and humour; and it must be
 at exuberances of that kind, though
 the uniformity, yet increase the luxuri-
 : piece. Among the plays he altered
 following: Every man in his Humour,
 Jonson; Romeo and Juliet, Winter's
 crine and Petruchio, Cymbeline, Ham-
 om Shakespeare; Gamblers, a come-
 Shirley; and Isabella, from Southerne.
 original productions, The Farmer's
 nd Linco's Travels, interludes; The
 Lethe, Lying Valet, Miss in her Teens,
 et, Irish Widow, and other comedies
 ; The Enchanter, a musical entertain-
 liput, the Christmas Tale, and many o-
 have thus traced him to the period of
 ment in spring 1776; when, full of
 a splendid fortune, and advancing in
 ought to enjoy in the vale of life that
 nd honourable ease, which he had so
 d by the activity and merits of his dra-
 . But short was the period allotted to
 enjoyment: for he died on the 20th
 , leaving not a single rival in excellence
 to compensate for his loss.

NISH POINT, a cape of Ireland, on
 east of Cork, $1\frac{1}{2}$ m. N. of Codd's Head.
 S, a town of France, in the dep. of
 rences, 20 miles SE. of Bayonne.

GARRISON. *n. f.* [*garnison*, Fr.] 1.
 aced in a fortified town or castle to de-

low oft he said to me,
 t no soldier fit for Cupid's *garrison*.

Sidney,

1 place stored with soldiers.—
 n the old Roman wall so ill confin'd,
 ew chain of *garrisons* you bind. *Waller.*
 e of being placed in a fortification for

Some of them that are laid in *garrisons*
 no great hurt to the enemies. *Spenser.*
 RRISON, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) and WINTER
 are sometimes used indifferently for
 ing; when the troops are placed in it
 subsistence during the winter, and
 eeping the regular guard. Du Cange
 word from the corrupt Latin *garnisio*,
 latter writers use to signify all manner
 s, arms, victuals, &c. necessary for the
 a place, and sustaining of a siege.

RRISON, a town of Ireland, in Fermanagh,
 15 miles SE. of Ballyshannon. Lon. 7. 43.
 4. 25. N.

* To GARRISON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To
 secure by fortresses.—

Others these forces join,
 Which *garrison* the conquests near the Rhine.

Dryden's Juv.

GARRISTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the
 county of Dublin, and province of Leinster.

GARROWS, a county of Asia in India, E. of
 Bengal, S. of the Burrampooter, and W. of Af-
 sam.

* GARRULITY. *n. f.* [*garrulitas*, Latin.] 1.
 Loquacity; incontinence of tongue; inability to
 keep a secret.—

Let me here

Expiate, if possible, my crime,

Shameful *garrulity*.

Milton.

2. The quality of talking too much; talkativeness.
 —Some vices of speech must carefully be avoid-
 ed: first of all, loquacity or *garrulity*. *Ray on the*
Creation.

* GARRULOUS. *adj.* [*garrulus*, Lat.] Prate-
 ling; talkative.—

Old age look out,

And *garrulous* recounts the feats of youth.

Thomson.

GARSCH, a town of Austria, 4 miles SSE. of
 Horn.

GARSTANG, a populous town of Lancash.
 223 miles from London, in the post road between
 Preston and Lancaster. It is near a mile in length,
 but built very irregularly. The church is a state-
 ly Gothic structure. It is seated on the Wyre,
 which, by the late inland navigation, communi-
 cates with the Mersey, Dee, Ribble, Ouse, Trent,
 Darwent, Severn, Humber, Thames, Avon, &c.
 which navigation, including its windings, extends
 above 500 miles, in the counties of Lincoln, Not-
 tingham, York, Westmoreland, Chester, Stafford,
 Warwick, Leicester, Oxford, Worcester, &c.
 Garstang is 10 miles S. of Lancaster, and 225
 NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 53. W. Lat. 55. 56. N.

GARSTON, the name of 4 English villages:
 1. in Berks, near Hungerford: 2. in Hertfordsh.
 3. in Lancashire: and 4. in Staffordshire, NE. of
 Cheadle.

GARTACH, a town of Suabia, in the duchy
 Wirtemberg, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles NNW. of Heilbronn.

GARTAU, a town of Lunenburg Zell, 12 m.
 E. of Lucknow, and 48 ESE. of Lunenburg.

GARTEMPE, a river of France, which runs
 into the Creuse, near Roche-Pofay, in the dep. of
 Indre and Loire.

(1.) * GARTER. *n. f.* [*gardus*, Welsh; *jar-
 tier*, French; from *gar*, Welsh, the binding of
 the knee.] 1. A string or ribband by which the
 stocking is held upon the leg. Let their heads be
 sleekly comb'd, their blue coats brush'd, and their
garters of an indifferent knit. *Shak.*—When we
 rest in our cloaths we loosen our *garters*, and o-
 ther ligatures, to give the spirits free passage.
Ray.—

Handsome *garters* at your knees. *Swift.*

There lay three *garters*, half a pair of gloves,

And all the trophies of his former loves. *Pope.*

2. The mark of the order of the garter, the high-
 est order of English knighthood.—

Now by my george, my *garter*.

—The

—The george, profan'd, hath lost his only honour;

The garter, blemish'd, pawn'd his knightly virtue. *Shak.*

You owe your Ormond nothing but a son,
To fill in future times his father's place,
And wear the garter of his mother's race. *Dryden.*

3. The principal king at arms.

(2.) GARTER, in heraldry, a moiety, or the half of a LEND.

(3.) GARTER, ORDER OF THE, a military order of knighthood, the most noble and ancient of any lay order in the world, instituted by Edward III. The knights companions are generally princes and peers; and the king of England is the sovereign of the order. The number of knights was originally 26; but six were added in 1786, on account of the increase of the royal family. They are a corporation, having a great and little seal, &c. Their officers are a prelate, chancellor, register, king at arms, and usher of the black rod. They have also a dean, with 12 canons, and petty canons, vergers, and 26 pensioners or poor knights. The prelate is the head. This office has always been vested in the bishop of Winchester. Next to the prelate is the chancellor; which office is vested in the bishop of Salisbury, who keeps the seals, &c. The next is the register, who by his oath is to enter upon the registry, the fortunes, elections, penalties, and other acts of the order with all fidelity: The dean of Windsor is always register *ex officio*. The 4th officer is Garter and King at arms, being two distinct offices united in one person. (See § 5.) He is the principal officer within the college of arms, and chief of the heralds. See KING AT ARMS. All these officers, except the prelate, have fees and pensions. The college of the order is seated in the castle of Windsor, within the chapel of St George, and the charter-house, erected by the founder for that purpose. The habit and ensign of the order are a garter, mantle, cape, george, and collar. The three first were assigned the knights companions by the founder; and the george and collar by Henry VIII. The garter challenges pre-eminence over all the other parts of the dress, as from it the order is denominated. It is the first part of the habit presented to foreign princes and absent knights, who, as well as all other knights elect, are therewith first adorned; and it is of so great honour and grandeur, that by the bare investiture with this noble ensign, the knights are esteemed companions of the greatest military order in the world. It is worn on the left leg between the knee and calf, and is enamelled with this motto, *HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE*. (See § 4.) The mantle is the chief of these vestments made use of upon all solemn occasions. The colour of the mantle is by the statutes appointed to be blue. The length of its train only distinguishes the sovereign from the knights companions. To the collar of the mantle is fixed a pair of long strings, anciently woven with blue silk only, but now of round, and made of Venice gold and silk, or of the robe; with knobs or buttons to the end. The left shoulder has from been adorned with a large garter,

with the device, *HONI SOIT, &c.*

is the cross of the order, which was first be worn at all times by king Charles I. the star was introduced, being a sort of diadem with beams of silver. The collar is composed of pieces of gold in the shape of garters, the ground enamelled blue, and set with gold. In 1551, Edward VI. made alterations in the ritual of this order; that he put it in Latin, the original whereof was in his own hand-writing. He then decreed that the order should no longer be called of St George, but the order of the garter, instead of the George, hung at the collar. He instituted a cavalier, bearing a boar on his sword, with the word, *prolehi* the sword, and *verbum Dei* on the boar's buckle in the left hand, and the word *on*. When the knights do not wear it, they are to have a silver star on the left; they commonly bear the picture of the cross enamelled on gold, and beset with diamonds at the end of a blue ribbon, crossing the left shoulder. They are not to appear without the garter, on penalty of 6s. the register. The manner of electing a companion into this most noble order, and the ceremonies of investiture, are these: The sovereign designs to elect a companion; the chancellor of the order draws the names, which, passing both under the sign manual and signet of the order, the person by Garter principal king at arms, which is of blue velvet bordered with gold wire, having the letters of the motto on the time of election, buckled upon it by two of the senior companions, who present it from the sovereign, to whom it was presented upon a velvet cushion, by the king at arms, with the usual reverence, the chancellor reads the following admonition by the statutes: "To the honour of Almighty God, and in memorial of the blessed St George, tie about thy leg, for this noble garter; wear it as the sign of this most illustrious order, never to be so laid aside; that thereby thou mayest be encouraged to be courageous; and having us in just war, in which thou shalt be engaged, mayest stand firm, valiantly fight, and conquer." The princely garter being put on, and the word of its signification read, the knight elect is brought before the sovereign, who puts about his neck, kneeling, a blue ribbon, whereunto is appendant in gold within the garter, the image of St George on horseback, with his sword drawn, and a dragon. In the mean time the chancellor reads the following admonition: "this ribbon about thy neck, adorned with the image of the blessed martyr and soldier of St George, by whose imitation prove thou mayest so overpass both prosperous and adverse adventures, that having stoutly vanquished thy enemies both of body and soul, thou mayest only receive the praise of this transient life, but be crowned with the palm of eternity." Then the knight elect kisses the

books his majesty for the great honour; rises up, and salutes all the company, who return their congratulations. Institution of this order, there have been kings and all kings, besides numerous sovereigns, enrolled as companions.

GARTER, ORIGIN OF THE ORDER OF THE. Various accounts related by historians. The most not improbable account is, that the king of Salisbury happening at a ball to drop his garter, the king took it up and presented it to him with these words, "*Moni soit qui mal y pense*;" to him that evil thinks. This accident led to the order and the motto; it being the custom of the times to mix love and war together. Original statutes however there is not the least allusion to such a circumstance, farther conveyed in the motto. Camden, Fern, and others, say the order to have been instituted on occasion of the victory obtained by Edward over the Scots at the battle of Crassay. That prince, historians, ordered his garter to be displayed as a signal of battle; in commemoration of which he made a garter the principal ornament of the order erected in memory of this signal victory. A symbol of the indissoluble union of the king and his subjects.

And they account for the motto, that the king having laid claim to the kingdom of France, and denounced shame and defiance upon him who should dare to think amiss of the just enterprise undertaken for recovering his lawful crown; and that the bravery of those knights whom he had elected into this order was such as would enable him to maintain the quarrel, and that *he* that thought ill of it. This interpretation, however, appears to be rather forced. A more ancient origin of this order is given in *Parville*, lib. vi. quoted by Granger, in the 1st to his *Biographical History*: viz. that it was instituted by Richard I. at the siege of Acres, and consisted of 26 knights, who firmly stood by their sovereign's thongs of blue leather about their waists, that it was revived and perfected in the reign of Edward III.

GARTER PRINCIPAL KING AT ARMS. The principal king at arms, are two distinct offices in one person: Garter's employment is to attend the service of the order of the garter; for which he is allowed a mantle and badge, a house or castle, and pensions both from the king and knights, besides fees. He also carries a sword and sceptre at every feast of St George, when the sovereign is present, and notifies the names of such as are newly chosen; attends the coronations of their installations, and funerals; and of placing their arms over their seats; and presents the garter to foreign kings and princes, and in that service it has been usual to join him in arms with some peer, or other person of rank. Garter's oath relates only to services performed within the order, and is taken before the sovereign and knights. The oath of a king at arms, is taken before the earl

GARTER. v. g. [from the noun.] To bind. *ter.*—He, being in love, could not see his horse. *Shak.*—A person was wound-

ed in the leg, below the gartering place. *Wizeman's Surgery.*

(1.) **GARTH**, Sir Samuel, an excellent English poet and physician, descended from a good family in Yorkshire. He studied at Cambridge where he took the degree of M. D. in 1691, and was admitted into the college of physicians at London in 1693. He zealously promoted the erecting of the dispensary for the relief of the sick poor. This work of charity having exposed him and many other philanthropic physicians to the resentment of others of the same faculty, he ridiculed them, with peculiar spirit and vivacity, in a poem called the *Dispensary*, in six cantos, highly esteemed. He was one of the most eminent members of the Kit-Kat Club. See **KIT-KAT**. Upon the accession of George I. he was knighted, and made physician to his majesty, and the army. Nor were these more than just rewards of his physical as well as political merits. He had gone through the office of censor of the college in 1702; and practised always with a strict regard to the honour of the faculty, never prostituting the dignity of his profession, from interested motives, to any even the most popular and wealthy apothecaries. He had a very extensive practice, but was very moderate in advancing his own fortune; his humanity inclining him more to use the great interest he had, for the encouragement of other men of letters. He lived with the great in that degree of independence which became a man possessed of superior genius. One of his last performances was his translation of the 14th book, and the story of Cippus in the 15th of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*. These, with an English version of the rest, were published in 1717; and he prefixed an excellent preface to the whole, wherein he not only points out the principal beauties of the poem, but shows its uses, and how it may be read to most advantage. He died in Jan. 1718—19; and his death caused a general concern; which was particularly testified by lord Lansdown, a brother poet, though of a different party, in some admirable verses written on the occasion.

* (2.) **GARTH**. *n. f.* [as if *girth*, from *gird*.] The bulk of the body measured by the girdle.

(3.) **GARTH** is used in some parts of England for a little back-yard or close. It is an ancient British word. *Gardd*, in that language, signifies garden, and is pronounced *garth*. It is also used for a dam or wear, &c.

GARTH-MAN, in the old English statutes, one who catches fish by means of fish garths, or wears. See **GARTH**, N° 3. By statute 17. Ric. II. c. 9. no fisher, nor garth-man, shall use any nets or engines to destroy the fry of fish, &c. The word is supposed to be derived from the Scotch word *gart*, the preterite of the verb, *To GART*, i. e. to force or compel; because fish are forced by the wear to pass into a loop, where they are taken.

GARTLY, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, 12 miles long from E. to W. 6 broad, and of an irregular oval form. It is divided nearly in the centre, by the Bogie, and bounded on the E. and W. by heath-covered hills. The soil is fertile, and produces luxuriant crops of oats, bear, pease, potatoes, turnips and cabbages; husbandry being much improved. The population in 1793, stated by

by the rev. Mr. James Scott, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1800, and had increased 472, since 1755. The number of horses was 340; of sheep, 4,500, and of black cattle, 1,500. A man died in it, in 1788, aged 102.

GARTMORN DAM, an artificial lake in Clackmannanshire, formed about the beginning of the 18th century, for the use of the Alloa coal-works. Mr J. F. Erskine of Marr thus describes it: When full it covers 162 English acres. The head is faced with rough hewn stone, and measures 320 yards. It is a sluice, which regulates the quantity of water to be conveyed into a lade, which first drives a mill for chipping wood and dye stuffs; next a lint mill; then it is conveyed into pipes forcing it up to a engine, that draw up the water and the coals from the pits; after which it is collected into a smaller dam, and conveyed thence in a lade, to a set of mills in Alloa for grinding wheat, oats, malt, and barley; which are capable of grinding 400 bolls, or 250 quarters in a day. There are 2 large wheels, 19 feet diameter in the centre of the house, which drive the whole machinery, in both ends of the mills. From these mills, the water falls into a rivulet, that runs through Alloa, drives a snuff and fulling mill, and passing through Mr Erskine's pleasure grounds, comes near the harbour, where it is again confined by a strong dam of earth, a large sluice, and a long trough, both of stone; which gives it a prodigious velocity for clearing the harbour; so that this little water, originally a branch of the Black Devon, is made to serve the most important purposes, by driving 7 mills besides clearing the harbour. *Stat. Acc. Vol. VIII.*

(1.) **GARTZ**, a town of Germany, in Prussia, near the marche of Brandenburg. Lon. 14. 18. E. Lat. 53. 13. N.

(2.) **GARTZ**, a town of Pomerania, in the isle of Rugen, on the site of the ancient Carenz.

GARUAGH, a town of Ireland, in Derry.

GARVAGHY, a town of Ireland, in Down.

(1.) **GARVOLD**, [Gael. from *gar*, rugged, and *vold*, a burn.] a parish of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire, united with that of **BARO**, in 1702. Agreeably to its Gaelic name, it is watered by a very rugged rivulet, which, when swelled by the rains, overflows its banks. The two parishes extend from E. to W. 8½ miles, and from N. to S. about 4½. The air is pure and healthy. The soil is partly light gravel, and partly deep rich clay. Wheat, barley, oats, pease, turnips, potatoes and clover, are the produce. Husbandry is highly improved. The farmers are uncommonly intelligent. The population of both parishes in 1791, stated by the rev. Mr Andrew Nesbet, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 730, and had decreased 44, since 1755. The number of horses was 314; of sheep 6080; and of black cattle, 575. There are several antiquities in the parishes, particularly the ruins of White-castle, the ancient castle of Yester, and a large fortification on a rising ground of a circular form, 1500 feet in circum-

WALD, a village in the above parish, situated on the rivulet above described, which, swelled to such a pitch, that it

had almost swept the village totally away, and tained 214 inhabitants in 1791.

GARVAO, two towns of Portugal, 1. on the S. side of the Tajo, 12 miles from Lisbon; 2. six miles W. of Ourique.

GARVELACH, an island on the N. of Argyllshire, 8 miles SE. of the isle of Mull.

GARVILANS, an island on the N. of Ireland, in Donegal, 2 miles ESE. of Ballyshannon.

GARUMNA, a navigable river of Gaul, rising from the Pyrenees, anciently Aquitain on the N.; but, by a re Augustus, divided it in the middle: the N. of Burdegala, into the Aquitani. It is now called GARONNE. Mela observes, unless it is swelled by winter rains, or of the snow, it is for a great part shoaly and scarce navigable; but when by the meeting tide, whereby its waters are pelled, it is somewhat fuller, and the river advances, it is broader, till at length it resembles an extensive frith; not only by vessels, but swelling like a raging sea, extremely, especially if the direction be one way and that of the current air.

(1.) **GARVOCK**, [Gael. *i. e.* the hill of Scotland, in Kincardineshire, 12 miles S. of the Grampians, one mile high, steep on the N. side, but having a gradual descent of 4 miles on the S.

(2.) **GARVOCK**, a parish in Kincardineshire, partly seated on the above hill, (N. 10. E. 36 miles N. of Culterin, and 53 N. of Aberdeen.) It was surrounded with walls in 1248.

GARZA, a small river of the Cisalpine, in the dep. of Mela, and late province of Africa, in the F. S. of Menilla. The houses are built of mud.

(1.) * **GAS**. *n. f.* [A word invented by Van Helmont.] It is used by Van Helmont, to signify, in general, a spirit when being coagulated: but he uses it loose senses. *Harris.*

(2.) **GAS** is a general name for all aerial kind, except common air. from the German *gascht* or *gast*, signification of wind, or the ebullition, or expulsion of elastic fluids from sublimation of fermentation or effervescence. It is given by Van Helmont to the vapour, the same with the fluid after fixed air, now carbonic acid, and other factitious airs. From him it has been employed by modern philosophers as a general one for all the elastic fluids ab-

invariant. Under the article *ANATOMY* and properties of these fluids are according to the tenets and language HEP. and others, at the time when that celebrated work *On different kinds of Air* occupied the attention of the philosophers.

Many additional discoveries, however, since made, and a new language indicative of the component parts of gases undergoing any chemical change, will find the subject treated in a still new way under the article *CHEMISTRY*. *ARN*, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of Å, 41 miles NNE. of Carlscadt.

IGN. See *GASCOIN*.

SCOIGNE, George, an English poet some time in the reign of Q. Elizabeth. He was of Essex, of an ancient family, and educated at Oxford and Cambridge. From thence he went to Gray's Inn, but, having a genius for the law, he travelled and for some time in the army in the Low Countries. He then went to France, where he became acquainted with a Scottish lady, and married her. He returned to England, and settled once more at Gray's Inn, where he wrote most of his poetry. The latter part of his life he spent in his native place of Walthamstow, where he died in 1587. The character of a polite gentleman, a patron, *et vir inter poetas sui seculi præcipuus*. His plays, first printed separately, were afterwards re-printed with other poems, in 1600; in 1577 and 1587.

SCOIGNE, Sir William, chief justice of the Bench under Henry IV.; a most learned judge, who, being insulted on the throne by the then prince of Wales, afterwards with great coolness and intrepidity committed him to prison; and by this intemperate foundation of the future glory of the monarch, who from this event dated his reign from licentiousness. It is not related that the prince struck Sir William, nor is it recorded by Shakespeare; but all authors agree that he interrupted the course of justice to the prince's servant. Sir William died in 1413.

IN, or *GASCOIN*, is the hinder thigh which begins at the stifle, and reaches to the bending of the ham.

ONADE. *n. f.* [French; from *Gastol*, a name for boasting.] A boast; a brag; to brag; to bluster.

NES, or *VASCONES*, the ancient inhabitants of Gascony, called by the moderns, *Basques*, or *GASCOONS*. See next articles.

NY, a ci devant province of France, lying between the N. by Languedoc and the Pyrenees on the S. and by the sea on the W. It had its name from the Gauls, its ancient inhabitants. After being subdued by the Franks, they had for some time of their own, who were subject to the kings of Aquitaine; but both were at last by the kings of France. It produces

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corn, wine, fruit, tobacco, hemp, brandy, prunes, &c. It now forms along with *ARMAGNAC* the department of *GERS*.

GASCOONS, the people of the ci-devant province of Gascony. They are noted for a corrupt pronunciation of the French tongue, as well as for boasting and rhodomontade.

GASCUENA, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 30 miles NNW. of Cuenca.

GASEOUS, *adj.* Belonging to Gas. See *Gas*.

* *GASH*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A deep and wide wound.—

He glancing on his helmet, made a large
And open *gash* therein; were not his target,
That broke the violence of his intent,
The weary soul from thence it would discharge.

Spenser.

A perilous *gash*, a very limb lapt off.

Shakspeare. Hen. IV.

—Hamilton drove Newton almost to the end of the lists; but Newton on a sudden gave him such a *gash* on the leg, that therewith he fell to the ground. *Hayward.*—

But th' ethereal substance clos'd,

Not long divisible; and from the *gash*

A stream of nectarous humour issuing flow'd.

Milton.

2. The mark of a wound. I know not if this be proper.—I was fond of back sword and cudgel play, and I now bear in my body many a black and blue *gash* and scar. *Arbush.*

* *To GASH*. *v. a.* [from *hacher*, to cut, French. *Skinner*] To cut deep so as to make a gaping wound; to cut with a blunt instrument so as to make the wound wide.—Where the Englishmen at arms had been defeated, many of their horses were found grievously *gashed* or gored to death.

Hayward.—Wit is a keen instrument, and every one can cut and *gash* with it; but to carve a beautiful image requires art. *Tillotson.*—

See me *gash'd* with knives,

Or fear'd with burning steel. *Rome's R. Com.*

Streaming with blood, all over *gash'd* with wounds,

He reel'd, he groan'd, and at the altar fell.

A. Phillips.

GASK, [Gael. *i. e.* a slope,] a parish of Perthshire, bounded on the S. by the Barn, and in form nearly a square, each side of which is above two miles. An ancient Roman causeway runs through it, and the ground *slopes* gradually down from it on each side. This causeway is 20 feet broad, and is in high preservation; being composed of rough stones laid close together; leading W. to one camp still visible in the parish of Muthil, and E. to another in that of Scone. Vestiges of other two camps on the N. and S. surrounded by ditches, are also visible. The air is dry and healthy; the soil is fertile, and produces wheat, barley, oats, pease, potatoes, turnips, and clover. The population, stated by the rev. Mr David Kemp, in his report to Sir John Sinclair, was 485, in 1790; when there were 50 sheep, 131 horses, and 648 black cattle in the parish.

* *GASKINS*. *n. f.* [from *Gastaigne*. See *GALLIGASKINS*.] Wide hose; wide breeches. An old ludicrous word.—

If one point break, the other will hold;
Or, if both break, your *gasps* fall. *Shakefp.*
* *GASP*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of
opening the mouth to catch breath. 2. The short
catch of breath in the last agonies.—

His fortunes all lie speechless, and his name
Is at last *gasp*. *Shakefp. Cymbeline.*

Ah, Warwick, Montague hath breath'd his
last;

And to the latest *gasp* cry'd out for Warwick.

Shakefp. Hen. VI.

If in the dreadful hour of death,
If at the latest *gasp* of breath,

When the cold damp bedews your brow,
You hope for mercy, shew it now. *Addis. Ros.*

* To *GASP*. *v. n.* [from *gasper* Sinner; from
gipse, Danish, to sob, *Ynnus*.] 1. To open the
mouth wide; to catch breath with labour.—

The sick for air before the portal *gasp*. *Virg.*

They rais'd a feeble cry with trembling notes;

But the weak voice deceiv'd their *gassing* throats.

Dryd. n.

The *gassing* head flies off; a purple flood

Flows from the trunk. *Dryden's Æn.*

The ladies *gasp'd*, and scarcely could respire;

The breath they drew no longer air, but fire.

Dryden.

—A scantling of wit lay *gasp*ing for life, and groan-
ing beneath a heap of rubbish. *Dryden's Spangb*
Friar.—The rich countrymen in Aulonia were faint
and *gasp*ing for breath. *Brown's Trav.*

Pale and faint,

Hegasp for breath; and, as his life flows from him,

Demands to see his friends. *Addis. Cata.*

1. To emit breath by opening the mouth convul-
sively.—

I lay me down to *gasp* my latest breath;

The wolves will get a breakfast by my death.

Dryden.

He staggers round, his eyeballs roll in death,

And with short sobs he *gasp*s away his breath.

Dryden's Æn.

3. To long for. This sense is, I think, not prop-
er, as nature never expresses desire by *gasp*ing.—
The Castilian and his wife had the comfort to be
under the same master, who, seeing how dearly
they loved one another, and *gasp*ed after their li-
berty, demanded a most exorbitant price for their
ransom. *Spettator*.

GASPAR ISLAND, an island and channel in
GASPAR STRAITS, the Eastern Seas, between
the isles of Banca and Billiton. Lon. 107.0. E.
Lat. 1. 45. S.

GASPARINI, a celebrated grammarian, born
at Barzizia, about 1370, who contributed much
to the revival of learning in Europe. He read
Cicero, Cæsar, Virgil, &c. entered into their spi-
rit, and communicate it to his pupils. He was
invited to be professor of belles lettres at Padua,
but the duke of Milan retained him and loaded
him with favours. He wrote commentaries on
Cicero, and Letters and Orations, reprinted in
1723, with a curious and useful preface. He died
in 1431.

GASPE, or **GACHEPE**, a bay and head land
America, S. of Florell isle, E. of Lower Ca-
1 W. of the Gulf of St Lawrence.

GASPEE, or **NAMUIT POINT**, a
America, projecting from the W. of
Providence. Here a British armed schi-
ed the *Gaspree*, was burnt the 20th Jan
about 60 men from Providence, patri-
dians.

GASPESIA, a tract of country,
Canada, S. of the Lawrence, and N. of
Bay.

GASSE, a town of Piedmont, on
miles S. of Chivasso.

GASSENDI, one of the most cele-
Joseph a France has, reduced, was bo-
terter, about 3 miles from Digne in P
1502. When a child, he took delight
at the moon and stars in clear uncloud
This frequently drew him into bye pla-
his eyes undisturbed; by which means
had him often to seek, with many an
They therefore put him to school
where he soon made such extraordina
in learning, that some persons, who
cimens of his genius, resolved to ha-
moved to Aix, to study philosophy as
a learned minor friar. He was afterw
to be professor of rhetoric at Digne
was quite sixteen years of age; and h
engaged in that office but three year.
dying, he was made professor in his re
There he composed his *Paradoxical En*
which, coming to the hands of Niche
that great patron of learning joined
Walter prior of Valette in promoting
he having entered into holy orders, wa
canon of the church of Digne and D. I
obtained the rectorsnip of that church.
fondness for astronomy grew up with
and his reputation daily increasing,
1645, appointed royal professor of mat
Paris. This institution being chiefly
astronomy, he read lectures on that
crowded audiences. However, he did n
place long; for a dangerous cough an-
tion of the lungs, obliged him, in 1647
to Digne for the benefit of his native air
wrote against the metaphysics of Desc
divided with that great man the phil
his time, almost all of whom were C
Gassendians. He joined to his knowl
sophy and the mathematics, an ac-
with the languages and a profound
He wrote, 1. Three volumes on Ep
sophy; and six others, which contain
philosophy. 2. Astronomical Work
Lives of Nicholas de Peiresc, Epicu-
urus, Tycho Brahe, Puerbachius,
montanus. 4. Epistles, and other tre
his works were collected together, 1
at Lyons, in 1658, in 6 vols folio.

Paris, in 1673, aged 63.

GASSENHOVEN, a town of the
public, in the dept. of the Dyle, and l.
Netherlands, 3 miles NE. of Tirlemor

13. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

* *GAST*. *v. a.* from *gast*, Sax. See

To make aghast; to fright; to shock

to fear; to affray.—

he saw my best alarmed spirits
the quarrel's right, rous'd to th' en-
counter,

ether galled by the noise I made,

he only he fled.

Shak. K. Lear.

SEIN, a town of Bavaria, in the arch-
diocese of Salzburg, 16 miles SW. of Rad-
sbach S. of Salzburg; famous for its warm
mines of gold, lead, and iron.

SEL, a river of Wales, which runs into
the sea, in Caernarvonshire.

SESTER, a ci-devant bailiwick of Switzer-
land, in the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris.

SESTER, a fort of Africa, in the country
of the Garamantes.

SEPIOSTEUS, the STICKLE-BACK, in
fishery, a genus of fishes belonging to the
Muraenidae. There are 3 rays in the mem-
brane of the gills; the body is carinated; and
some distinct prickles before the back
are 11 species distinguished by the
prickles on the back. One of these,

SEPIOSTEUS ACULEATUS, stickle-back,
or sharpling, is common in many of the
fens. In the fens of Lincolnshire and some
proceed from them, they are found in
quantities. At Spalding, once in 7 or
8 years shoals appear in the Welland,
up the river in form of a vast column,
supposed to be the multitudes that have
drifted out of the fens by the floods of severe
winter collected in some deep hole, till

with numbers, they are periodically
attempt a change of place. The quan-
tity of that they are used to manure the
fields have been made to get oil from
this idea may be conceived of this vast shoal,
that a man being employed by the
to take them, has got for a considerable
lay by selling them for a halfpenny per
his species is seldom two inches long;
sharp spines on the back, that can be raised
at pleasure. The colour of the back
an olive green; the belly white; but
lower jaws and belly are of a bright

SEPIA. See GAZE HOUND.

SETOIS. See GATINOIS.

SESTRE, a town of Bohemia, in the circle
of Silesia, 8 miles SE. of Leitmeritz.

SESTRE, a town of Turkey, in the Morea,
in the district of Chiarenza.

SELL, Francis, Bp. of Chester, was
appointed preacher to the society
in St. John's Inn, in 1694, and made Bp. of Ches-
ter. He preached a course of sermons
lectures; engaged in the Trinitarian
with Mr Collins and Dr Clarke; and
wrote excellent pieces, intitled, *Christianity*
and A Moral Proof of a Future State. He
was the rights of the university of Oxford
Bp. of Canterbury, in the appoint-
ment of warden of Manchester college; and
violent proceedings against Bp. Atter-
bury of lords, though he disliked the
Whig principles. He died in 1725.

SESTRICK, *adj.* [from *sestren*.] Belong-
ing to a sister.

(2.) **GASTRICK JUICE**, a thin pellucid liquor,
which distils from certain glands in the stomach,
for the dilution, &c. of the food. See **ANATOMY**,
Index.

GASTROCNEMIUS. See **ANATOMY**, § 217.

GASTROMANCY, *n. f.* [from *gaster*, the belly,

GASTROMANTIA, *n. f.* and *mantia*, divination,]
a kind of divination practised among the ancients,
by means of words coming or seeming to come
out of the belly. There is another kind of *gastro-*
mancy, which is performed by means of glasses, or
other round transparent vessels, within which cer-
tain figures appear by magic art. It is thus call-
ed, because the figure appears as in the belly of
the vessels.

(1.) * **GASTRORAPHY**. *n. f.* [from *gaster* and *graphein*.]
In strictness of etymology signifies no more than
sewing up any wound of the belly; yet in com-
mon acceptance it implies, that the wound of
the belly is complicated with another of the in-
testine. *Sharp's Surg.*

(2.) **GASTRORAPHY**. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

(1.) * **GASTROTOMY**. *n. f.* [from *gaster* and *tomos*.]
The act of cutting open the belly.

(2.) **GASTROTOMY** is also called the **CÆSARIAN**
OPERATION. See **MIDWIFERY**.

* **GAT**. The preterite of *get*.—Moses *gat* him
up into the mount. *Ex. xxiv. 18.*

(1.) **GATA**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura,
85 miles NNW. of Cordova.

(2.) **GATA**, a river of Spain, which rises near
the town (Nº 1.) and runs into the Alagon, 15
miles NNW. of Cordova.

GATAKER, Thomas, a learned critic and di-
vine, born at London, in 1574. He studied at St
John's college, Cambridge, and was afterwards
chosen preacher at Lincoln's Inn; which he quit-
ted in 1611, for the rectory of Rotherhithe. In
1620, he made a tour through the low countries;
and in 1624, published at London a book, entitled,
"Transubstantiation declared by the confession of
the Popish Writers to have no necessary founda-
tion in God's Word." He wrote also a defence of
this discourse. In 1642, he was appointed one of
the assembly of divines, and was engaged with
them in writing annotations upon the Bible. He
died in July 1654, in the 80th year of his age. He
published also, 1. A Dissertation upon the Style of
the New Testament. 2. *De nomine tetragramma-*
ta. 3. *De diphthongis, five bivocalibus*. 4. An Edi-
tion and Translation of Marcus Antoninus's Me-
ditations. 5. A Collection of Sermons, in folio;
and many other works. His piety and charity
were very exemplary; and his modesty was so
great, that he declined all ecclesiastical dignity.
His extensive learning was much admired; his
house was a private seminary, and many foreigners
resorted to him to receive advice in their studies.

(1, i.) * **GATE**. *n. f.* [from *gat*, Saxon.] 1. The
door of a city, castle, palace, or large building.—

Open the *gate* of mercy, gracious God!

My soul flies thro' these wounds to seek thee.

Shaksp.

Gates of monarchs

Are arch'd so high, that giants may jet through,
And keep their impious turbans on, without
Good-morrow to the sun.

Shak. Cymbeline.

L 1 2

2. A

2. A frame of timber upon hinges to give a passage into inclosed grounds.—

Know'st thou the way to Dover?

—Both stile and gate, horseway and footpath.

Shakspeare.

3. An avenue; an opening.—Auria had done nothing but wisely and politically, in setting the Venetians together by the ears with the Turks, and opening a gate for a long war. *Kneller's History of the Turks.*

(II.) GATE, (§ I, i. def. 1.) See ARCHITECTURE. Thebes, in Egypt, was anciently sited the city with a hundred gates. In ancient Rome there was a triumphal gate, *porta triumphalis*. In modern Rome there is the jubilee gate, which is only opened in the year of a grand jubilee. The gates of London were many of them converted into gaols or prisons, as Ludgate, Newgate, &c. but they are now removed. The lesser or bye-gates are called *posterns*. Gates through which coaches &c. are to pass, should not be less than 7 feet broad, nor more than 12; the height, $1\frac{1}{2}$ the breadth.

(II.) GATE, or GAIT, in the manege, called in French *trou*, is used for the going or pace of a horse.

(III.) GATES, in a military sense, are made of strong planks, with iron bars, to oppose an enemy. They are generally made in the middle of the city, from whence they are seen, and defended by the two flanks of the bastions. They should be covered with a good ravelin, that they may not be seen or enfiladed by the enemy. These gates, belonging to a fortified place, are passages through the rampart, which may be shut and opened by means of doors and portcullises. They are either private or public:

1. GATES, PRIVATE, are those passages by which the troops can go out of the town unseen by the enemy, when they pass to and from the relief of the duty in the outworks, or on any other occasion which is to be concealed from the besiegers.

2. GATES, PUBLIC, are those passages through the middle of such curtains, to which the great roads of public ways lead. The dimensions of these are usually about 13 or 14 feet high, and 9 or 10 feet wide, continued through the rampart, with proper recesses for foot passengers to stand in, out of the way of wheel carriages.

(IV.) GATES OF HELL, an expression used in scripture figuratively to denote either the *graves* or the *powers of darkness*, i. e. the devil and his angels. The Mahometans use it literally, and suppose that hell has 7 gates. The first, they pretend, is that where Mussulmans, who incur the guilt of sin, will be tormented; the 2d is for the Christians; the 3d for the Jews; the 4th for the Sabins; the 5th for the Magians or worshippers of fire; the 6th for Pagans and idolaters; and, the 7th for hypocrites, who make an outward show of religion, but have none.

GATEHOUSE, a town of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightshire, on the mouth of the river Fleet, 13 miles W. of Kirkcudbright. It has 3 regular streets, and carries on a cotton manufacture.

GATES, a county of North Carolina, in Edenton. bounded on the N. by Virginia, and was county. It contained 3173 citizens,

and 3119 slaves, in 1795. Hertford is town.

GATESHEAD, a village of Dursley kind of suburb of Newcastle, though in other county, being divided by the Tyne, which there is a fine stone bridge, with a gate in the middle, having the arms on one side, and those of Newcastle on the other, which is the boundary between the bishopric of Northumberland. The church is a fine building with a very high tower, seen at a great distance. In the church yard are several monuments. There are few traces left of a monastery, except a stone gateway, modern erection. The house covers a great deal of land. Here live the coal pit men.

* GATEVEIN. *n. s.* The vein of a king that loved wealth, he could not have trade sick, nor any obstruction in the *gatevein* which disperseth that *royal's* Henry VIII.

* GATEWAY. *n. s.* [gate and way] through gates of inclosed grounds, between inclosures are so many, that cart between one field and another.

(1.) GATH, or GATH, in ancient times a city of the Philistines, and one of the most famous for having given birth to David made a conquest of it, and it was subject to his successors, till the death of king Rehoboam rebuked it; king Uzziah retook it, and he more reduced it under his subjection. about 5 or 6 miles from Jamnia, about 30 W. of Jerusalem.

authors, among whom is F. Calmet, committed an egregious mistake in making it most southern, and Ekron the most northern of the Philistine cities; as if these had the boundaries of their dominions, when not above 5 miles asunder; and Gath of the five satrapies S. Josephus expresses plainly enough, when he says, it took all the Philistine cities from Gath; there being many more cities of that name in the Hebrew *some press*. of the name of Geth or Gath are Eusebius and St Jerome, whose situation to them, plainly shows them to be different places from this, and from each other. This city recovered its liberty in the time of the prophet Amos and was afterwards demolished by Hazael; since which it became of but little use till the time of the holy war, when of Jerusalem built a castle on its ruins.

(2.) GATH, a town of the tribe of Dan. GATH-EPHER, or GATH-OPHER, a place of the tribe of Dan. Joshua makes this city to be part of Zebulun; and St Jerome, in his commentary on Jonah, says, that it was two miles from otherwise called *Diocefarea*.

(3.) GATH RIMMON, a city belonging to the tribe of Dan. St Jerome places it in the way from Eleuthera given to the Levites of Kohath's family.

TH RIMMON, a city in the tribe of
likewise given to the Kohathites.

TH RIMMON, a city in the half tribe of
on this side Jordan, also given to the

to GATHER. *v. a.* [*gatheran*, Saxon.]
left; to bring into one place.—*Gather*
and they took stones and made an heap.
to get in harvest.—The seventh year we
sow, nor *gather* in our increase. *Lev.*
3. To pick up; to glean.—

His opinions
satisfied the king for his divorce,
d from all the famous colleges. *Shak.*
the highway, *gather* out the stones. *If.*
I will spend this preface upon those from
ave *gathered* my knowledge; for I am
herer. *Wotton*.—To pay the creditor,
him his rent, he must *gather* up money
a. *Locke*. 4. To crop; to pluck.—

What have I done?
my youth, my beauty, and my love
ner gain'd, but slighted and betray'd;
e a rose just *gather'd* from the stalk,
y smelt, and cheaply thrown aside,
her on the ground! *Dryd. Span. Fryar.*
emble.—They have *gathered* themselves
gainst me. *Job*.—All the way we went
e *gathered* some people on both sides,
n a row. *Bacon's New Atlantis*. 6. To
to accumulate.—He that by usury and
n increaseth his substance, shall gather it
at will pity the poor. *Prov.* 7. To se-
ake.—Save us, O Lord, and *gather* us
ng the heathen, to give thanks unto thy
e. *Psf. cvi. 47.* 8. To sweep together.—
dom of heaven is like unto a net that was
be sea, and *gathered* of every kind. *Mat.*
. To collect charitable contributions. 10.
into one body or interest.—I will *gather*
him, besides those that are *gathered* un-
f. *lvi. 8.* 11. To draw together from a
ffusion; to compress; to contract.—

Immortal Tully shone,
oman rostra deck'd the consul's throne;
ing his flowing robe he seem'd to stand,
to speak, and graceful stretch'd his hand.

ain.—

gathers round upon her in the chace;
breathes upon her hair with nearer pace.

Dryden.
ucker needlework. 14. To collect lo-
o know by inference.—That which, out
of reason or of God, men probably *ga-*
be expedient, they make it law. *Hooker.*
reason that I *gather* he is mad,
ad tale he told to day at dinner,
own door being shut against his entrance.

Shak.
e had seen the vision, we endeavoured
to Macedonia, assuredly *gathering* that
had called us. *Acts*.—From this doctrine
creasing and lessening of sin in this re-
may *gather*, that all sins are not alike
d, as the flocks of ancient times, and
powers, have falsely imagined. *Perkins*.—

Return'd

By night, and listening where the hapless pair
Sat in their sad discourse, and various plaint,
Thence *gather'd* his own doom. *Milt. Par. Lqst.*
—Mademoiselle de Scudery, who is as old as a Si-
byl, is translating Chaucer into French; from which
gather that he has formerly been translated into
the old Provençal. *Dryden.* 15. To draw toge-
ther in needlework. 16. To GATHER *Breath*. [A
proverbial expression.] To have respite from any
calamity.—

The luckless lucky maid
A long time with that savage people staid,
To *gather breath*, in many miseries. *Spenser.*
(2.) * To GATHER. *v. n.* 1. To be condensed;
to thicken.—

If ere night the *gath'ring* clouds we fear,
A song will help the beating storm to bear.
Dryden's Pastorals.

When *gath'ring* clouds o'ershadow all the
skies,
And shoot quick lightnings, weigh, my boys!
he cries. *Dryden.*

When the rival winds their quarrel try,
South, East and West, on airy courses born,
The whirlwind *gathers*, and the woods are torn.
Dryden.

Think on the storm that *gathers* o'er your
head,
And threatens every hour to burst upon it.

Addison's Cato.
2. To grow larger by the accretion of similar mat-
ter.—Their snow-ball did not *gather* as it went;
for the people came in to them. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*
3. To assemble.—There be three things that mine
heart feareth; the slander of a city, the *gathering*
together of an unruly multitude, and a false ac-
cusation. *Ecclus. xxvi. 5.* 5. To generate pus or
matter.—Ask one, who by repeated restraints hath
subdued his natural rage, how he likes the change,
and he will tell you 'tis no less happy than the
ease of a broken imposthume after the painful *ga-*
thering and filling of it. *Decay of Piety.*

* GATHER. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Pucker; cloth
drawn together in wrinkles.—

Give laws for pantaloons,
The length of breeches, and the *gathers*,
Part cannons, periwigs and feathers. *Hudib.*

* GATHERER. *n. f.* [from *gather*.] 1. One
that gathers; one that collects; a collector.—I
will spend this preface upon those from whom I
have gathered my knowledge; for I am but a *ga-*
therer and disposer of other men's stuff. *Wotton's*
Preface to Elements of Architecture. 2. One that
gets in a crop of any kind.—I was a herdman and
a *gatherer* of sycamore fruit. *Amos*.—

Nor in that land
Do poisonous herbs deceive the *gatherer's* hand,
May's Virgil.

* GATHERING. *n. f.* [from *gather*.] Collec-
tion of charitable contributions.—Let every one
lay by him in store, that there be no *gatherings*
when I come. *1 Cor. xvi. 2.*

GATINOIS, or GASTINOIS, a ci-devant pro-
vince of France, 45 miles long and 30 broad. In
the 11th century, it had counts of its own, but
was afterwards joined to Anjou. It was next di-
vided

in which there is a nobleness and thought, with a greatness of style, that looked on as the best written book in language at the time.

ENS. ST., a town of France, in the dept of Upper Garonne, and late province of C., seated on the Garonne; 8 miles N.E. d. Lon. 6. 36. E. Lat. 43. 1. N.

DERY. *n. f.* [from *gaude*.] Finery; of luxury of dress.—The triumph was not *gaudery*, but one of the wisest and institutions that ever was. *Bacon's Essays*. It is but one remove from death, and nothing about us but what looks like reparation for it, scarce ever appears, in the high mode, the flaunting garb, *gaudery* of youth; with cloaths as rich and as much in the fashion, as the peritars them is usually grown out of it.

in suit, since we can make but one, than to be by tarnish'd *gaud'ry* known.

Dryden.

ANO, a town of Naples, in the prov. 2, 10 miles N.E. of Venosa.

DILY. *adv.* [from *gaudy*.] Showily.

DINESS. *n. f.* [from *gaudy*.] Showiness; trance.

SCHKEHN, a town of Prussian Lithuania Angerap, 3 m. E.S.E. of Gumbinnen.

LAUDY. *adj.* [from *gaude*.] Showy; pompous; ostentatiously fine.—thy habit as thy purse can buy, express in fancy; rich, not *gaudy*; apparel oft proclaims the man. *Shak.*

fond with *gaudy* shapes possess, and numberless

ay notes that people the sunbeams.

Milton.

finch there I saw, with *gaudy* pride red plumes that hopp'd from side to side.

Dryden.

the Bavarian duke his brigades leads, in arms, and *gaudy* to behold. *Philips*. who walks directly to his journey's end, thither much sooner than him who wanders gaze at every thing, or to gather every er. *Watts*.—It is much to be lamented, is so naturally qualified to be great ex-piety, should, by an erroneous educa-tion, be made poor and *gaudy* spectacles of the city. *Law*.

AUDY. *n. f.* [*gaudium*, Lat.] A feast; a day of plenty. A word used in the —He may surely be content with a fast it is sure of a *gaudy* to-morrow. *Cheyne*.

AVE. The preterite of *give*.—can't not every day give me thy heart; can't give it, then thou never gav'st it: riddles are, that tho' thy heart depart, at home, and thou with losing sav'st it.

Donne.

AVR, in geography a rivers of France. 1, N° 1.

AVEL. *n. f.* A provincial word for let it lie upon the ground or *gavel* eight. *Mortimer*.

REL, among builders. See GABLE.

(3.) GAVIL, in law, tribute, toll, custom, or yearly revenue; of which we had in old time several kinds. See GABIEL, N° 1, 2.

(1.) GAVELET, in law, an ancient and special cessavit used in Kent, where the custom of gavel-kind continues, by which the tenant, if he with-draws his rent and services due to the lord, for- seits his land and tenements. The process is thus. The lord is first to seek by the steward of his court, from 3 weeks to 3 weeks, to find some distress upon the tenement, till the 4th court; and if at that time he find none, at this 4th court it is awarded, that he take the tenement in his hand in name of a distress, and keep it a year and a day without manuring; within which time, if the tenant pays his arrears, and make reasonable amends for the with-holding, he shall have and enjoy his tenement as before; if he come not be- fore the year and day be past, the lord is to go to the next county court with witnesses of what had passed at his own court, and pronounce there his process, to have further witnesses; and then by the award of his own court, he shall enter and manure the tenement as his own: so that if the tenant desired afterwards to have and hold it as before, he must agree with the lord; according to this old saying: "Has he not since any thing given, or any thing paid, then let him pay five pound for his were, e'er he become heald again." Other copies have the first part with some varia- tion; "Let him nine times pay, and nine times repay."

(2.) GAVELET is also a writ used in the huf- tings, given to lords of rents in London. Here the parties, tenant and demandant, appear by *fare facias*, to show cause why the one should not have his tenement again on payment of his rent, or the other recover the lands on default thereof.

(3.) * GAVELKIND. *n. f.* [In law.] A custom whereby the lands of the father are equally divided at his death amongst all his sons, or the land of the brother equally divided among the brothers, if he have no issue of his own. This custom is of force in divers places of England, but especially in Kent. *Cowell*.—Among other Welsh customs he a- bolished that of *gavelkind*, whereby the heirs fe- male were utterly excluded, and the bastards did inherit as well as the legitimate, which is the very Irish *gavelkind*. *Davies on Ireland*.

(2.) GAVELKIND is a tenure belonging to lands in the county of Kent, and formerly universal in Ireland. (See ENGLAND, § 42.) The word is said by Lambard to be compounded of three Sax- on words, *gyf, eal, kyn*, "omnibus cognatione pro- ximis data." Versteegan calls it *gavelkind*, quasi "give all kind," that is, to each child his part; and Taylor, in his history of *gavelkind*, derives it from the British *gavel*, i. e. a hold or tenure, and *cenned*, "generatio aut familia;" and so *gavel- cenned* might signify *tenura generationis*.—It is well known what struggles the Kentish men made to preserve their ancient liberties, and with how much success those struggles were attended. And as it is principally here that we meet with the custom of gavel-kind (though it was and is to be found in some other parts of the kingdom), we may conclude, that this was a part of those liber- ties; agreeable to Mr Selden's opinion, that *ga- velkind*

velkind, before the Norman conquest, was the general custom of the realm. The distinguishing properties of this tenure are principally these: 1. The tenant is of age sufficient to alienate his estate by feoffment, at the age of 21. 2. The estate does not escheat in case of an attainder and execution for felony; their maxim being, "the father to the bough, the son to the plough." 3. In most places he had a power of devising lands by will, before the statute for that purpose was made. 4. The lands descend, not to the eldest, youngest, or any one son only, but to all the sons together; which was indeed anciently the most usual course of descent all over England, though in particular places particular customs prevailed; and it must be allowed, that it is founded on strict justice, however contrary to the present general practice.

GAVELKOVON, a town of Lower Bavaria, 30 miles SE. of Landschut.

GAVELLO, a populous town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Benaco, and ci-devant Veronese; on the road to Ferrara.

GAVEREN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Scheldt, and late prov. of Flanders; seated on the Scheldt, 7 miles from Obent.

GAUERS, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse, 5 miles NNW. of Patzschau.

GAVETA, a town of Naples, in the Capitanzata, 16 miles SSW. of Manfredonia.

GAUGAMELA, in ancient geography, a village of Aturia, lying between the rivers Lycus and Tigris; famous for Alexander's victory over Darius. It is said to have been allowed to Darius Hytaspes for the maintenance of a camel; and hence the name. It was near a more considerable place called *Arbela*; whence the latter gave the name to the victory. See *ARBELA*, § 2.

(1.) * GAUGE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A measure.—This plate must be a *gauge* to fit your worm and groove to equal breadth by. *Moxon*.—If money were to be hired, as land is, or to be had from the owner himself, it might then be had at the market rate, which would be a constant *gauge* of your trade and wealth. *Locke*.—Timothy proposed to his mistress, that she should entertain no servant that was above four foot seven inches high; and for that purpose had prepared a *gauge*, by which they were to be measured. *Arbutnot's John Bull*.

(2.) GAUGE. See GAGE.

(3.) GAUGE LINE. See GAUGING, § 4.

(4.) GAUGE POINT of a solid measure, the diameter of a circle whose area is equal to the solid content of the same measure.

(1.) * To GAUGE. *v. a.* [*gauge, jauge*, a measuring rod, French. It is pronounced, and often written, *goge*.] 1. To measure with respect to the contents of a vessel. 2. To measure with regard to any proportion.—The vanes nicely *gauged* on each side, broad on one side, and narrow on the other, both which minister to the progressive motion of the bird. *Derham's Phys. Tract.*

It is nothing more particularly admirable in it, than that artful manner in Homer, of taking *gauging* his heroes by each other, and creating the character of one person by comparison of it to some other he is made to

(2.) To GAUGE. See To GAGE.

(1.) * GAUGER. *n. f.* [from *ga* whole business is to measure vessels or —Those earls and dukes have been with royal jurisdiction; and appointed civil officers, as sheriff, admiral, *gaug* cheator. *Carew*.

(2.) A GAUGER, is a king's officer, pointed to examine all tuns, pipes, and barrels, of wine, beer, ale, oil, &c. and give them a mark of allowance, &c. are sold in any place within the extent *five*.

(1.) GAUGING. See GEOMETRY

(2.) GAUGING ROD, an instrument gauging or measuring the contents of That usually employed is the four foot rod. It is commonly made of box, &c. of 4 rules, each a foot long and about of an inch square, joined together by 3 l by which means the rod is rendered when the 4 rules are quite opened, a foot when they are all folded together: first face of this rod, marked 4, are diagonal lines; one for beer and the wine: by means of which the contents of mon vessel in beer or wine gallons readily found by putting the rod in al hole of the vessel till it meets the of the head of the vessel with the flay to the bung hole. For distinction o there is written thereon, *beer* and *w* On the second face, 5, are a line of the gauge line; which is a line expres reas of circles, whose diameters are pondent inches in ale gallons. At the is written *ale area*. On the third fac scales of lines; the first, at the end written *hog'shead*, is for finding how m there are in a hog'shead when it is not with its axis parallel to the horizon, at the end of which is written *B. L.* butt lying, is for the same use as that f head. The 3d line is to find how mu wanting to fill up a butt when it is fl the end of it is written *B. S.* signifying ing. In the half of the 4th face of t rod, 7, there are 3 scales of lines, wants in a firkin, kilderkin, and b: with their areas parallel to the horn are distinguished by the letters, *F. K. I* a *firkin*, *kilder-kin*, and *barrel*.

(3.) GAUGING ROD, USE OF THE LINES ON THE. To find the conten in beer or wine gallons, put the braze gauging rod into the bung hole of the the diagonal lines upwards, and thrust end to the meeting of the head and f with chalk make a mark at the m bung hole of the vessel, and also on t lines of the rod, right against, over o when the brazed end is thrust home and staves: then turn the gauging ro ther end of the vessel, and thrust the home to the end as before. Lastly, mark made on the gauging rod come the mark made on the bung-hole w was thrust to the other end; which i

le on the diagonal lines will, on the show the whole content of the cask in ne gallons. If the mark made on the be not right against that made on the you put it the other way, then right mark made on the bung-hole m be a the diagonal lines; and the division on al line between the two chalks will cefel's whole contents in beer or wine Thus, e. gr. if the diagonal line of a 8 inches four tenths, its contents in s will be near 51, and in wine gallons cefel be open, as a half-barrel, tun, oy d the measure from the middle on one head and staves be 38 inches, the dia gives 122 beer gallons; half of which, the content of the open hal: tub. If large vessel, as a tun or copper, and d line taken by a long rule proves 70 in- content of that vessel may be found y inch at the beginning end of the dia- call ten inches. Thus ten inches be inches; and every tenth of a gallon thons; and every whole call 1000 gal- *impie*. At 44.8 inches on the diagonal s 200 gallons; so that 4 inches 48 parts, 44 inches 8 tenths, is just two tenths e, now called 200 gallons; so also if the e be 76 inches and 7 tenths, a close cask gonial will hold 1000 beer gallons; but an but half so much, viz. 500 beer gallons.

MEASURING ROD, USE OF THE GAUGE THE. To find the content of any cylin- id in ale gallons; seek the diameter of l in inches, and just against it on the is the quantity of ale gallons contained d deep: this multiplied by the length nder will give its content in ale gall ns. Suppose the length of the vessel 32.06, diameter of its base 25 inches; to find e content in ale-gallons? Right against on the gauge-line is one gallon and 745 n; which multiplied by 32.06, the length, 447 gallons for the content of the ves- bung diameter of a hoghead being 25 he head diameter 22 inches, and the 06 inches; to find the quantity of ale ntained in it?—Seek 25. the bung dia- the line of inches; and right against it uge-line you will find 1.745; take one 3d n is .580, and set it down twice: seek 22 the head diameter, and against it you will :gauge-line 1.356; one third of which add- ce .520. gives 1.6096; which multiplied gth 32.06, the product will be 51.603776, nt in ale gallons. Note, this operation that the aforesaid hoghead is in the si- e middle frustrum of a spheroid. The lines on the two other faces of the rod ly; you need only put it downright in- ag-hole (if the vessel you desire to know tity of ale-gallons contained therein be the opposite staves; and then where the the liquor cuts any one of the lines ap- l to that vessel, will be the number of ntained in that vessel.

a town of the Ligurian republic, 25 of Genoa.

. PART. I.

GAVIA, a town of Spain, 4 m. SW. of Granada.
GAUJAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes, 12 miles SE. of Dax.

(1.) GAUL, the English translation of GAL- LIA, the ancient name given by the Romans to the country that now forms the republic of France.—The original inhabitants were descend- ed from the Celtes or Gomerians, by whom the greatest part of Europe was peopled; the name of GALLI, or GAULS, being probably given them long after their settlement in that country. See GALLIA.

(2.) GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS FIRST INVA- SION BY THE ROMANS The ancient history of the Gauls is entirely wrapped up in obscurity and darkness; all we know concerning them for a long time is, that they multiplied so fast, that their country being unable to contain them, they pour- ed forth in vast multitudes into other countries, which they generally subdued, and settled in. It often happened, however, that these colonies were so molested by their neighbours, that they were obliged to send for assistance to the mother country. This was always very easily obtained. The Gauls were always ready to send forth great numbers of new adventurers; and as these spread desolation wherever they came, the very name of *Gauls* proved terrible to most of the neighbouring nations.—The earliest excursion of these people, of which we have any distinct account, was into I- taly, under a famed leader, named *Bellovesus*, a- bout A. A. C. 622. He crossed the Rhone and the Alps, till then unattempted; defeated the He- trurians; and seized upon that part of the coun- try, since known by the names of *Lombardy* and *Piedmont*.—The 2d grand expedition was made by the Cœnomani, a people dwelling between the Seine and the Loire, under a general, named *Eistonis*. They settled in those parts of Italy since known by the names of *Brejcians*, *Cremonesi*, *Maniuan*, *Car- niola*, and *Venetia*; now included in the Cisalpine republic and Maritime Austria. In a 3d excur- sion, 2 other Gaulish nations settled on both sides of the Po; and in a 4th the Boii and Lingones set- tled in the country between Ravenna and Bologna. The time of these 3 last expeditions is uncertain. The 5th expedition of the Gauls was more re- markable than any of the former, and happened about 200 years after that of Bellovesus. The Se- nones, settled between Paris and Meaux, were in- vited into Italy by an Etrurian lord, and settled themselves in Umbria. Brennus their king laid siege to Clusium, a city in alliance with Rome; and this produced a war with the Romans, in which the latter were at first defeated, and their city taken and burnt; but at length the whole ar- my of the Gauls was cut off by CAMILLUS, inso- much that not a single person escaped. The Gauls after this undertook some other expeditions against the Romans: in which, though they al- ways proved unsuccessful, by reason of their want of military discipline; yet their fierceness and courage made them so formidable to the re- public, that, on the first news of their march, ex- traordinary levies of troops were made, sacrifices and public supplications offered to the gods, and the law which granted an immunity from military service to priests and old men, was, for a time, abo- lished. Against the Greeks, the expedition of the

it was very little more successful than against the Romans. The first of these we hear of was about A. A. C. 279, the year after Pyrrhus had invaded Italy. At this time, the Gauls, finding themselves greatly overstocked with inhabitants at home, sent out 3 great colonies to conquer new countries. One of these armies was commanded by Brennus another by Cerethrius, and the 3d by Belgius. The first entered Panonia or Hungary; the second Thrace; and the 3d marched into Illyricum and Macedonia. Here Belgius at first met with great success; and enriched himself by plunder to such a degree, that Brennus, envying him, resolved to enter the same countries, in order to share the spoil. In a short time, however, Belgius met with such a total defeat, that his army was almost entirely destroyed; upon which Brennus hastened to the same place. His army at first consisted of 150,000 foot and 15,000 horse; but two of his principal officers revolted, and carried off 20,000 men, with whom they marched into Thrace; where, having joined Cerethrius, they stood on Byzantium and the western coast of Propontis, making the adjacent parts tributary to them.—To retrieve this loss, Brennus sent for fresh supplies from Gaul; and having increased his army to 150,000 foot, and upwards of 60,000 horse, he entered Macedonia, defeated the general who opposed him, and ravaged the whole country. He next marched towards the straits of Thermopylae, to invade Greece; but was stopped by the forces sent to defend that pass against him. He passed the mountains, however, as Xerxes had formerly done; upon which the guards retired, to avoid being surrounded. Brennus then having ordered Acichorius, the next to him in command, to follow at a distance with part of his army, marched with the bulk of the forces to Delphi, in order to plunder the rich temple there. This enterprise proved very unfortunate: a great number of his men were destroyed by a dreadful storm of hail, thunder, and lightning; another part of his army was destroyed by an earthquake; and the remainder, imagining themselves attacked by the enemy, fought against each other the whole night, so that in the morning scarce one half of them remained. The Greek forces then poured in upon them from all parts; and that in such numbers, that though Acichorius came up in due time with his forces, Brennus found himself unable to make head against the Greeks, and was defeated with great slaughter. He himself was desperately wounded; and so disheartened by his misfortunes, that, having assembled all his chiefs, he advised them to kill all the wounded and disabled, and to make the best retreat they could; after which he put an end to his own life. On this occasion it is said, that 20,000 of these unhappy people were executed by their own countrymen. Acichorius then set out with the remainder for Gaul; but, being obliged to march through the country of their enemies, the calamities they met with by the way were so grievous, that not one of them reached their own country. A just

story say the Greek and Roman authors, for various intentions against Delphi. The Gauls often felt the effects of the Gauls' outrage, thought proper at last,

in order to humble them, to invade them. Their first successful attempt was about 118, under Quintus Marcius Rex. He way betwixt the Alps and the Pyrene laid the foundation for conquering that country. This was a work of immense itself and rendered still more difficult by the position of the Gauls, especially those Stani, who lived at the foot of the Alps people finding themselves overpowered by the Romans, set fire to their houses, killed the men and children, and then threw themselves flames. After this Marcius built Narbonne became the capital of a province.

(1.) GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS SUBJUGATION BY CÆSAR. Scarcely, the first Marcius, also conquered some Gaulish and to facilitate the sending troops from to that country, he made several excursions between them, which before were almost insupportable. These successes gave rise to the the Cimbri and Teutones. See CIMBRI TEUTONES, &c. From this time, Gaul ceased to be formidable to the Romans, seem to have been for some time on good terms with them. At last, however, the Helles led a war with the republic, which broke far over the Alps, and ended in the total ruin of the country. Orgetorix was the author of it; who had engaged a vast number of countrymen to burn their towns and villages to go in search of new conquests. Julius to whose lot the whole country of Gaul fell, made such haste to come and suppress that he got to the Rhone in 8 days; crossed the bridge of Geneva, and, in a few days finished the famed wall between that mount Jura, now St Claude, which extends miles in length, was 16 feet high, fortified with towers and castles at proper distances, and that ran the whole length of it. According to his own account, he did not set out till the 1st of April; and yet this huge work was finished the 13th of the month: so that, during the 8 days he was a-camping, it must all be done in about 5 days; a prodigious undertaking he had but one legion there though the whole country had given assistance. Whilst this was doing, and the Gauls he wanted were coming, he sent Helvetii, who had sent to demand a passage into the country of the Allobroges, till he had received reinforcements; and then flatly refused them; whereupon a dreadful battle ensued; they lost 130,000 men, in spite of all the besides a number of prisoners, among which was the wife and daughter of Orgetorix, the author of this unfortunate expedition. The rest fled and begged they might be permitted to settle among the Aedui, from whom they had lately sprung; and, at the request of the Aedui, they were permitted to go. The Gauls constantly in a state of variance with one another, and Cæsar, who knew how to make the most of these intestine broils, soon became the umpire of all their contentions. An Gaul who applied to him for help, were his

against whom Ariovistus, king of the Ger-
 joined with the Averni, who inhabited the
 of the Loire, had taken the country of the
 from them, and obliged them to send
 to him. Cæsar forthwith sent to demand
 titution of both, and, in an interview which
 n after obtained with that haughty and
 rous prince, had almost fallen a sacrifice to
 fity; upon which he bent his whole pow-
 st him, forced him out of his strong in-
 nents, and gave him a total overthrow. A-
 s escaped, with difficulty, over the Rhine;
 two wives, and a daughter, with a great
 of Germans of distinction, fell into the
 r's hand: Cæsar, after this signal victo-
 his army into winter quarters, whilst he
 ver the Alps to make the necessary prepa-
 for the next campaign. By this time all
 æ in general were so terrified at his suc-
 at they entered into a confederacy against
 nans as their common enemy. Of this,
 s, who had been left in Gaul, sent Cæsar
 upon which he immediately left Rome,
 le such dispatch, that he arrived upon their
 in about 15 days. On his arrival, the
 submitted to him; but the rest, appoint-
 ha king of the Sueffones, general of all
 rces, which amounted to 150,000 men,
 l directly against him. Cæsar, who had
 n the bridge of the Axona, (now AISNE,)
 ight horse and infantry over it; and whilst
 rs were encumbered in crossing that river,
 ch terrible slaughter of them, that the ri-
 filled with their dead, insomuch that their
 eaved for a bridge to those who escaped.
 victory struck such terror into the rest,
 y dispersed themselves; immediately after
 the Sueffones, Bellovaci, Ambiones, and
 hers, submitted to him. The Nervii, in-
 imed with the Atrebatæ and Veromandui
 them; and having first secured their wives
 dren, made a vigorous resistance for some
 ut were at length defeated, and the great-
 of them slain. The rest, with their wives
 men, surrendered, and were allowed to
 their own cities and towns as formerly.
 uatici were next subdued; and, for their
 y, were sold for slaves, to the number of
 Young Crassus, the son of the triumvir,
 also 7 other nations, and took possession of
 ies; which not only completed the con-
 the Belgæ, but brought several nations
 yond the Rhine to submit. The Veneti,
 nt inhabitants of Vannes in Brittany, who
 n likewise obliged to send hostages to the
 or, in the mean time, made great prepa-
 y sea and land to recover their liberty.
 then in Illyricum, equipped a fleet on the
 and having given the command of it to
 went and defeated them by land, as Bru-
 y sea; and having put their chief men to
 old the rest for slaves. The Unelli, with
 x their chief, together with the Lexovii
 ercii, were about the same time subdued
 us, and the Aquitani by Crassus, with
 of 30,000 men. There remained nothing
 countries of the Morini and Menapii to be

conquered of all Gaul. Cæsar marched against
 them, but found them so well intrenched in their
 inaccessible fortresses, that he contented himself
 with burning and ravaging their country; and ha-
 ving put his troops in winter quarters, he again
 passed over the Alps, to have a more watchful
 eye on some of his rivals there. He was, howe-
 ver, soon after obliged to defend his Gaulish con-
 quests against a body of Germans, who were at-
 tempting to settle there, to the number of 400,000.
 These he totally defeated, and then resolved to
 carry his conquering arms into Germany. See
 GERMANY.

(4.) GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS TOTAL CON-
 QUEST BY CÆSAR. Cæsar, upon his return into
 Gaul, found it labouring under a great famine,
 which had caused a kind of universal revolt. Cot-
 ta and Sabinus, who were left in the country of
 the Eburones, (now LIÈGE,) were betrayed into
 an ambush by Ambiorix, one of the Gaulish chiefs,
 and had most of their men cut off. The Adu-
 atici had fallen upon Q. Cicero, who was left
 there with one legion, and had reduced him to
 great straits: while Labienus, with his legion, was
 attacked by Indutiomarus, at the head of the
 Rhemi and Senones; but by one bold sally, he put
 them to flight, and killed their general. Cæsar
 acquired no small credit by quelling all these re-
 volts; but each victory cost so many of his troops,
 that he was forced to have recourse to Pompey
 for a fresh supply, who readily granted him two
 of his own legions to secure his Gaulish conquests.
 But the Gauls, ever restless under a foreign yoke,
 raised up a new revolt, and obliged him to return.
 His fear lest Pompey should gain the affections of
 the Roman people, had obliged him to strip the
 Gauls of their gold and silver, to bribe them over
 to his interest; and this was no small cause of
 those frequent revolts which happened during his
 absence. He quickly, however, reduced the Nervii,
 Aduatici, Menapii, and Treviri; the last of whom
 had raised the revolt under the command of Ambio-
 rix: but he found the flame spread much farther, e-
 ven to the greatest part of the Gauls, who had cho-
 sen Vercingetorix their generalissimo. Cæsar was
 forced to leave Insubria, whither he had retired to
 watch the motions of Pompey, and, in the midst
 of winter, to repass the Alps into the province of
 Narbonne. Here he gathered his scattered troops
 with all possible speed; and, in spite of the hard
 weather, besieged and took Noviodunum, (now
 NOYONS;) and defeated Vercingetorix, who was
 come to its relief. He next took the city of Avo-
 ricum, (now BOURGES,) one of the strongest in
 Gaul, and which had a garrison of 40,000 men:
 of whom he made such a dreadful slaughter, that
 hardly 800 escaped. Whilst he was besieging
 Gergovia, the capital of the Arverni, he was in-
 formed that the Nitobriges, (or *Agennis*;) were in
 arms; and that the Ædui were sending to Vercin-
 getorix 10,000 men, whom they were to have sent
 to reinforce Cæsar. Upon this news, he left Fabius
 to carry on the siege, and marched against the Ædui.
 These, upon his approach, submitted, in appear-
 ance, and were pardoned; but soon after that
 whole nation rose, and murdered all the Italian
 troops in their capital. Cæsar, on this, resolved

to raise the siege of Gergovia, and at once attack the enemy's camp, which he did with some success; but when he thought to have gone to Noviodunum, where his baggage, military chest, &c. were left, he heard that the Ædui had carried the chest, and burnt the place. Labienus, justly thinking that Cæsar would need his assistance in the condition he now was, went to join him, and in his way defeated a Gaulish general, named *Camulogenus*, who came to oppose his march: but this did not hinder the revolt from spreading all over Celtic Gaul, where Vercingetorix had sent for fresh supplies, and in the mean time, attacked Cæsar; but was defeated, and forced to retire to Alesia, a strong place, now called Alesia. Hither Cæsar followed, and besieged him; and, having drawn a double circumvallation, with a view to starve him out, as he was likely to have done, resisted all offers of a surrender from him. At length, the long expected reinforcement came, consisting of 16,000 men, under 4 generals, who made several fruitless attacks on Cæsar's trenches; but were defeated in 3 several battles, which at length obliged Vercingetorix to surrender at discretion. Cæsar treated all his prisoners with great severity, except the Ædui and Arverni, by whose means he hoped to gain their nations, which were the most potent of Celtic Gaul: nor was he disappointed; for both of them submitted to him, and the former renewed him to their capital, where he spent the winter, after putting his army into winter quarters. This campaign being one of the hardest he had ever made, so he gained more glory by it than any Roman general had done before: yet he could not procure from the ferule senate, now wholly devoted to his rival, a prolongation of his consulship; upon which he is reported to have laid his hand upon his sword, and said, that *that* should do it. He was as good as his word; and the Gauls, upon their former ill success, resolving to have as many separate armies as provinces, in order to embarrass him the more, Cæsar, and his generals Labienus and Fabius, were forced to fight them one after another; which they did, however, with such success, that, notwithstanding the hardness of the season, they subdued the Biturges, Carnuti, Rhemi, and Bellovaci, with their general Corbicus; by which he at once quieted all the Belgic provinces bordering on Celtic Gaul. The next who followed were the Treveri, the Eburones, and the Sudes, under their general Dunmarus. The last place which held out against him was Uxellodunum; which was defended by the two last acting generals of the Gauls, Drapes, the Senonian, and Luterius, the Cadurcean. The place being strong and well garrisoned, Cæsar was obliged to march thither from the farthest part of Belgic Gaul; and soon after reduced it, for want of water. Here again he cauled the right heads of all that were fit to bear arms to be cut off, to deter the rest from revolting afresh. Thus was the conquest of Gaul finished from the Alps and Pyrenees to the Rhine, all which vast tract was now reduced to a Roman province under the government of a prætor. During his several expeditions into Gaul, Cæsar is said to have

taken 800,000; to have subdued 30 nations; and to have left to the few that were left, three millions of men, of whom one million were killed, and a million taken prisoner;—of the conquest, see the time of the Roman conquest of Gaul, and the time of the Roman conquest of Gaul.

GALLIAN. See GALLIEN.

GALLI NITI, or GALLI NITIS, a part of India to the S. bordering on Gaul. It was divided into

1. GALLI NITIS INTERIOR, which lake of Gergovia, and

2. GALLI NITIS SUPERIOR, which to Arden.

GALLMIN, Gilbert, a French man in 1641. He wrote poems and epics were much admired in his own time, but little of his. He died in 1660.

GALLON, or GOLLAN, the capital of a county, a large city or town.

GALLON, the people of GALLON, a town in the county of Devon, in the N. of the city of Exeter, with a market on Monday; or a town in the county of Devon, now called miles W. of Exeter.

GALLON, a town in the county of Devon.

GALLS, the ancient inhabitants of Gaul, p. 1-4. The Gauls were divided into a great number of tribes, who were continually at war with one another, and at variance among themselves. They were, that not only all their cities, castles, towns, but almost all their families, were divided by factions; and this undoubtedly facilitated the conquest of the whole. The character of all these people was an excess of liberty, even to ferocity. Thus they such an extreme, that either on the appearance of a new army, or in aspect of action through wounds, or extreme diseases, they put their own lives, or prevailed upon their kinsmen. The Gauls, when they found so firmly believed that they could be conquered, stood of thinking how to obtain a more capitation, therefore they was to put their wives and children to death to kill one another, to avoid slavery. Their excessive love of liberty, tempt of death, according to Strabo, facilitated their conquest by Cæsar; and their numerous forces upon such an enemy as Cæsar, their want of conduct proved the ruin of the whole. Their nation was hunting; and indeed, covered forests with which their country and the multitude of wild beasts, who in them, they were under an absolute necessity to hunt and destroy them, to prevent them from being rendered totally unusable. Besides this, however, they had also the dromes, horse and chariot races, tilts, &c. at all of which the bards, at their poems, songs, and musical instruments. For an account of their religion, see DAVID. The Gauls were excessive

which they were very profuse; as, northern nations, they were great eaters and drinking. Their chief beer and wine. Their tables were heavy eat but little bread, which was hard, and easily broken in pieces: a great deal of flesh, boiled, roasted, and this they did in a very slovenly ling the piece in their hands, and with their teeth. What they could not eat, they cut with a little knife or dink, at their girdles. When the company was, the *Coryphæe*, or chief of the feast, or one of the richest, noblest, or bravest in the middle, with the master of the fide; the rest took their places next their rank, having their servants hold- ing behind them. These feasts seldom at bloodshed; but if the feast proved was generally accompanied not only with songs, but with dances, in which were armed cap-a-pee, and beat time with swords upon their shields. On certain days, dressed themselves in the skins of lions, that attire accompanied the proce- sion of their deities or heroes. Others dressed themselves in masquerade habits, some of which were decent, and played several antic and ridiculous tricks. This last custom continued until their conversion to Christianity.

GAUNT, a town of France, in the department of Cher, 8 miles N. of Montdoubleau. **GAURIA**, in botany, a genus of the order, belonging to the decandria class and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Bicornes*. The exterior calyx is five-lobed, the interior quinquefid; the corolla is tubular, the nectarium consists of ten tubulated capsules, each capsule is quinquelocular, covered with a thick exterior calyx formed in the shape of a

GAUSDORFF, a town of Austria, 9 m. S. of Gmünd, and 16 NNE. of Vienna.

GAUSE, a river in Durham, which runs into the sea, at Bishop's Auckland.

GAUNT. *adj.* [As if *gewant*, from *gepan*, Sax.] Thin; slender; lean; mea-

now that name befits my composition! I am, indeed, and *gaunt* in being old: my grief hath kept a tedious fast; I abstain from meat that is not *gaunt*? I have long time have I watch'd; I have bred leanness, leanness is all *gaunt*: I am sure that some fathers feed upon fast; I mean my childrens looks; I am fasting thou hast made me *gaunt*: I am for the grave, *gaunt* as a grave, my hollow womb inherits nought but bones.

Shak. Richard II.

GAUNT, *adj.* stiff, *gaunt* and grim, her slight pursu'd, her fasten'd fangs in blood embro'd.

Dryden's Fables.

GAUNT, in geography. See **GHAENT**.

GAULIED, *adj.* in the manege, a term for a horse whose belly shrinks up towards the back.

GAUNTLET. *n. f.* [*gantelet*, French.]

An iron glove used for defence, and thrown down in challenges. It is sometimes in poetry used for the *cestus*, or boxing glove.—

A scaly *gauntlet* now, with joints of steel,
Must glove this hand. *Shak. Henry IV.*

Feel but the difference, soft and rough;
This a *gauntlet*, that a muff. *Cleaveland.*

Some shall in swiftness for the goal contend,
And others try the twanging bow to bend;
The strong with iron *gauntlets* arm'd shall stand,
Oppos'd in combat, on the yellow sand. *Dryd.*

Who naked wrestled best, besmear'd with oil;
Or who with *gauntlets* gave or took the foil.

Dryden's Fables.

The funeral of some valiant knight
May give this thing its proper light:
View his two *gauntlets*; these declare
That both his hands were us'd to war. *Prior.*

So to repel the Vandals off the stage,
Our vet'ran bard resumes his tragick rage;
He throws the *gauntlet* Otway us'd to wield,
And calls for Englishmen to judge the field.

Southern.

(2.) **THE GAUNTLET**, [from *gant* or *gant*, Fr. a glove] in chivalry, was worn by cavaliers when armed at all points. The fingers were covered with small plates. The calque and gauntlets were always born in the ancient marches. They were introduced about the 12th or 13th century.

(3.) **GAUNTLET**. } See **GANTELOPE**.
GAUNTLOPE. }

* **GAUNTLY**. *adv.* [from *gaunt*,] Leanly; slenderly; meagerly.

(1.) * **GAVOT**. *n. f.* [*gavotte*, French.] A kind of dance.—The disposition in a fiddle to play tunes in preludes, sarabands, jigs and *gavots*, are real qualities in the instrument. *Mart. Scriblerus.*

(2.) **GAVOT**, } or **GAVOTTE**, is a kind of
GAVOTTA, } dance, the air of which has two
brisk and lively strains in common time, each of which is twice played over. The first has usually 4 or 8 bars; and the 2d contains 8, 12, or more. The first begins with a minim, or two crotchets, or notes of equal value, and the hand rising; and ends with the fall of the hand upon the dominant or mediant of the mode, but never upon the final, unless it be a rondeau: and the last begins with the rise of the hand, and ends with the fall upon the final of the mode.

(3.) **GAVOTTA**, **TEMPI DI**, is when only the time or movement of a *gavotte* is imitated, without any regard to the measure or number of bars or strains.—Little airs are often found in sonatas, which have this phrase to regulate their motions.

(1.) **GAUR**, a country of Asia, between Balk and Candahar.

(2.) **GAUR**, the capital of the above country, 152 miles NNW. of Candahar, and 150 E. of Herat.

(1.) **GAURA**, in botany, *Virginian Loose-strife*, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycanthemæ*. The calyx is quadrifid and tubular; the corolla pentapetalous, with the petals rising upwards. The nut is inferior, monospermous, and quadrangular.

(2.) **GAURA**, in geography, a town of Peru, in the prov. of Chançay, containing 200 houses and 2 churches. Its chief trade is in beef and salt.

(3.) **GAURA**,

(1.) GAURÁ, a river of Peru, in Chanay.

GAURABAD. See GABRES, N° 1.

GAVRAY, a town of France, in the dep of the Channel, 13 miles N. of Avranches, and 3 S. of Coutances.

GAVRES, } or GABRES. See GABRES, N° 1.

GAURS, }
GAUSE. See GAUZE.

The GAUTS or INDIAN APPENINES, a stupendous wall of mountains, extending from Cape Comorin, the S. extremity of the peninsula of Indostan, to the Tapti, or Surat river, at unequal distances from the coast; held on more than 60 miles, commonly about 40, and in one part it approaches within 6 miles. They rise abruptly from the country of Concan, supporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vast extent of fertile and populous plains, which are so elevated as to render the air cool and pleasant. The height is supposed to be from 3000 to 4000 feet. This celebrated ridge does not terminate in a point, when it approaches the Tapti; but, departing from its meridional course, it bends eastward, in a wavy line, parallel to the river; and is afterwards lost among the hills, in the neighbourhood of Burrhanpou. In its course along the Tapti, it forms several passes or descents, whence the name *Gauts*, (which means a *landing place*) towards that river. The alternate N.E. and S.W. winds, called *Monsoons*, occasion a rainy season only on one side, viz. on the windward side of these mountains. See BALAGATE, N° 2.

(1.) GAUZE, *n. f.* A kind of thin transparent silk.—Silken cloaths were used by the ladies; and it seems they were thin, like *gauze*. *Arab. on Coms.*

Brocades and damasks, and tabbies and *gauzes*, are lately brought over. *Savist.*

(2.) GAUZE, GAUSE, or GAWSE, in commerce, is woven sometimes of silk, and sometimes only of thread. To warp the silk for making gauze, they use a peculiar kind of mill, upon which the silk is wound: this mill is a wooden machine about 6 feet high, having an axis perpendicularly placed in the middle thereof, with 6 large wings, on which the silk is wound from off the bobbins by the axis turning round. When all the silk is on the mill, they use another instrument to wind it off again on two beams: this done, the silk is passed through as many little beads as there are threads of silk; and thus rolled on another beam to supply the loom. There are figured gauze; some with flowers of gold and silver, on a silk ground: these last are chiefly brought from China.

(3.) The GAUZE LOOM resembles the common loom, but has several appendages peculiar to it. See LOOM.

GAWILE. See GVALGUR.

* GAWK. *n. f.* [*geac* Saxon.] 1. A cuckoo.
2. A foolish fellow. In both senses it is retained in Scotland.

* GAWN. *n. f.* [corrupted for *gallon*.] A small tub, or lading vessel. A provincial word.

GAWNAGH, LOUGH, a lake of Ireland in Longford, 15 miles N.E. of Longford.

* GAWN TREE. *n. f.* [Scottish.] A wooden frame on which beer casks are set when turned.

GAWRAH, a river of Indostan.

GAY, John, a celebrated English poet,

descended from an ancient family. He was born at Exeter, and educated at Barnstaple, under Mr Ray, bred a mercer, but having a small consideration for the attendance on a shoemaker of his talents, he resolved on an inclination for the Muses. In 1711 secretary to the duchess of Monmouth he accompanied the earl of Clarendon. On Q. Anne's death, he returned to his land, where he lived in the highest friendship with many persons of distinction. He was particularly taken with Caroline, then princess of Wales, read in MS. his tragedy of the *Cop* 1726 dedicated his *Fables*, by permission of the duke of Cumberland. From this shown to him, and numberless profertment, it was supposed, that he would gently provided for in some office inclination and abilities. But in 1727, he was offered the place of gentleman to one of the youngest princesses. this as rather an indignity to a man he thought proper to refuse it; and warm remonstrances were made on by his sincere friends and patrons duchess of Queensberry, who withdrew in disgust. Mr Gay's dependence on the promise of the great, he had and humorously described in his *Hare with many friends*. The profits he lost in 1720, in the S. Sea scheme very extraordinary encouragement from the public loan made ample am private disappointments. For, in 1721 he appeared his *Beggar's Opera*; the which was not only unprecedentedly incredible. It had an uninterrupted don for 63 nights in the first season, renewed in the ensuing one with equal It spread into all the great towns of E acted in many places 30 and 40 1 Bath and Bristol 50; made its progress Scotland, and Ireland, in which last acted for 24 successive nights; and was performed at Minorca. Nor confined to the reading and representation the card table and drawing-room of the theatre and closet; the ladies its favourite songs engraven upon its screens and other pieces of furniture rated with them. It short, the faure was so striking, and so perfectly ad taste of all ranks that it overthrew the that *Dagon* of the nobility and gentry had so long idolized, and which Den other writers had in vain, by the so alone, endeavouring to drive from the public taste. The profits were so ver to the author and Mr Rich the mai gave rise to a popular pun, viz. *Tba* RICH gay, and GAY rich. In conteq success, Mr Gay was induced to wr to it, which he entitled *Polly*. But th listing between him and the court, t the report of his having wrote sedition occasioned a prohibition of it to be

certain, at the time when every thing shines for the rehearsal. A very common, however, accrued to him from the of it afterwards in 4to. He wrote several dramatic pieces, and many valuable. Among the latter, his *Trivia*, or *walking the streets of London*, though poetical attempt, recommended him to the friendship of Mr Pope: but as, in dramatic works, his *Beggar's Opera* ever stand as an unrivalled masterpiece, his poetical works, his *Fables* hold the of estimation. Mr Gay's disposition and affable, his temper generous, and his conversation agreeable. But he had one foible, a propensity to men of great literary abilities in excess of indolence, without any industry. So that, though his emoluments were, in the periods of his life, very considerable, he was ever greatly straitened in his circumstances; could he prevail on himself to follow the advice of his friend Dean Swift, who endeavoured to persuade him to purchase an annuity, for the exigencies of old age. Mr Gay, after having undergone many vicissitudes of fortune, and being for some time supported by the duke and duchess of York, died at their house in Burlington Street, Dec. 1732. He was interred in Westminster Abbey, and a monument erected to his memory at their expence; with an inscription of his merits, and an epitaph in verse.

Gay. *adj.* [*gay*, French.] 1. Airy; cheerful; frolick.—

How flow the waves, the zephyrs gently
Sail'd, and all the world was gay. *Pope.*

My rival wits did Voiture's fate deplore,
My gay mourn'd, who never mourn'd before.

Pope.

Howy.—

in that loves to go gay. *Bar. vi. 9.*

Gay. *n. s.* [from the adjective.] An ornament or embellishment.—Morose and untractable look upon precepts in emblem, as on *gays* and pictures, the fooleries of a d wiles tales. *L'Esrange.*

A town of Moravia, in Hardisch.

A, a town of Spain in Valencia, 30 miles from Valencia.

GAYETY. *n. s.* [*gayeté*, French; from *gay*.] 1. Cheerfulness; airiness; merriment. 2. Acts of pleasure.—

From those gayeties our youth requires
To life their minds, our age retires. *Denb.*

Howy.—

My eyes and our guilt are all besmirch'd,
My marching in the painful field.

Shak. Henry V.

GAZ, a peninsula of Massachusetts, on Martha's Vineyard, 3½ miles long and 1½ wide. It has evident marks of 4 or 5 old volcanoes of them called the *Devil's Den*, is covered with grass, and is 20 roads over at top, yet high at the sides. Lon. 70. 50. W. Lat. 42. N.

Gay. *adv.* 1. Merrily; cheerfully; airily;

2. Splendidly; pompously; with great show.

The ladies, *gayly* dress'd, the Mall adorn
With curlous dies, and paint the sunny morn;

Gay.

Like some fair flow'r, that early Spring supplies,
That *gayly* blooms, but ev'n in blooming dies,

Pope.

* **GAYNESS.** *n. s.* [from *gay*.] Gayety; merriment. Not much in use.

GAYOT DE PETAVAL, Francis, a French writer of the 18th century, born in 1673. He published an interesting work, entitled *Causes Celebres*, in 20 vols. 12mo. and died in 1743, aged 70.

(1.) **GAZA,** Theodore, a famous Greek in the 15th century, born in Thessalonica, in 1398. His country being invaded by the Turks, he retired into Italy; where he at first supported himself by transcribing ancient authors. His uncommon parts and learning soon recommended him to public notice. In 1450, he was invited to Rome by Pope Nicholas V; and on his death, in 1456, to Naples, by king Alphonso: who dying in 1458, he returned to Rome, where cardinal Bessarion procured him a benefice in Calabria. He was one of those to whom the revival of learning in Italy was principally owing. He translated from the Greek into Latin, Aristotle's *History of Animals*, Theophrastus on plants, and Hippocrates's *Aphorisms*; and put into Greek, Scipio's *Dream*, and Cicero's *Treatise on Old Age*. He wrote a *Grammar* and several other works in Greek and Latin; and died at Rome in 1478, aged 80.

(2.) **GAZA,** in ancient geography, a principal city and one of the five satrapies of the Philistines. It was situated about 100 stadia from the Mediterranean, on an artificial mount, and strongly walled round. It was destroyed by Alexander the Great, and afterwards by Antiochus. In the time of the Maccabees it was a strong and flourishing city; but was destroyed a 3d time by Alexander Jannæus. At present it contains only about 2000 inhabitants. The buildings are mean, both as to the form and matter. Some remains of its ancient grandeur appear in the handsome pillars of Parian marble which support some of the roofs; while others are disposed of here and there, in different parts of almost every beggarly cottage. On the top of the hill, at the N.E. corner of the town, are the ruins of large arches sunk low into the earth, and other foundations of a stately building, whence some of the bashaws have carried off marble pillars of an incredible size. Soap and cotton cloths are the chief manufactures. The latter employs 500 looms. Gaza is the residence of a Turkish bashaw. It was taken by the French under Gen. Kleber in Feb. 1799. It lies 50 miles S.W. of Jerusalem. Lon. 34. 45. E. Lat. 31. 28. N.

(3.) **GAZA, NEW,** a sea port of GAZA, N° 2.

* **GAZE.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Intent regard; look of eagerness or wonder; fixed look.—

Being lighten'd with her beauty's beam,
And thereby fill'd with happy influence,

And lifted up above the world's gaze,
To sing with angels her immortal praise. *Spens.*

Do but note a wild and wanton herd,

If any air of musick touch their ears,

You shall perceive them make a mutual stand,

Their

Then savage eyes turn'd to a modest gaze,
By the sweet power of musick. *Shak.*

Not a month
Wore your queen dy'd, she was more worth
such gazers

Thou what you look on now. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*

With secret gaze,
Or open admiration, him behold,
On whom the great Creator hath bestow'd
Worlds. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

—Pindar is a dark writer, wants connexion, as to our understanding, soars out of sight, and leaves his readers at a gaze. *Dryd.*—After having stood at gaze before this gate, he discovered an inscription. *Addison's Freeholder.* 2. The object gazed on.—

I must die
Betray'd, captiv'd, and both my eyes put out;
Made of my enemies the scorn and gaze;
To grind in brazen fetters, under task,
With my heav'n gifted strength. *Milton's Agon.*

(1.) * To GAZE [*gazeō*, or rather *geseon*, to see, Sax.] To look intently and earnestly; to look with eagerness.—

What seest thou there? King Henry's diadem,
Inchast'd with all the honours of the world:
If so, gaze on. *Shak. Henry IV.*

From thence she cast her modest eyes below;
At some her gazing glances riving flew. *Fairf.*
—Gaze not on a mud, that thou fall not by little things that are precious in her. *Ecclef. ix. 5.*

A lover's eyes will gaze an eagle blind. *Shak.*
High stations tumults, not not bliss create;
None think the great unhappy, but the great
Fools gaze and envy; Envy darts a sting,
Which makes a swain as wretched as a king.

Young.
(2.) * To GAZE. *v. a.* To view stedfastly —
Strait toward heav'n my wond'ring eyes I
turn'd,

And gaz'd a while the ample sky. *Milton.*
* GAZEFUL. *adj.* [*gaze* and *full*.] Looking intently.—

The brightness of her beauty clear,
The ravish'd hearts of gaze-ful men might rear
To admiration of that heavenly light.

Spenser on Beauty.
(1.) * GAZE-HOUND. *n. f.* [*gaze* and *bound*; *canis gazeus*, *Skinner.*] A hound that pursues not by the scent, but by the eye.—

See'st thou the gazebound! how with glance
severe
From the close herd he marks the destin'd deer!

Tuckel.
(2.) GAZE-HOUNDS, or GAST-HOUNDS, are much used in the north of England; they are fitter in an open champaign country than in bushy and woody places. If a well-taught gaze hound takes a wrong way, he will return upon a signal and begin the chase afresh. He is also excellent at spying out the fattest of a herd; and having separated it from the rest, will never give over the pursuit till he has worried it to death.

(1.) * GAZEL. *n. f.* An Arabian deer.

(2.) GAZEL, or } in zoology. See CAPRA, §
GAZELLA, } VII, N° 4; and § VIII.

* GAZER. *n. f.* [from *gaze*.] He that gazes;

one that looks intently with eagerness.

In her cheeks the verm' red did
Like roses in a bud of lilies shed;
The which ambrosial odours from
And gazers lend with double pleas

I'll Ray more gazers than the bat
Bright as the sun, her eyes the ga
And, like the sun, they shine on all
—His learned ideas give him a trans
light; and yet, at the same time, discov
ereth which the common gazer never
Witt's Logick.

(1.) * GAZETTE. *n. f.* [*gazetta* is halfpenny, the price of a news paper the first was published at Venice.] publick intelligence. It is accented di the first or last syllable.—

And sometimes when the loss is
And danger great, they challenge a
Print new additions to their seats,
And emendations in gazettes.

—An English gentleman, without geog
not well understand a gazette. *Locke.*
not hear a name mentioned in it th
bring to mind a piece of the gazette.

All, all but truth, falls dead bor
press;

Like the last gazette, or the last add

(2.) GAZETTE is with us confined
per of news published by authority.
English gazette was published at C
court being there, in a folio half she
1664. On the removal of the court
the title was changed to the London G
Oxford gazette was published on Ti
London on Saturdays: and these have
to be the days of publication ever sin

(1.) * GAZETTEER. *n. f.* From
A writer of news. 2. An officer appon
lish news by authority, whom *Secre* c
est minister of state.—

Satire is no more: I feel it die
No gazetteer more innocent than I.

(2.) GAZETTEER, in literature, is
nentially used as a title for Geographic
ries, giving a brief account of the va
tries, kingdoms, cities, towns, reput
the world, in alphabetical order.

* GAZINGSTOCK. *n. f.* [*gaze*
A person gazed at with scorn or ab
These things are offences to us, by m
zingstock to others, and objects of the
derision. *Ray.*

GAZNA, a city of Asia, once me
ted, and the capital of a very extens
but which is now either entirely ru
come of so little consideration, that it
ken notice of by geographers. This
ciently an emporium and fortrefs of Za
the confines of India. During the va
conquests of the Arabs, all this count
reduced under their subjection. On
of the power of the khalifs, however,
pre established by Mahomet and his su
divided into a number of independent

which were but of short duration. of the Hegira 384, answering to A. D. of Gazna, with some part of the ady, was governed by Mahmud Gazni; a great conqueror, and reduced un- tion a considerable part of India and

2. This empire continued in the fa- nud Gazni for upwards of 200 years. successors, however, possessed his a- therefore the extent of the empire, reasing, was very considerably dimi- after his death. The Seljuks took the greatest part of the Persian domi- ; and in the 547th year of the He- : of the Gazni sultans were entirely one of the Gauri, who conquered the reigning prince, and bestowed s on his own nephew, Gayathoddin

These new sultans proved greater than the former, and extended their rther than even Mahmud Gazni had did not however, long enjoy the so- Gazna; for in 1218, Jenghiz Khan ired the greatest part of China and rtary, began to turn his arms west- et out against Gazna at the head of

To oppose this formidable army, the reigning sultan, could muster men; and, in the first battle, 160,000 perished. After this defeat, Moham- ring to risk a 2d battle, distributed ong the strongest fortified towns in s; all of which Jenghiz Khan took ther. The rapid progress of his con- d, almost exceeds belief. In 1219 : had reduced Zarnuck, Nur Bokha- ganak, Uzkant, Alshath, Jund, Ton- l, and Samarcand. Mohammed, in e, fled first to Bokhara; but on the Jenghiz Khan's army, quitted that ed to Samarcand. Even here he did o trust himself, though it was garri- ,000 of his bravest troops; but fled rays into Ghilan in Persia, where he n a strong fortress, called *Eshbad*. o found out in this retreat, he fled to ie Caspian sea, called *Abiskun*; where days, leaving his empire, such as it on Jaloloddin. The new sultan was at bravery and experience in war; ould stop the progress of the Moguls. :221, they made themselves masters gdoms of Korazim and Khorasan, very where such massacres as were f before or since. In the mean time embled his forces with the utmost l defeated two detachments of the

This happened while Jenghiz was iyan; but answered little other pur- bring upon that city the terrible ca- dy related under BAMİYAN. Im- the destruction of that city, Jenghiz rds Gazna; which was very strongly where he expected to have found but he had left it 15 days before; 2 Khan's army was much reduced, ps have stood his ground, had it an accident. He had been lately

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joined by 3 Turkish commanders, each of whom had a body of 10,000 men under his command. After his victories over the Moguls, these officers demanded the greatest share of the spoils; which being refused, they left him. He endeavoured to make them hearken to reason; and sent letters to them, representing the inevitable ruin which must attend their separation, as Jenghiz Khan was ad- vancing against them with his whole army. At last they were persuaded to lay aside their animosi- ties, but it was now too late; for Jenghiz, being informed of what passed, detached 60,000 horse to prevent their joining the sultan's army; who, finding himself deprived of this powerful aid, re- tired towards the Indus. When he was ar- rived there, he stopped in a place where the stream was most rapid and the place confined, with a view both to prevent his own soldiers from flying, and to hinder the whole Mogul army from at- tacking him at once. Ever since his departure from Gazna he had been tormented with a colic; yet, at a time when he suffered most, hearing that the enemy's vanguard was arrived at a place in the neighbourhood called *Herder*, he quitted his litter, and, mounting a horse, marched with some of his chosen soldiers in the night; surprised the Moguls in their camp; and having cut them almost all to pieces, without the loss of a man on his side, returned with a considerable booty. Jeng- hiz Khan, finding by this that he had a vigilant e- nemy to deal with, proceeded with great circum- spection. When he came near the Indus, he drew out his army in battalia: to Jagatay and Oktay, his sons, he gave the command of the right and left wings; and put himself in the centre, with 6000 of his guards. On the other side, Ja- loloddin prepared for battle like one who had no resource but in victory. He first sent the boats on the Indus farther off; reserving only one to carry over his mother, wife, and children: but un- luckily the boat split when they were going to embark, so that they were forced to remain in the camp. He himself took the command of the main body. His left wing, drawn up under shelter of a mountain which hindered the whole right wing of the Moguls from engaging at once, was com- manded by his vizir: and his right by a lord na- med *Amin Malek*. This lord began the fight; and forced the enemy's left wing, notwithstanding the great disparity of numbers, to give ground. The right wing of the Moguls likewise wanting room to extend itself, the sultan made use of his left as a body of reserve, detaching thence some squadrons to the assistance of the troops who stood in need of them. He also took one part of them with him when he went at the head of his main body to charge that of Jenghiz Khan; which he did with so much resolution and vigour, that he not only put it in disorder, but penetrated into the place where Jenghiz Khan had originally taken his sta- tion: but that prince, having had a horse killed under him, was retired from thence, to give orders for all the troops to engage. This disadvantage had almost lost the Moguls the battle; for a report be- ing spread that the enemy had broken through the main body, the troops were so much discouraged that they would have fled, had not Jenghiz Khan encouraged them by riding from place to place to

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view

show himself. At last, however, Jaloloddin's men, who were in all 30 000, having fought a whole day, with ten times their number, were seized with a panic, and fled. One part of them retired to the rocks on the shore of the Indus, where the enemy's horse could not follow them; others threw themselves into the river and were drowned, though some had the good fortune to cross over in safety; while the rest, surrounded their prince, continued the fight through despair. The sultan, however, considering that he had scarce 700 men left, began to think of providing for his own safety: therefore, having bidden a final adieu to his mother, wife, and children, he mounted a fresh horse, and spurred him into the river, which he crossed in safety, and even stopped in the middle of it to wait for Khizr, who was now arrived at the bank. The sultan fell into the hands of five Moguls; who killed all the mules, and carried the women into captivity. Jaloloddin being lankest in India, got up into a tree to preserve himself from wild beasts. Next day, as he walked melancholy among the rocks, he perceived a troop of his soldiers, with some others, three of whom proved to be his particular friends. These, at the beginning of the defeat, had found a boat in which they had sailed all night, with much danger from the rocks, shelves, and rapid current of the river. Soon after, he saw a horse coming towards him; who informed him of 300 more that had escaped by swimming over the river; and these also soon after joined the rest. In the mean time an officer of his household, named *Jamalarrazad*, knowing that his master and many of his people were escaped, ventured to load a very large boat with arms, provisions, money, and stuff to clothe the soldiers, with which he crossed the river. For some time after, the sultan's affairs seemed to go on prosperously, and he gained some battles in India; but the Indian princes, envying his prosperity, conspired against him, and obliged him to repass the Indus. Here he again attempted to make head against the Moguls, but was at last defeated and killed by them, and a final end put to the once mighty empire of Gazna. The metropolis was reduced by Oktay, who no sooner entered the country in which it was situated, than he committed the most horrid cruelties. The city was well provided with all things necessary for sustaining a siege; had a strong garrison and a brave and resolute governor. The inhabitants, expecting no mercy from Jenghiz Khan, resolved to make a desperate defence. They made frequent sallies on the besiegers, several times overthrew their works, and broke above 1000 of their battering rams. But one night, after an obstinate fight, part of the city walls fell down, and a great number of Moguls having filled up the ditch, entered the city sword in hand. The governor perceiving all was lost, at the head of his bravest soldiers rushed into the thickest of his enemies, where he and his followers were all slain. However, Gazna was not entirely destroyed, nor were the people all killed; for after the massacre had continued 4 or 5 hours, Oktay stopt it, and taxed those who were left alive, to redeem themselves and the city. It does not, however, appear, that after this time Gazna ever made any

considerable figure.—It was taken by A. D. 1222.

GAZIN, a town of Asia, in the Candahar, 106 miles E. of Candahar.

GAZOLDO, a town of the Cilaly in the dep. of Mineo, and 10 miles N. of Mantua, 17 miles WNW. of Mantua.

GAZOLLO, a town of the Cisalpin in the department of Mantua, 13 m. N. of Mantua, seated on the Senio, a tributary of the Po.

* GAZON, *n. f.* [French.] 1. pieces of fresh earth covered with grass, in the form of a wedge, about a foot long and thick, to line parapets and the traverses. *Harv.*

GAZUL, a kind of Barilla. See Barilla. (1) IV, a town of Russia, in the gov. of Petersburg, on the E. coast of lake Ladoga, 90 miles SW. of Petersburg.

* GEAR, *n. f.* [Gyrion, to clothe; nature, Saxon.] 1. Furniture; accoutrement; habit; ornaments.—

Array thyself in thy most gorgeous

When he found her bound, stript of her

And vile tormentors ready saw in
He broke through.

When once her eye
Hath met the virtue of this magick
I shall appear some harmless village
Whom thirst keeps up about his c

—I fancy every body observes me as
street, and long to be in my old plain
Guardian—

To see some radiant nymph appear
In all her glittering birthday gear,
You think some goddess from the
Defended, ready cut and dry.

2. The traces by which horses or oxen
Apollo's spite Pallas discern'd,
Tydeus' son;

His scourge reacht, and his horse
then to kick her angry run

At king Eumelus, brake his gears.

The fraud he learn'd in his fan;

Made him uneasy in his lawful gear

3. Stuff. *Hammer*—If Fortune be
is a good wench for this gear. *Sb. M.*

4. [In Scotland.] Goods or riches; a
counsellor. 5. The furniture of a draught.

GEARON, or JARON, a town in
the province of Farsistan, famous for
miles SE. of Shiraz.

* GEASON, *n. f.* [A word which
in *Spenser*.] Wonderful.—

It to Leeches seemed strange and
Hu

* GEAT, *n. f.* [corrupted from *jet*
through which the metal runs into the
on's Mech. Exerc.

GEAUNE, a town of France, in
Larzac; 12 miles SE. of St Sever, 2
of Orthez.

GEBA, a town, territory, and river
The river falls into the St Domingo,
30. W. Lat. 12. 10. N.

BAU, a town of Bohemia, in the circle W. 6 miles S. of Benatzk.

BAU, New, a town and castle of Sillesburg; 9½ miles S.E. of Falkenburg.

BA, 11 m. Turkey in Asia, in the province of Aleppo; 20 miles S. of Jeddah.

BPR, or **GIANT**, a celebrated philosopher, and mathematician of Arabia, who has been the inventor of Algebra, he must have flourished before A. D.

1122, a king or chief of the Arabs, promiscuous with the above philosopher, wrote several treatises on chemistry, or rather, in Latin; printed from a copy in 1711, at Dantzick, in 1682, in 1610. In it is filled not only *res Arabum*, but *physicæ, mathematicæ, et Astronomicæ*; and in two of these treatises, *Inquisitionis Magisterii*, and *Tessalibus animalium*, &c. he is also filled, though it seems difficult to account for distant titles.

122, John, a physician and astronomer who flourished in the 9th century. He commented on Ptolemy's *Synaxis Mathematica* he attempted to correct his Astronomer; Ptolemy fills him the Calumniator of his works; and wrote several other works, and bore him a learned chemist. But his writings are much stuffed with the jargon of the time that Dr Johnson traces the derivation of *Gibberish* from them. See **GIBBERISH**.

SDORF, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Querfurt, one mile N. of Dahme.

LE, a town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia NNW. of Erfurt.

172, a town of Bohemia, in the circle W. 2 miles SW. of Leitmeritz.

8. See **GABARS**, N° 1.

1, in natural history, a name given by the ancients to their terrible poison, the smallest which kills when mixed with the blood. But it is a venomous froth or humour it of the mouths of their most poisonous animals; which they procure in this fatal way hanging up the creatures by the tails, and then they collect the venomous froth as it falls; and when they use it, they either poison a weapon with it, or any part of the flesh introduce the venom into it; which is said to cause immediate death.

2, *n. f.* [*geese*, a cackow; *geck*, Germ. and Scottish.] A bubble easily imposed upon.

3, Obsolete.—Why did you suffer your noble heart and brain with drossy, and to become the *geck* and other's villany? *Shak. Cymbeline*.

4, Have you suffer'd me to be imprison'd, to be the most notorious *geck* and gull in invention play'd on? *Twelfth Night*.

5, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cheat; to deceive.

6, See **LACERTA**.

7, William, goldsmith in Edinburgh, an ingenious unsuccessful artist, deserves to be remembered for his attempt to introduce an improvement of printing. The invention, first

practised by Ged, in 1735, was simply this. From any type of Greek or Roman, or any other character, he formed a plate for every page, or sheet of a book, from which he printed, instead of using a type for every letter, as is done in the common way. This was first practised, but on blocks of wood, by the Chinese and Japanese, and pursued in the first essays of Caster the English inventor of the present art. "This improvement," says James Ged the inventor's son, "is principally and essentially in a most important article, viz. expense, correctness, beauty and uniformity." But these improvements are counteracted. In July, 1739, William Ged entered into partnership with William Fenner, a London Stationer, who was to have half the profits, in consideration of his advancing all the money requisite. To supply this, Mr John James, then an architect at Greenwich (who built Sir Gregory Page's house, Bloomsbury church, &c.) was taken into the scheme, and afterwards his brother Mr Thomas James, a letter-founder, and James Ged the inventor's son. In 1730, these partners applied to the university of Cambridge for printing bibles and common prayer books by blocks instead of single types; and, in consequence, a lease was sealed to them, April 23d. 1731. In their attempt they sunk a large sum of money, and finished only two prayer books; so that it was relinquished and the lease given up in 1738. Ged imputed his disappointment to the villany of the pressmen, and the ill treatment of his partners (which he specifies at large), particularly Fenner, whom John James and he were advised to prosecute but declined it. He returned to Scotland in 1733, where he gave his friends a specimen of his performance, by an edition of Salust. But being still unsuccessful, and having failed in obtaining redress from Fenner, who died insolvent, he was preparing again to set out for London, to join with his son James as a printer there, when he died Oct. 19. 1749. Thus ended his life, and his project; which, ingenious as it seems, is not likely to be revived, if, as Mr Moles suggests, "it must, had it at first succeeded, have soon sunk under its own burden."

GEDALIA, a Jewish Rabbi, who wrote a Treatise on the Creation; and an account of a Series of Traditions from Adam to A. D. 761. He died in 1448.

GEDDES, James, born in 1710, of a respectable family in Scotland, was educated for the bar, and practised several years; but died of a consumption before he arrived at the age of 40. He published *An essay on the composition and manner of writing of the ancients*; and left behind him several other tracts.

GEDERN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, belonging to the Prince of Stolberg, 24 m. ENE. of Francfort on the Maine.

GEDIDA, a town of Arabia Deserta, 60 miles W. of Ana.

GEE. A term used by waggoners to their horses when they would have them go faster.

GEELE, **GHABLE** or **GHELE**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and adjacent prov. of Brabant, 10 miles NW. of Diet.

GEEMSKERSKOL Nos, a cape on the E.

east of Nova Zembla. Lon. 95° E. of Ferro. Lat. 77. 10. N.

GEENON. See **BEN-HINNOM** and **GEHENNA**.

GEONG, a town in the island of Borneo. Lon. 117. 10. E. Lat. 5. 10. N.

GEERVLIET, a town of the Batavian republic, in the isle of Putten, dep. of Amstel, and late prov. of Holland, 5 miles from the Briel.

GEESCH, a town of Abyssinia, on the Nile.

(1.) * **GESE.** The plural of *goose*.

(2.) **GESE.** See **ANAS**, N° 4, and **GOOSE**.

GEETE, a river of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and late prov. of Brabant. It runs into the Demer at Dalen.

GEEVACH, mountains of Ireland, between the counties of Leitrim and Roscommon, 9 miles NE. of Boyle.

GEEL. See **ETHIOPIA**, § 31.

(1.) **GELE,** a river of Sweden, in the prov. of Gestricia, which runs into the Gulf of Bothnia, 10 miles below the town, N° 2.

(2.) **GELE,** or **GIWLE,** an ancient and populous town of Sweden, in Gestricia, divided and surrounded by an arm of the Gulf of Bothnia, which forms it into two islands. The harbour is good, the chief exports are iron, pitch, tar, and planks. It is 60 miles N. of Upsal. Lon. 17. 1. E. Lat. 60. 50. N.

GEFREES, a town of Franconia, in the county of Bayreuth, 73 miles NNE. of Bayreuth.

GEGE, a river of Prussian Lithuania, which runs into the Wilde, 3 miles SE. of Plafchken.

GEGENBACH. See **GEGENBACH**.

GEGENDE, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

GEGENY, a town of Hungary.

GEGNO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Lario, and ci-devant county of Como, on the E. bank of Lake Como.

GEHENNA, } [*Fiume*, Gr. of *γεηννα*, Heb. the

GEHINNOM, } valley of Hinnom.] a scripture term which has given some trouble to the critics. It occurs in St Matthew, v. 22. 29. 30. x. 28. xviii. 9. xxiii. 33. Mark, ix. 43. 45. 47, Luke, xii. 5. James, iii. 6. The authors of the Louvain and Geneva versions retain the word *gehenna* as it stands in the Greek; the like does M. Simon: the English translators render it by *hell* and *hell-fire*, and so do the translators of Mons and Father Bours. In the valley of Hinnom, near Jerusalem, there was a place named **TOPHET**, where the idolatrous Jews sacrificed their children to Moloch, by fire. (See **BEN-HINNOM**, and **MOLUCH**.) K. Josias, to render this place for ever abominable, made a common sewer of it, where all the filth and carcases of the city were cast; and where a continual fire was kept up, to burn those carcases; for which reason, as the Jews had no proper term in their language to signify *hell*, they made use of *gehenna* or *gehinnom*, to denote a fire unextinguishable.

GEHMEN, a town of Germany in Westphalia, on the Aa, in the bishopric of Munster, 16 miles NE. of Wesel.

GEHOFEN, a town of Saxony, 3 miles S. of Arnim, in the county of Mansfeld.

GEHRDEN, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Calenberg, 6 miles WSW. of Hanover.

GEHREN, a town of Saxony, 10 1 Arnstadt.

GEIL, a river of Germany, which rolls, runs through Carinthia, and falls into the Drave near Willach.

GEILBERG, a mountain of Carinthia, in the dep. of the Roer, and duchy of Juliers, 8 miles NW. of Juliers.

GEILSDORF, a town of Saxony, in the county of Vogtland, 5 miles SSW. of Plauen.

GEISENFELD, a town of Upper Saxony, 10 miles SE. of Ingoldstadt, and 10 N. of Hofen.

GEISENHEIM, a town of German devant electorate of Mentz, now incl. in the French republic, and dept. of Rhine, 17 miles W. of Mentz.

GEISING, a town of Saxony, in the county of Meissen, one mile S. of Lauer.

GEISINGEN, a town of German Carinthia, in the principality of Furstenberg, 10 miles N. of Schaffhausen, and 19 NW. of Schaffhausen.

GEISLEDE, a river of Germany, in the county of the Lower Rhine, which runs into the Moselle, 12 miles W. of Ulm.

(1.) **GEISMAR,** a town of Hesse, 10 miles NNW. of Cassel, and 11 W. of Cassel.

(2.) **GEISMAR,** a village of Hesse, 10 miles NNW. of Cassel, and 11 W. of Cassel.

GEISPOLTZHEIM, or } a town in the d

GEISPOITZHEIM, } in the d Lower Rhine; 2 miles E. of Molsheim, 17 miles SSW. of Strasbourg.

GEISSELBORING, a town of Bavaria, 10 miles S. of Salzburg.

GEISSESN, a town of Bavaria, 10 miles S. of Salzburg.

GEISSING SEE, a lake of Carinthia, in the county of Fritzlach, 10 miles N. of Fritzlach.

GEISTAL, a river of Germany, in the county of Saxony, 10 miles N. of Leipzig, and 40 W. of Dresden.

GELA, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, so name **GELAS**. It was built by colonists from Athens and Crete, 45 years after the building of the city, in the 3d year of the 112d Olympiad, 690: and originally called *Lindus*, from the Lindus, a city of Rhodes, there first. This city, after having been destroyed by Phintias, tyrant of Syracuse; and the inhabitants were re-settled in a new city called *Phintias* after his name, called **TERRA NUOVA**.

* **GELABLE.** *adj.* [from *gelu*, Lat. may be congealed, or concreted into **GELANI**, **GELENSSES**, or **GELONI**, inhabitants of **GELA**.

GELAS, in ancient geography, a city, now called *Fiume di Terra Nuova*.

GELATINA, *jelly.* See **JELLY**.

* **GELATINE.** } *adj.* [*gelatus*,

* **GELATINOUS.** } ed into a gelatinous and cohesive.—That pellucid substance is an excrement cast off from the fish that inhabit the main. *Wood-worms* always see their eggs laid carefully on

the matter, in which they are reposit-

in the English old customs, a Saxon
lying money, or tribute. It also denot-
-entation for some crime committed:
gold, in their ancient laws, was used for
of a man slain; and *orsgeld*, of a beast.

ELD. *n. s.* preter. *gelded* or *gelt*; part.
or *gelt*. [*gelten*, German.] 1. To ca-
-prive of the power of generation.—

ull-calf and ram-lamb as soon as they
Tuffer.

r hath *gelded* the commonwealth, and
eunuch. *Shak. Henry VI.* 2. To de-
essential part.—

ears his course, and runs me up
advantage on the other side,
h' opposed continent as much
e other side it takes from you. *Shak.*
ive of any thing immodest, or liable to
-They were diligent enough to make
and to *geld* it so clearly in some pla-
cy took away the very manhood of it.

NHARIUS, Gerard Eobanus, an his-
NHAUR, historian and Protestant
n at Nimeguen in 1482. He studi-
learning at Deventer, and went through
of philosophy at Louvaine, where he
a very strict friendship with several
n, and particularly with Erasmus. He
ider and historian to Charles of Austria,
ards to Maximilian of Burgundy. At
embraced the Protestant religion; taught
Marpurg; and afterwards divinity till
in 1542. He wrote, 1. History of Hol-
History of the Low Countries; 3. His-
bishops of Utrecht; and other works.

DER. *n. s.* [from *geld*.] One who per-
act of castration.—

later with *gelders*, as many one do,
k of a dozen to geld away two. *Tuffer.*
w-gelder did blow his horn
a cat, but cry'd reform. *Hudib.*

IRLAND. See GUELDERLAND.

ELDER-ROSE. *n. s.* [I suppose brought
terland.] The leaves are like those of
tree: the flowers consist of one leaf, in
rose form. *Miller.*—The *gelder-rose* is in-
suckers and cuttings. *Mort.*

ELDER ROSE. See VIBURNUM, N° 2.

ELDER ROSE, VIRGINIAN. See SPIRÆA.

ELRS. See GULDRES.

ELDING. *n. s.* [from *geld*.] Any animal
particularly an horse.—Though natu-
be more males of horses, bulls or rams,
les; yet artificially, that is, by making
oxen and weathers, there are fewer.
The lord lieutenant may chuse out one
horses, and two of the best *geldings*;
shall be paid 100l. for the horse, and
e for the *geldings*. *Temple.*

ELDING signifies also the operation of
any animal, particularly horses. A colt
lded at 9 or 15 days old, if the testicles
e down; as the sooner he is gelt, the
ill be for his growth, shape, and courage;
orse may be gelt at any age, if proper

care is taken in performing the operation. The
manner of doing it is usually this: The beast be-
ing cast down on some soft place, the operator takes
the testicles between his foremost and his great
finger, and, flitting the scrotum, presses the stones
forth; then taking a pair of nippers made very
smooth, either of steel, box, or brasil wood, he
claps the chord to the testicle between them, a
very little above where the stones are set on, and
presses them so hard that the course of the blood
through the artery is interrupted; then with a thin,
drawing, cauterising iron, he sears away the tes-
ticle. This done, he takes a hard plaster, made of
rosin, wax, and turpentine, well dissolved toge-
ther, and melts it on the seared part, till he has
laid a good thickness of it upon the cauterized
edge. When this is done to one testicle, the nip-
pers are loosened, and the like is done to the other;
and the two incised edges of the scrotum are
brought close together, and kept in that situation
by pieces of sticking plaister. If the part inflames
violently, the horse should be bled, and a poultice
of rye meal, linseed meal, and water, should be
applied. A considerable improvement, however,
on this operation, would be, to perform it exact-
ly as in the human subject, either applying a strong
ligature round the chord of the testicle, or taking
up the blood vessels separately; for the method
commonly used is sometimes fatal to the horse, ow-
ing to the violent inflammation brought on by the
actual cautery. The manner of gelding a hog is
as follows:—The operator, after having made two
cross slits or incisions on the midst of the stones,
presses them out, and takes off the stone. But an-
other general method, yet somewhat more diffi-
cult, is, first, to cut on the side of one stone, and
after having drawn and cut it off, the operator
puts in his fingers at the same slit, and with a lan-
cet cuts the skin between the two stones, and by
that slit presses out the other stone; and thus there
is but one incision made in the cod. Boar pigs
ought to be gelded about six months old; yet
they are commonly gelded about 3 or 4 weeks old.

GELEE, Claude. See CLAUDE, N° 2.

GELENAU, a town of Upper Saxony, 5 miles
WNW. of Greiffenstein.

GELENHAUSEN, a small imperial town of
Germany, in Wetteravia, with a castle built by
the emperor Frederick I. Lon. 8. 13. E. Lat.
50. 20. N.

GELENIUS, Sigismund, a learned and excel-
lent man, born of a good family at Prague, about
1498. Erasmus, conceiving an esteem for him at
Basil, recommended him to John Frobenius as a
corrector for his printing-house; which laborious
charge he accepted, and had a great number of
Hebrew, Greek, and Latin books to correct: he
also translated many works himself from the Greek
into Latin; and published a dictionary in four
languages, Greek, Latin, German, and Sclavo-
nian. Profitable and honourable employments
were offered him in other places, but nothing
could tempt him to quit his peaceful situation at
Basil. He died in 1555. All his translations are
highly esteemed.

GELENSES. See GELANI.

GELHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle
of the Upper Rhine, lately in the principality of
Nassau

Nassau Weisburg, now annexed to the French republic, and included in the department of Mont Tonnerre, 13 miles W. of Worms, and 23 NW. of Mannheim.

* GELID. *adj.* [*gelidus*, Lat.] Extremely cold. From the deep ooze and *gelid* cavern rous'd, They flounce. *Thomson's Spring.*

* GELIDITY. *n. f.* [from *gelid*.] Extreme cold. *DiB.*

* GELIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *gelid*.] Extreme cold. *DiB.*

GELINOTTE, or GRAU. See TETRAD.

GELISE, a river of France, which runs into the Baïse, at Lavardac.

GELLERT, Christian Furchtegott, one of the finest geniuses Germany has produced, was born at Haynichen, in Misnia, in 1715, and studied at Leipzig; at which university he was for many years professor of philosophy and the belles lettres. He early distinguished himself by his talent for poetry; and contracted a strict friendship with the most learned and polite writers in Germany. All his works are filled with sentiment, and bear evidence of the sweetness of his disposition. The most considerable of them are his comedies, spiritual songs, moral poems, sacred odes, tables, and tales. He died in 1769, much lamented.

* GELLI, John Baptist, an eminent Italian writer, born at Florence, in 1498. He was bred a tailor, but had such an extraordinary genius, that he acquired several languages, and made an uncommon progress in the belles lettres; and though he continued always to work at his trade, became acquainted with all the wits and learned men at Florence, and his merit was universally known. He was chosen a member of the academy there, and the city made him a bourgeois. He acquired the highest reputation by his works, which are, 1. *I Capricci del Bottai*, 4to. containing ten dialogues, in the manner of Lucian. 2. *La Circe*, 8vo. This also contains ten dialogues, and treats of human nature. It has been translated into Latin, French, and English. 3. Dissertations in Italian on the poems of Dante and Petrarch. 4. The comedies of *La Spotta* and *La Errore*; and other works. He died in 1563.

GELLIBRAND, Henry, a laborious astronomer of the 17th century, born at London, in 1597. He became so enamoured with mathematical studies, that on the death of his father, he entered a student at Oxford, and devoted himself solely to them. On the death of Mr Gunter, he was recommended by Mr Briggs to the trustees of Gresham college, for the astronomical professorship there; to which he was elected in 1617. His friend Mr Briggs dying in 1630, before he had finished his *Trigonometria Britannica*, it was finished by Gellibrand at his request. He wrote several other works, chiefly tending to the improvement of navigation; and died in 1636.

GELLIUS, Aulus, a celebrated grammarian, who lived in the 2d century under Marcus Aurelius and some succeeding emperors. He wrote a collection of observations on authors, for the use of his children; and called it *Noctes Attice*, because composed in the nights of a winter he spent at Athens. The chief value of it is for preserving many facts and monuments of antiquity not to be

found elsewhere. Critics and grammarians bestowed much pains on this writer.

(1.) * GELLY. *n. f.* [*gelatus*, Latin] cold body; viscosity; glue; gluey (My best blood turn

To an infected gelly. *Shak. M*

The tapers of the gods,
The sun and moon become like wax
The shooting stars end all in purple
And chaos is at hand. *Dryd. and I.*

—The white of an egg will coagulate rate heat, and the hardest of animal solvable again into gelly. *Arbuth. on*

(2.) GELLY. See JELLY.

GELLY CAIRN, a mountain of Perthshire, 8 miles north of Crieff.

GELMA, or KALMAN, a town of Algiers, 40 miles N. of Constantina.

GELMUDEN, or } a town of the
GELMUYDEN, } public, in the
of Yssel, and late province of Over the Vecht, on the Zuyder Zee, 6 mi of Campen, and 3 SE. of Vollenhove.

GELNHAUSEN, a town of Germany circle of the Upper Rhine and count Munzenburg, on the Kintzig, 12 1 Hanau. Lon. 26. 48. E. of Ferro. L.

GELO, or } son of Dinomenes, who
GELON, } self absolute at Syracuse 484. He conquered the Carthaginians and made his usurpation popular by equity and moderation. He reigned; his death was universally lamented.

He was called the father of his people patron of liberty, and honoured as his brother Hiero succeeded him. See

GELSO, a village of Maritime Australia of Lesina, 18 miles from Civita has a harbour and fine marble quarries

(1.) * GELT. *n. f.* [from *geld*.] animal; gelding. Not used.—The they esteem the most profitable. *Mort*

(2.) * GELT. *n. f.* [corrupted for rhyme from *gilt*.] Tinsel; gilt (surfa I won her with a girdle of gelt, Embost with bugle about the belt.

(3.) * GELT. The participle past—Let the others he gelt for oxen. *Mt*

(4.) GELT, in geography, a river in Cumberland, which runs into the SE. of Brampton.

(1.) * GEM. *n. f.* [*gemma*, Lat.] a precious stone of whatever kind.—

Love his fancy drew;

And so to take the gem Urania sou;

I saw his bleeding rings

Their precious gems new lost, began

Led him, begg'd for him, sav'd him t

—It will seem a hard matter to shadow pointed diamond, that hath many give the lustre where it ought. *Peacha ing.*—

Stones of small worth may lie un-

But night itself does the rich gem be

—The bulk of all gems is, when p diaphanous, and either crystal or an matter; but we had the diaphaneity

, by means of a fine metallic matter.

The first bud. —

the joints of the protuberant stem
gemina is raised, call'd a *gem*;
in short space, itself the cluster shows.

Denham.

Embolden'd out they come,
the *gem*, and burst the narrow room.

Dryden.

, in botany, (§ 1. def. 2.) See *GEMMA*.
s, in natural history, are divided into
the pellucid and semipellucid.

, *PELLUCID*. The bodies composing
gems are bright, elegant, and beauti-
naturally and essentially compound,
in small detached masses, extremely
great lustre.

, *SEMIPELLUCID*. The bodies compo-
s, are stones naturally and essentially
not inflammable nor soluble in water,
tached masses, and composed of crys-
tal, debased by earth: however, they
htly debased, and are of great beauty
s, of a moderate degree of transpa-
are usually found in small masses.

s, *HARDNESS AND COLOURS OF*. The
of gems depends principally on obser-
hardness and colour. Their hardness
ly allowed to stand in the following
diamond the hardest of all; then the
hire, jacinth, emerald, amethyst, gar-
et, chalcedony, onyx, jasper, agate, por-
marble. This difference, however, is
r and constant, but frequently varies.
als may be allowed to succeed the onyx;
ole family of metallic glassy fluors seem
fter. In point of colour, the diamond
its transparency, the ruby for its pur-
pplure for its blue, the emerald for its
jacinth for its orange, the amethyst
its carnation, the onyx for its tawny,
agate, and porphyry, for their vermi-
, and variegated colours, and the gar-
transparent blood red. All these gems
nes found coloured and spotted, and
quite limpid and colourless. In this case,
d-cutter knows how to distinguish their
ecies by their different degrees of hard-
the mill. For the cutting or polishing
he fine powder of the fragments of
are next in degree of hardness is always
grind away the softer; but as none of
arder than the diamond, it can only
l by its own powder. Cronstedt ob-
ems in general, that the colours of the
merald are said to remain in the fire,
of the topaz flies off: hence it is usual
topaz, and thence substitute it for the

" Their colours (says our author) are
supposed to depend upon metallic va-
may they not more justly be supposed
on a phlogiston united with a metallic
ber earth? because we find that metal-
which are perfectly well calcined give
o any glass; and that the manganese,
r hand, gives more colour than can be
the small quantity of metal which is
shed from it." M. Magellan is of opi-

nion, that their colour is owing chiefly to the
mixture of iron which enters their composition.
The sentiment of Cronstedt, that phlogiston has a
share in their production, is exploded by the new
doctrines, which deny the existence of phlogiston.
See *CHEMISTRY, Index*.

(5.) *GEMS, IMITATION OF*. See *PASTES*.

(6.) *GEMS, TEXTURE AND COMPONENT PARTS*
OF. With regard to the texture of gems, M. Ma-
gellan observes, that all of them are foliated or
laminated, and of various degrees of hardness.
Whenever the edges of these laminæ are sensible
to the eye, they have a fibrous appearance, and
reflect various shades of colour, which change
successively according to their angular position
to the eye. These are called by the French *cha-
torantes*; and what is a blemish in their transpa-
rency, often enhances their value on account of
their scarcity. But when the substance of a gem
is composed of a broken texture, consisting of va-
rious sets of laminæ differently inclined to each
other, it emits at the same time various irradia-
tions of different colours, which succeed one an-
other according to their angle of position. Gems
of this kind are called *OPALS*, and are valued in
proportion to the brilliancy, beauty, and variety
of their colours. Their crystallization doubtless
depends on the same cause which produces that of
salts, earths, and metals; (See *CRYSTALLIZATION*)
but as to the particular configuration of each
species of gems, we can hardly depend upon
any individual form as a criterion to ascertain each
kind; and when we have attended with the ut-
most care to all that has been written on the sub-
ject, we are at last obliged to appeal to chemi-
cal analysis, because they very often assume va-
rious forms. The following table shows the com-
ponent parts of gems according to the analysis of
Bergman and M. Achard; B denoting Bergman's
analysis, and A that of Achard.

	<i>Argil.</i>	<i>Silic.</i>	<i>Calc.</i>	<i>Ir.</i>
Red oriental ruby, . . .	B 40	39	9	10
Ditto,	A 37.5	42.5	9	11
Blue oriental sapphire . .	B 58	35	5	2
Ditto,	A 58	33	6	3
Yellow topaz from Saxony, .	B 46	39	8	6
Green oriental emerald, .	B 60	24	8	6
Ditto,	A 60	23	10	7
Yellow-brown oriental hyacinth,	B 40	25	20	13
Ditto,	A 43	22	20	16
Tourmalin of Ceylon, . .	B 39	37	15	9
Ditto from Brasil, . . .	B 50	34	11	5
Ditto from Tyrol, . . .	B 42	40	12	6
Garnet from Bohemia, . .	A 30	48	11	10

The chrysoptase from Koseinitz in Silesia was
likewise analysed by M. Achard; who found that
it contained 456 grains of silicious earth, 13 of
calcareous, 6 of magnesia, 3 of copper, and 2 of
iron. " This (says M. Magellan) seems to be the
only gem that contains no argillaceous earth."

(1.) * To *GEM. v. a. [gemma, Lat.]* To adorn,
as with jewels or buds.

(2.) * To *GEM. v. n. [gemma, Lat.]* To put
forth the first buds.—

Last

soft rose in the stately trees, and spread
 its branches, hung with copious fruit; or
 in blossoms.

Milt. Par. Lys.

MAAGIDID, or DELGUMUTU, a town of
 Morocco, 45 miles SW. of Morocco.

(1.) GEMAPPE, } or JEMAPPES, a village of
 (1.) GEMAPPES, } the French republic, in the
 department so named, (N° 2.) formerly in the pro-
 vince of Austrian Hainault, rendered famous by
 a bloody battle fought near it, on the 5th Nov.
 1792, between the French under Dumourier, and
 the Austrians under Clairfait; wherein, after a
 most obstinate resistance, the latter who were
 strongly posted on the heights of Gemappes, were
 compelled to retreat to Mons. The loss on both
 sides must have been great, as there has seldom
 been a more obstinate contest. Perhaps Dumourier
 under-rated his own loss, when he stated it at on-
 ly 900 men, and that of the Austrians at 4000. The
 carnage was so great, that 3 coal pits near this
 village were filled up with dead bodies of men and
 horses. It is seated at the conflux of the Haine
 and the Trouille, 2½ miles SW. of Mons.

(2.) GEMAPPES, or JEMAPPES, a department
 of the French republic, comprehending the ci-
 devant province of Austrian Hainault. See HAI-
 NAULT, N° 1. Mons is the capital.

GEMARA, or GHEMARA, the 2d part of the
 TALMUD. The Hebrew word גמרא, *gemara*, is
 commonly supposed to denote a supplement; but
 in strictness it rather signifies complement, or per-
 fection: being formed of the Chaldee גמר, *gamar*
 or *gamar*, "to finish, perfect, or complete any
 thing." The rabbins called the Pentateuch simply
 the *law*: the first part of the Talmud, which is only
 an explication of that law, or an application there-
 of to particular cases, with the decisions of the
 ancient rabbins thereon, they call the *Mischna*, i.
 e. "second law;" and the 2d part, which is a
 more extensive explication of the same law, and a
 collection of decisions of the rabbins posterior to
 the *Mischna*, they call *Gemara*, q. d. "perfection,
 completion, finishing;" because they esteem it
 the finishing of the law, or an explication beyond
 which there is nothing farther to be desired. The
Gemara is usually called simply TALMUD, the
 common name of the whole work. In this sense,
 there are two *Gemaras* or Talmuds; that of Je-
 rusalem and that of Babylon: though in strictness
 the *Gemara* is only an explication of the *Mischna*,
 given by the Jewish doctors in their schools. See
 MISCHNA. A commentary. Mons. Tillemont ob-
 serves, "was wrote on the *Mischna*, by one Joha-
 nan, whom the Jews placed about the end of the
 2d century; but Fa. Morin proves, from the work
 itself, wherein mention is made of the Turks, that
 it was not wrote till the time of Heraclius, about
 A. D. 620; and this is what is called the *Gemara*,
 or *Talmud of Jerusalem*, which the Jews do not
 use or esteem much because of its obscurity. They
 set a much greater value on the *Gemara*, or Tal-
 mud of Babylon, begun by one Aba; discontinued
 for some time on occasion of the wars with the
 Sarracens; and finished by one Josa, about the
 7th century. See TALMUD. The *Gemara* and the two *Gemaras*,

yet it is properly that of Aba and Josa
 is meant under that name. This the
 above all their other writings, and eve
 level with scripture itself: in effect, th
 it as the word of God, derived by tra
 Moses, and preserved without inter
 their time. R. Jehuda, and alterwar
 nan, R. Aba, and R. Josa, fearing th
 should be lost in the dispersion of the
 lected them into the *Mischna* and
 See KARAITES and RABBINISTS.

GEMBICZ, or GEMBOCK, a town
 in the palatinate of Kalisz, 16 m. ESE

GEMBLING, a town NW. of Horn

GEMBLOURS, or GIBLOU, a town
 French republic, in the dept. of D
 devant prov. of Austrian Brabant, se
 Orne. In 1578, a battle was fought
 tween the Dutch and the Spaniards,
 John of Austria, wherein the former w
 It was twice burnt down, viz. on the
 1678, and 17th August 1712. It lies
 W. of Namur, and 22 SE. of Brussel
 51. E. Lat. 50. 37. N.

GEMEAUX, a town of France, in
 Cote d'Or, 2 miles SE. of Is sur Tille

GEMELIENSES. See ACCI.

* GEMELLIPAROUS. *adj.* [*gemini*
 Lat.] Bearing twins. *Dist.*

* To GEMINATE. *v. a.* [*geminare*,
 double. *Dist.*

* GEMINATION. *n. f.* [from *geminare*
 petition; reduplication.—Be not afraid
 that kill the body: fear him, which, as
 killed, hath power to cast into hell: y
 to you, with a *geminatio*, which the
 troverly shews not to have been cal
 him. *Boyle.*

GEMINGEN, a town of German
 latinate of the Rhine, 6 m. NW. of Hei
 30 E. of Philippsburg. Lon 9. 13. E. L

GEMINI, in astronomy, the TWI
 constellation or sign of the zodiac, the thi
 representing Castor and Pollux; and n
 II. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

GEMINIANI, Francis, a celebrat
 and composer, born at Lucca in 1680.
 ved his first instructions in music from
 Scarlatti; and after that became a pup
 Ambrose Lunati, surnamed *Il Gobbo*, a
 brated performer on the violin; afte
 became a disciple of Corelli. In 171
 to England; where he soon recommen
 greatly by his exquisite performance
 he published and dedicated to Baron K
 chamberlain to K. George I. as electo
 ver, 12 sonatas, *a violino violone e cembalo*
 six with fugues and double stops; the l
 of various measures, as allemandes, co
 jiggs. This publication was so well
 the baron, that he mentioned Gemin
 king as an excellent performer; in c
 of which he had the honour to perform
 majesty, in concert with the celebra
 But though Geminiani was exceeding
 yet he had no talent at associating mu
 etry, nor do we find that he ever beca
 performer. He was therefore obliged

istence on the friendship of his patrons, profits which accrued to him from teaching: was also an enthusiast in painting, and stility of his temper was such, that, to his passion, he neglected to exercise his talents, and involved himself in debts. In was offered the place of master and commander of the state music in Ireland; but this could not be conferred on a Catholic, and Geminiani would not change his religion. He then set himself to compose parts to the *opera quinta* of Corelli, to make concertos of the first six of his solos work he completed, and, with the help of his pupils, at the head of which were the the royal family, published in 1726. In 1727 he published his *opera seconda*, which contained celebrated minuet that goes by his name. He published many other pieces, the profits of which did not much mend his circumstances; but his wife was owing to his rambling disposition: was also an utter stranger to the business of an orchestra, and had no idea of the labours necessary in the instruction of singers. The consequence of this was, that his *certo spirituale*, which he had advertised for benefit in 1748, failed in the performance; the audience, however, compassionate, gave; the books were changed, and the performance was continued with compositions of his which he executed in such a manner as was got. The profits arising from this performance enabled him to take a journey to Paris; he staid long enough to get plates engraven of solos, and the parts of two operas. About 1755 he returned to England and advertised them for sale. In 1761, he returned to Ireland; and was kindly entertained by Mr Matthew Dubourg, who had been his friend, and was then master of the king's band in London, through life, had ever been disposed to do him friendly offices. Soon after Geminiani's arrival at Dublin, he was called upon to perform the last. Geminiani had spent many years in compiling an elaborate treatise on music, intended for publication; but soon after his arrival, by the treachery of a female servant, it was said, was recommended to him for her end, but that she might steal it, it was eyed away and could not be recovered. The loss of this, and his inability to re-attain his end; at least he survived it a short time, dying on the 17th of Sept. 1762. His writing list comprises the whole of his publications except 2 or 3 articles of small account. Solos for a violin, *opera prima*; six concertos for seven parts, *opera seconda*; six concertos for eight parts, *opera terza*; twelve solos for a violin, *opera quarta*; six solos for a violoncello, *opera quinta*; the same made into solos for a violin, *opera sexta*; 6 concertos for seven parts, *opera settima*; rules for playing in taste; on good taste; the art of playing the violin, *opera octava*; from his first solos, *opera undecima*; parts to ditto; lessons for the harp, *Guido Armonica*; supplement to ditto; for accompaniment, two books; his first list of concertos in score; and the end.

PART I.

chanted forest.—Of his solos the *opera prima* is esteemed the best. Of his concertos some are excellent, others of them scarce pass the bounds of mediocrity. The 6th of the third opera not only surpasses all the rest, but, in the opinion of the best judges of harmony, is the finest instrumental composition extant.

GEMINIANI, St., a town of Tuscany, on a mountain, in which is a mine of vitriol.

* GEMINOUS. *adj.* [*geminus*, Lat.] Double.—Christians have baptized their *geminous* births, and double consciousnesses, with several names, as conceiving in them a distinction of souls. *Brown.*

* GEMINY. *n. s.* [*geminus*, Latin.] Twins; a pair; a brace; a couple.—I have grated upon my good friends for three reprieves for you, and your couch fellow, Nim; or else you had looked through the grate, like a *geminus* of baboons. *Shakespeare.*—A *geminus* of asses split will make just four of you. *Congreve.*

GEMISTUS, George, surnamed *Philosophus*, a native of Constantinople, from which, upon its capture by the Turks, he retired to Florence. In 1438, he distinguished himself at the council of Florence, by his learning and abilities. He wrote, 1. "Commentaries upon the Magic Oracles of Zoroaster;" a work of profound erudition: 2. A Comparison between Plato and Aristotle: and 3. Historical Treatises; wherein he discovers great knowledge of Grecian history. He died aged above 100.

(I.) GEMMA, Reinier, an eminent Dutch physician, born in Friseland, in 1508. He was well versed in astronomy, and wrote several works on that and other branches of mathematics. He died in 1555, aged 47.

(II.) GEMMA, Cornelius, son of the preceding, was also famous for his knowledge of mathematics. He died in 1579, aged 44.

(III.) GEMMA, or BUD. in botany. See BOTANY, § 107—109. Buds, as well as bulbs, which are a species of buds, constitute that part of the herb called by Linnaeus *HYBERNACULUM*, or the winter quarters of the future vegetable: a very proper appellation, as it is during that severe season that the tender rudiments are protected. Plants, considered in analogy to animals, may be reckoned both viviparous and oviparous. Seeds are the vegetable eggs; buds, living fetuses, or infant plants, which renew the species as certainly as the seed. Buds are placed at the extremity of the young shoots, and along the branches, being fixed by a short footstalk upon a kind of brackets, the remainder of the leaves, in the wings or angles of which the buds in question were formed the preceding year. They are sometimes placed single; sometimes two by two, either opposite or alternate; sometimes collected in greater numbers in whirls or rings. With respect to their construction, buds are composed of several parts artificially arranged. Externally, we find a number of scales that are pretty hard, frequently armed with hairs, hollowed like a spoon, and placed over each other like tiles. These scales are fixed into the inner plates of the bark, of which they appear to be a prolongation. Their use is to defend the internal parts of the bud; which, being unfolded, will produce, some, flowers, leaves.

and stipule; others, footstalks and scales. All these parts, while they remain in the bud, are tender, delicate, folded over each other, and covered with a thick clammy juice, which is sometimes resinous and odiferous, as in the tarcham tree. This juice serves not only to defend the more tender parts of the embryo plant from cold, the assaults of insects, and other external injuries; but likewise from excessive perspiration, which, in its young and infant state, would be very destructive. It is conspicuous in the buds of horse-chestnut, poplar, and willow trees. In general, we may distinguish 3 kinds of buds; viz. 1. *Florifera*, that containing the flower; 2. *Folifera*, that containing the leaves; and 3. *Poliifero-florifera*.

1. *GEMMA FLORIFERA*, termed by the French *bouton fleur*, or *à fruit*, contains the rudiments of one or several flowers, folded over each other, and surrounded with scales. In several trees, this kind of bud is commonly found at the extremity of certain small branches, which are shorter, rougher, and less garnished with leaves, than the rest. The external scales of this species are harder than the internal; both are furnished with hairs, and in general more twisted than those of the 2d sort. This species too is commonly thicker, shorter, almost square, less uniform, and less pointed; being generally terminated obtusely. It is called by Pliny *oculus gemme*; and is employed in that species of grafting called *inoculation*, or *budding*.

2. *GEMMA FOLIFERA*, termed by the French *bouton à feuilles*, or *à bois*, contains the rudiments of several leaves, which are variously folded over each other, and outwardly surrounded by scales, from which the small stipule, seated at the foot of the young branches, are chiefly produced. These buds are commonly more pointed than the former sort. In the hazel nut, however, they are perfectly round; and in horse-chestnut, very thick.

3. *GEMMA FOLIFERA ET FLORIFERA*. } The
4. *GEMMA FOLIFERO-FLORIFERA*. } third
sort of bud is smaller than either of the preceding; and produces both flowers and leaves, though not always in the same manner. Sometimes the flowers and leaves are unfolded at the same time. This mode of the flower and leaf bud is termed by Linnæus *gemma folifera & florifera*. Sometimes the leaves proceed or emerge out of this kind of bud upon a small branch, which afterwards produces flowers. This mode of the flower and leaf bud is termed by Linnæus *gemma folifero-florifera*, and is the most common bud of any. Such buds as produce branches adorned only with leaves, are called *barren*; such as contain both leaves and flowers, *fertile*. From the bulk of the bud we may often with ease foretell whether it contains leaves only, or leaves and flowers together, as in cherry and pear trees. Neither the buds produced on or near the root, called by

others *swaines*; nor those produced on the 1 from the angles or wings of the leaves, 1 strict propriety, an entire delineation & since the roots are wanting; and in 1 shoots are contained with leaves on- 1 th flowers: but as a branch may 1 a part similar to the whole plant,

and, if planted, would in process of 1 exhibit or produce roots and flowers, 1 general allow, that the bud contain 1 plant, or the principles of the whole; 1 may be unfolded *ad libitum*; and the 1 the seed in containing a delineation of 1 plant in embryo: for although the b 1 radicle, or plumula, of which the seed 1 yet it would undoubtedly form one, 1 the earth. But as the medullary pa 1 to the bud is too tender, and by the a 1 juice flowing into it from the earth w 1 posed to putrefaction, the buds are 1 in the soil, but generally inserted with 1 of another tree; yet placed so that the 1 of the marrow or pith, adhering to 1 be inserted into the pith of the branch 1 fissure or cleft is made, by which mea 1 large communication of juice. This pr 1 gems or buds, called *inoculation*, 1 by practised with the first sort of bud 1 scribed. From the obvious uses of it 1 may collect the reason why the Author 1 granted this sort of protection to most 1 that are natives of cold climates; and 1 ther hand, denied it to such as, enjoy 1 benign atmosphere, have not the ten 1 their embryo shoots exposed to inju 1 predations from the severities of the w 1 this latter kind are the plants of the so 1 some of them very large trees; other sm 1 vegetables, of the shrub and under 1 Citron, orange, lemon, cassava, mi 1 blad apple, shrubby swallow-weed, alate 1 by geraniums, berry bearing alder, Cl 1 Syrian mallow, baobab or Ethiopian 1 justicia, mild fenna, the acacias and fer 1 coral tree, stinking bean trefoil, medi 1 der, viburnum, lumach, isy, tamar 1 Barbadoes cherry, lavatera, rus, shr 1 shade, Guinea henweed, cypress, li 1 and saine, a species of juniper. On a 1 whose root as well as stalk perishes a 1 true buds are never produced; in 1 however, are protruded small branch 1 the feather, from the wings of the le 1 wither without any farther expansion 1 climb and have no lateral branches; 1 by their own nature or from abund 1 the plants become branched, the ram 1 tioned obtain an increase similar to 1 whole plant. The same appearance o 1 trees of warm countries, such as those on 1 the above list, in which a plumula, or fi 1 sends forth branches without a scaly co 1 in such countries, this tender part req 1 fence or protection from cold. A se 1 then is peculiar to buds, as it protect 1 embryo inclosed from all external inju 1 we therefore speak of trees having b 1 naked or without scales, the meaning 1 have no buds at all. The buds that 1 folded the following year, break for 1 evolved buds of the present year, in 1 ner as to put on the appearance of se 1 ces in the wings or angles of the lea 1 eminences or knots grow but little 1 summer; as, in that season, the sap

increase of the parts of the plant: but in when the leaves begin to wither and fall off, placed on the wings, increase; and the plant contained in the bud is so expanded the leaves and flowers, the parts to be e the following year, are distinctly visible. horse-chestnut the leaves, and in cornel- flowers, are each to be observed in their e buds. As each bud contains the rudiment of a plant, and would, if separated from the vegetable, become quite similar to it; to shew the wonderful fertility of nature made a calculation, by which it appears, trunk scarce exceeding a span in breadth, buds (that is, herbs) may be produced. infinite number, then, of plants might grow from a very large tree!

GEMMARY. *adj.* [from *gem.*] Pertaining to jewels.—The principle and *gemmary* affords its tranfluency: as for irradiancy, which is in many gems, it is not discoverable in *gem's Vulgar Errors*.

GEMMATIO, } [from *gemma*, a bud;] a
GEMINATION, } term used by Linnæus, expressing the form of the buds, their origin, and extent. See *BOTANY, Index*.

GEMMEOUS. *adj.* [*gemmeus*, Lat.] 1. Tending to be gemmed.—Sometimes we find them in the gem itself. *Woodw.* 2. Resembling gems. **GENÈVE**, a mountain of the Helvetic republic, in the great chain, which separates the canton of Valais from the Valais. It is 10,110 feet high, 10 miles E. of Sion.

GENÈVE. See *GEMINGEN*.

GEMMOSITY. *n. f.* [from *gem.*] The quality of being a jewel. *Dist.*

GEMONIA, a district of Maritime Austria, in the province of Friuli, containing 1 town, 2 parishes, and 2000 inhabitants.

GEMONIA, an ancient and opulent borough in Maritime Austria, in Friuli, 12 miles NNW. of Udine. It was taken by the French in 1797.

GENIÆ SCALÆ, or } in Roman antiquity,
GENII GRADUS, } was much the same as the gibbet in Britain. Some say they are so denominated from the person who raised them; others, from the first criminal that suffered on them; and others, from the verb *gemo*, to groan. The *gemonii gradus*, according to Julius Victor and Sextus Rufus, was a scaffold on several steps, from whence they executed their criminals; others represent it as a place whereon offenders were executed, and afterwards exposed to public view. The *gemonie* were in the 10th region of the city, near the temple of Juno. Camillus first appropriated the scaffold to his use, A. U. C. 358.

GENÈSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Vendée, 5 miles W. of Pons, and 10½ S. of Nantes.

GENÈTE. *n. f.* A meeting; The court of justice. Obsolete.

GENÈND, the name of 6 towns of Germany: **GENÈND**, in Austria, 68 m. NW. of Vienna. **GENÈND**, **GEMUNDEN**, or **GEMUYD**, in Austria, situated on the Traun See, 24 m. WSW. of Vienna, and 108 WSW. of Vienna; famed for its baths.

3. **GEMUND**, in Carinthia, 10 miles NE. of Saxenburg, and 37 NW. of Clagenfurt.

4. **GEMUND**, or **GEMUNDEN**, in the circle of Franconia, and bishopric of Wurzburg, N. of the Maine; 27 miles W. of Schweinfurt, and 37 E. of Francfort. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

5. **GEMUND**, or **GEMUNDE**, in the ci-devant duchy of Juliers, now annexed to the French republic, and included in the department of the Roer. It is seated on the Roer, 24 miles SW. of Cologne, and 41 WNW. of Coblenz. Lon. 6. 48. E. Lat. 50. 38. N.

6. **GEMUND**, or **GMUND**, in Suabia, on the Reims, 24 miles E. of Stuttgart, and 30 N. by W. of Ulm. This town is imperial, and its magistrates are chosen by the people. Lon. 9. 48. E. Lat. 48. 48. N.

GEMUNDE. See *GEMUND*, N° 5.

(1.) **GEMUNDEN**, a town of Hesse Cassel, 16 miles SW. of Fritzlar, and 28 SW. of Cassel.

(2.) **GEMUNDEN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and late county of Leiningen; now included in the French republic and department of Mont Tonnerre.

(3, 4.) **GEMUNDEN.** See *GEMUND*, N° 2 & 4.

GEMUYD. See *GEMUND*, N° 2.

GENADEL, a mountain of Africa, in Nubia, over which the Nile runs, and forms a cataract; 45 miles N. of Jalac.

GENAP, or **GENÈVE**, a town of the French republic, in the department of the Dyle, and late province Austrian Brabant, on the Dyle, 5 miles E. of Nivelles, and 15 SE. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 40. E. Lat. 50. 40. N.

GENBERABA, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak, 100 miles E. of Amadan.

GENCAY, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, 12 miles NNE. of Civray, and 4 S. of Poitiers.

(1.) **GENDARMES**, or **GENÈS D'ARMES**, in the French armies, a denomination given to a select body of horse, on account of their succeeding the ancient gendarmes, who were thus called from their being completely clothed in armour. (See § 3.) These troops were commanded by captain-lieutenants, the king and the princes of the blood being their captains; the king's troop, besides a captain-lieutenant, had two sub-lieutenants, 3 ensigns, and 3 guidons.

(2.) **GENDARMES, GRAND**, were a troop composed of 250 gentlemen; the king himself was their captain, and one of the first peers their captain lieutenant, who has under him 2 lieutenants, 3 ensigns, 3 guidons, and other officers.

(3.) **GENDARMES, SCOTS**, were originally instituted by Charles VII. of France, about the middle of the 15th century, and formed a part of his guard; in which station also they acted under other princes. It was their prerogative to take precedence of all the companies of the gendarmerie of France; and, on particular occasions, they even preceded the two companies of the king's mousquetaires. The sons of the Scottish monarchs were the usual captains of this company; and, after Mary's accession to the throne, its command belonged to them as a right. Hence James VI. made a claim of it for his son prince Henry. This

... and its ...
 C ... I. and the ...
 w ... Lewis Stuart ...
 d ... marquis ...
 and 1 ...
 C ...
 ex ...
 th ... company; but it was conferred on his brother the duke of York, who was captain of the Scots gendarmes till 1667, when he resigned his commission into the hands of the French king. Since that time no native of Great Britain has enjoyed this command. See GUARDS, SCOTS.

(4.) GENDARMES, SMALL, were the Scots gendarmes, the queen's, the dauphin's, the gendarmes of Anjou, Burgundy, the English and Flemish gendarmes, having each a captain lieutenant, sub-lieutenant, ensign, guidon, and quarter-master. All these different gendarmeries are now abolished, in consequence of the revolution.

(1.) * GENDER. *n. f.* [*genus*, Latin; *genre*, French.] 1. A kind; a sort. Not in use.—Our bodies are our gardens, to the which our wills are gardeners; so that if we will supply it with one *gender* of herbs, or distract it with many, the power and corrigible authority of this lies in our will. *Othello*.

The other motive,

Why to a publick court I might not go,

Is the great love the general *gender* bare me.

Shak. Hamlet.

n. a. fex. 3. [In grammar.] A denomination given to nouns from their being joined with an adjective in this or that termination. *Clark*.—Cubitus, sometimes cubitum in the neutral *gender*, signifies the lower part of the arm on which we lean. *Arbutnot*.—Ulysses speaks of Nausicaa, yet immediately changes the words into the masculine *gender*. *Boome*.

(2.) GENDER, in grammar, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is a division of nouns, to distinguish the two sexes. This was the original intention of gender: but afterwards other words, which had no proper relation either to the one sex or the other, had genders assigned them, rather out of caprice than reason; which is at length established by custom. Hence genders vary according to the languages, or even according to the words introduced from one language into another. Thus, *arbor*, a tree, in Latin is feminine, but *arbre* in French is masculine; and *dens*, a tooth, in Latin is masculine, but *dent* in French is feminine, though the meaning is the same. The oriental languages frequently neglect the use of genders, and the Persian has none at all. The Latins, Greeks, &c. generally content themselves to express the different genders by different terminations; as *bonus equus*, a good horse; *bona equa*, a good mare, &c. But in English we frequently go further, and express the difference of sex by different words: as boar, sow; boy, girl; buck, doe; bull, cow; dog, bitch, &c.—We have also about 24 feminines, distinguished from the males, by the variation of the termination of the male into *ess*; of which number are abbot, abbess; count, countess; actor, actress; prince, princess, &c. which is all that our language knows of any thing like genders. The Greek and Latin, besides the masculine and feminine, have the neuter, common, and the doubtful gender; and like-

wife the epicene, or promiscuous, which single gender and termination include kinds.

(1.) * To GENDER. *v. a.* [*engendre*, French.] 1. To beget. 2. To produce; to cause. In such and unlearned questions avoid, for they do *gender* strife. *2 Tim. ii. 23.*

(2.) * To GENDER. *v. n.* To breed.—

A cistern for foul toads

To *gender* in.

—Thou shalt not let thy cattle *gender* verse kind. *Lev. xix. 19.*

GENDRAY, a town of France, in the department of Jura, 10 miles E. of Auxonne.

(1.) GENDRE, Gilbert Charles L. of St Aubin, counsellor in the parliament and master of requests. He wrote *several* but is chiefly distinguished by his *Travail*, 9 vols 12mo; a curious performance by historic examples, the empire of the works of art and science. He died 1746, aged 59.

(2.) GENDRE, Lewis L., an ecclesiastic born at Rouen, in 1659. He became Notre Dame at Paris, and abbot of D at Claire Fontaine. He wrote a great works; the principal are: 1. The M Customs of the French, in the different that monarchy. 2. An History of F vols folio, and in 7 12mo. 3. The Life D'Amboise. 4. An Essay on the reign of the Great. He died in 1733, aged 74.

GENEALOGICA ARBOR, or THE SANGUINITY, signifies a genealogy drawn out under the figure of a tree, with stock, branches, &c. The genealogy are usually represented in circles, round, and aside each other. This called *stemma*, a word signifying cross or the like. See CONSANGUINITY and the plate there referred to.

* GENEALOGICAL. *adj.* [from Pertaining to descents or families; p the history of the successions of house]

* GENEALOGIST. *n. f.* [*genealogiste*, French.] He who traces descent

(1.) * GENEALOGY. *n. f.* [*genealogia*, Greek.] History of the succession of families; or of descent in order of succession; 2. The ancients ranged chaos into seven and in that order successively rising on ther, as if it were a pedigree or *genealogical* Theory.

(2.) GENEALOGY comprehends a full count of the relations and alliances of family, both in the direct and collate divers military orders, it is required to deduce produce their genealogy, so they are noble by so many descents.

GENEHOA, a kingdom of Africa land.

GENEP, or GENNEF, a strong to many, in the circle of Westphalia, subject to the king of Prussia, but now the French republic, and department is seated on the Neers, near the Ma SW. of Cleves. Lon. 5. 48. E. Lat.

GENERABLE, *adj.* [from *genere*, Lat.] That be produced or begotten.

ENERAC, a town of France, in the department of Gard, 5 miles S. of Nîmes.

*) **GENERAL**, *adj.* [*general*, French; *generalis*, Latin.] 1. Comprehending many species or individuals; not special; not particular.—To condescend from particulars to *generals* is a false way of arguing. *Brown*. 2. Lax in signification; not confined to any special or particular import.—When the author speaks more strictly and particularly on any theme, it will explain the more general expressions. *Watts*. 3. Not restricted by narrow or distinctive limitations.—An idea is an idea in the mind, considered as separated from time and place, and so cannot represent any particular being that is con- siderable to it. *Locke*. 4. Relating to a whole class of men, or a whole kind of any being. *Whitgift*. 5. Publick; comprising the

How would we deign him burial of his men,
He disburied at St Colmeskill isle,
A thousand dollars to our *gen'ral* use. *Macb.*
For fail'd they to express how much they
prais'd,

For the *general* safety he despis'd
Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

It directed to any single object.—If the same
peculiarly evil, that *general* aversion will
into a particular hatred against it. *Spratt*.
No relation to all.—

The wall of Paradise upsprung,
To our *general* fire gave prospect large,
Neither empire neighb'ring round. *Milt.*
We, though not universal. 9. Common;

I've been bold,
That I knew it the most *general* way. *Timon*.
General is appended to several offices: as, *At-*
General, *Solicitor General*, *Vicar General*.

*) **GENERAL**, *n. s.* 1. The whole; the to-
tal; the main, without insisting on particulars.
That which makes an action fit to be command-
ed, forbidden, can be nothing else, in *general*,
a tendency to promote or hinder the attain-
ment of some end. *Norris*.—In particulars our
judgment begins, and so spreads itself by degrees
to *generals*. *Locke*.—I have considered Milton's
Paradise Lost in the fable, the characters, the sen-
timents, and the language; and have shewn that
all, in *general*, under each of these heads.

*)—An history painter paints man in *gene-*
ral; a portrait painter a particular man, and con-
sequently a defective model. *Reynolds*. 2. The
whole; the interest of the whole. Not in use.
Neither my place, nor aught I heard of business,
Thrall'd me from my bed; nor doth the *general*
hold on me; for my particular grief

It swallows other sorrows. *Othello*.
vulgar; not in use.—The play, I remem-
bered not the million; 'twas caviare to the
eye; but it was, as I received it, and others,
judgment in such matters cried in the top
of it, an excellent play. *Shak. Hamlet*. 4. [*Ge-*
neral.] One that has the command over an

army.—A *general* is one that hath power to com-
mand an army. *Locke*.—The *generals* on the ene-
my's side are inferior to several that once com-
manded the French armies. *Addison*.—

The war's whole art each private soldier knows,
And with a *gen'ral's* love of conquest glows.

Addison.

(3.) **GENERAL**, § 1. *def.* 10. See **ATTORNEY**,
SOLICITOR, &c.

(4.) **GENERAL** is also used for the chief of an
order of monks; or of all the houses and congrega-
tions established under the same rule; as, the
general of the Franciscans, Cistercians, &c.

(5.) **GENERAL** is also used for a particular
march, or beat of drum; being the first which
gives notice, commonly in the morning early, for
the infantry to be in readiness to march.

(6.) **GENERAL**, **ADJUTANT**, in the art of war,
one who attends the general, (See § 9.) assists in
councils, and carries the general's orders to the
army. He distributes the daily orders to the ma-
jors of brigade. He is likewise charged with the
general detail of the duty of the army. The ma-
jors of brigade send every morning to the adjutant-
general an exact return, by battalion and compa-
ny of the men of his brigade. In a day of battle
he sees the infantry drawn up; after which, he
places himself by the general, to receive any orders
which may regard the corps of which he has the
detail. In a siege, he orders the number of work-
men demanded, and signs the warrant for their
payment. He receives the guards of the trenches
at their rendezvous, and examines their condition;
he gives and signs all orders for parties. He has
an orderly serjeant from each brigade of infantry
in the line, to carry such orders as he may have
occasion to send from the general.

(7.) **GENERAL ASSEMBLY**. See **ASSEMBLY**, §
1. **PRESBYTERIAN**, and **SCOTLAND**.

(8.) **GENERAL CHARGE**, in law. See **CHARGE**,
§ 8.

(9.) **GENERAL IN CHIEF OF AN ARMY**, (§ 2,
def. 4.) in the art of war. See **WAR**.

(10.) **GENERAL**, **LIEUTENANT**. See **LIEUTE-**
NANT-GENERAL.

(11.) **GENERAL**, **MAJOR**. See **MAJOR-GENE-**
RAL.

(12.) **GENERAL OF ARTILLERY**. See **ORD-**
NANCE.

(13.) **GENERAL OF FOOT**, and } are officers

(14.) **GENERAL OF HORSE**, } next under
the general of the army, and have upon all occa-
sions an absolute authority over all the horse and
foot.

(15.) **GENERAL TERMS**, among logicians, those
which are made the signs of general ideas. See
LOGIC and **METAPHYSICS**.

(16.) **GENERAL WARRANT**. See **WARRANT**.

(1.) * **GENERALISSIMO**, *n. s.* [*generalissimo*,
French, from *general*.] The supreme comman-
der. It is often rather a title of honour than office.
—Commission of *generalissimo* was likewise given
to the prince. *Clarendon*.—Pompey had deserved
the name of great; and Alexander, of the
same cognomination, was *generalissimo* of Greece.
Brown.

(2.) **GENERALISSIMO** is called also *captain-ge-*
neral, and simply *general*. He commands all the
military

military powers of a nation; gives orders to all the other general officers; and receives no orders himself but from the king. *M. Balzac* observes, that cardinal Richelieu first coined this word, of his own absolute authority, upon his going to command the French army in Italy.

* **GENERALITY.** *n. f.* [*generalité*, French; from *general*.] 1. The state of being general; the quality of including species or particulars.—Because the curiosity of man's wit doth with peril wade farther in the search of things than were convenient, the same is thereby restrained unto such generalities as, every where offering themselves, are apparent to men of the weakest conceit. *Hooker*.—These certificates do only in the *generality* mention the parties contumacious and disobedient. *Ayliffe*. 2. The main body; the bulk; the common mass.—Necessity, not extending to the *generality*, but resting upon private heads. *Ruleigh's Eff.*—By his own principles he excludes from salvation the *generality* of his own church; that is, all that do not believe upon his grounds. *Tillotson*.—The *generality* of the English have such a favourable opinion of treason, nothing can cure them. *Addison*.—They publish their ill-natured discoveries with a secret pride, and applaud themselves for the singularity of their judgment, which has found a flaw in what the *generality* of mankind admires. *Addison*.—The wisest were distracted with doubts, while the *generality* wandered without any ruler. *Rogers*.

* **GENERALLY.** *adv.* [from *general*.] 1. In general; without specification or exact imitation.—I am not a woman to be touch'd with so many giddy fancies as he hath *generally* taxed their whole sex withal. *Shak*.—*Generally* we would not have those that read this work of *Sylva Sylvarum*, account it strange that we have set down particulars untried. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. Extensively, though not universally. 3. Commonly; frequently. 4. In the main; without minute detail; in the whole taken together.—*Generally* speaking, they live very quietly. *Guardian*.—*Generally* speaking, they have been gaining ever since, though with frequent interruptions. *Savisi*.—*Generally* speaking, persons designed for long life, though in their former years they were small eaters, yet find their appetites encrease with their age. *Blackmore*.

* **GENERALNESS.** *n. f.* [from *general*.] Wide extent; though short of universality; frequency; commonness.—They had, with a general consent, rather springing by the *generalness* of the cause than of any artificial practice, set themselves in arms. *Sidney*.

* **GENERALTY.** *n. f.* [from *general*.] The whole; the totality.—The municipal laws of this kingdom are of a vast extent, and include in their *generality* all those several laws which are allowed as the rule of justice and judicial proceedings.

* **GENERANT.** *n. f.* [*generant*, Latin.] The begetting, or productive power.—Some believe the soul made by God, some by angels, and some by the *generant*; whether it be immediately created or traduced hath been the great ball of contention. *Glanville*.—In such pretended generations the *generant* or active principle is supposed to be sun, which, being an inanimate body, can otherwise than by his heat. *Raj*.

(1.) * **TO GENERATE.** *v. a.* [*generare*, Latin.] 1. To beget; to propagate.—The which being wild *generate* seldom, *generate* often. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. To life; to procreate.—

God created the great whales, 1
Soul living, each that crept, which
The waters *generated* by their kind
Or find some other way to *gener*
Mankind. *Milton's l.*

3. To cause; to produce.—Sounds, where there is no air at all. *Bacon*. *generates* a quantity of good chyle, & *generat* milk. *Arbutn. on Alim.*

(2.) **TO GENERATE**, in music, is to signify the operation of that mechanical figure, which every sound has in prod more different sounds. Thus any, however simple, produces along w octave, and two other sounds extr viz. its twelfth above, that is to say, its fifth; and the other the 7th above ther words, the double octave of i Whether we suppose this procreation to result from an aptitude in the texture of certain particles in the air, ing to our ears vibrations that bear t tions one to another, as being de once by the partial and total oscilla musical string; or from whatever ecc ture we choose to trace it; the p found thus to produce another, t tion, is said to *generate*. The same phed, by Signior Tartini and his f any two sounds which, simultaneously, duce a third.

GENERATED, or **GENITED**, *part* by some mathematical writers, for produced, either in arithmetic, by t cation, division, or extraction of root ometry, by the invention of the con and fides; or of extreme and mean p without arithmetical addition and sub

GENERATING LINE, or **FIGURE** try, is that which, by its motion o produces any other figure, plane o **GENESIS**, § 3.

(1.) * **GENERATION.** *n. f.* [from *generation*, French.] 1. The act of producing.—Seals make excellent and so it may be thought of sounds *generation*: but then the dilation of out any new sealing, shews they ca pressions. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

He longer will delay, to hear the
His *generation*, and the rising birth
Of nature, from the unapparent de
—If we deduce the several races of ma
several parts of the world from *gen*
must imagine the first numbers of it
any place agree upon any civil cons
assemble as so many heads of families
represent. *Temple*. 2. A family; a r
Y're a dog.

—Thy mother's of my *genera*
she, if I be a dog? *Shak. Timon*.
offspring.—

of barbarous Scythian,
 it makes his generation messes,
 his appetite, shall to my bosom
 neighbour'd. *Shak. King Lear.*

incession; one gradation in the scale
 of descent.—This generation shall not
 these things be fulfilled. *Matt. xxiv.*

fourth generation they shall come
 1. *Gen.*—A marvellous number were
 he conquest of Palestine, which with
 ue they performed, and held that
 ne few generations. *Raleigh's Eff. 5.*
 y some of the ancients a generation
 t 100 years; by others at 120; by o-
 30, 25, and 20: but it is remarked,
 untinuanee of generations is so much
 ey come nearer to the more ancient
 et.—Every where throughout all gene-
 ges of the Christian world, no church
 ed the word of God to be against it.

ERATION is also used, though some-
 perly, for genealogy, or the series of
 ed from the same stock. Thus the
 t Matthew commences with the book
 ation of Jesus Christ, &c. The latter
 curate translators, instead of generation
 l genealogy.

ERATION, in mathematics, is used for
 on or production of any geometrical
 f equations, curves, solids, &c.

ERATION, in physiology. (§ 1. def. 1.)
 MY, *Index.*

ERATION, in theology. The Father
 me divines to have produced his Word
 n all eternity, by way of generation;
 ccasion the word generation raises a
 a: that procession, which is really
 he way of understanding, is called ge-
 cause in virtue thereof, the Word be-
 o him from whom he takes this origi-
 St Paul expresses it, is the figure or
 substance, *i. e.* of his being and nature.
 t is, they say, that the second Person
 ty is called the Son.

ERATION. (§ 1. def. 5.) See AGE.
 makes three generations in an hundred
 h computation appears from the lat-
 of political arithmetic to be pretty just.
 ERATION OF FISHES. See ICHTHYO-
 ZOOTOMY.

ERATION OF INSECTS. See ENTO-
 m. III; and ZOOTOMY.

ERATION OF PLANTS. See BOTANY.

GENERATIVE. *adj.* [*generatif*, French, from
 n.] 1. Having the power of propa-
 gave to all, that have life, a power
 thereby to continue their species and
ib's Hist.—In grains and kernels the
 is but the nutriment of that generative
 disproportionable unto it. *Brown.*
 ; having the power of production;
 there hath been such a gradual dimi-
 he generative faculty upon the earth,
 ere not the like decay in the produc-
 tables? *Bentley.*

GENERATOR. *n. f.* [from *genero*, Latin.]
 which begets, causes, or produces.—

Imagination assimilates the idea of the generator
 into the reality in the thing engendered. *Brown's*
Vulg. Err.

(2.) GENERATOR, in music, signifies the prin-
 cipal sound or sounds by which others are pro-
 duced. Thus the lowest C for the treble of the
 harpsichord, besides its octave, will strike an atten-
 tive ear with its twelfth above, or G in alt, and
 with its seventeenth above, or E in alt. The C,
 therefore, is called their generator, the G and E
 its products or harmonics. But in the approxi-
 mation of chords, for G, its octave below is sub-
 stituted, which constitutes a fifth from the gene-
 rator, or lowest C; and for E, is likewise sub-
 stituted its 15th below, which, with the above
 mentioned C, forms a third major. To the lowest
 notes, therefore, exchanged for these in alt by
 substitution, the denominations of products or
 harmonics are likewise given, whilst the C retains
 the name of their generator. But still according
 to the system of Tartini, two notes in concord,
 which when sounded produce a third, may be
 termed the concurring generators of that third.
 See *Generation Harmonique, par M. Rameau*; also
 that delineation of Tartini's system, called *The*
power and principles of harmony.

(1.) * GENERICAL, GENERICK. *adj.* [*gene-
 rique*, French; from *genus*, Latin.] That which
 comprehends the genus, or distinguishes from a-
 nother genus, but does not distinguish the species.
 —The word consumption being applicable to a
 proper and improper, to a true and bastard con-
 sumption, requires a generical description quadrate
 to both. *Harvey.*—Though wine differs from other
 liquids, in that it is the juice of a certain fruit;
 yet this is but a general or generick difference; for
 it does not distinguish wine from cyder or perry:
 the specifick difference of wine, therefore, is its
 pressure from the grape. *Watts's Logick.*

(2.) GENERICAL NAME, in natural history, the
 word used to signify all the species of natural bo-
 dies, which agree in certain essential and peculiar
 characters, and therefore comprehending all of
 the same GENUS family or kind; so that the word
 used as the generical name equally expresses every
 one of the genus, and other words expressive of
 the peculiar qualities or figures of each species are
 added, in order to denote them distinctly, and
 make up what is called the specific name. See
 BOTANY and ZOOLOGY.

* GENERICALLY. *adv.* [from *generick*.]
 With regard to the genus, though not the species.
 —These have all the essential characters of sea-
 shells, and shew that they are of the very same
 specifick gravity with those to which they are so
 generically allied. *Woodward.*

* GENEROSITY. *n. f.* *generosité*, French; *ge-
 nerofitas*, Latin.] The quality of being generous;
 magnanimity; liberality.—Can he be better prin-
 cipated in the grounds of true virtue and generosity
 than his young tutor is? *Locke on Educ.*—It would
 not have been your generosity, to have passed by
 such a fault as this. *Locke.*

* GENEROUS. *adj.* [*generosus*, Latin; *gene-
 reux*, French.] 1. Not of mean birth; of good
 extraction. 2. Noble of mind; magnanimous;
 open of heart.—

f a vigorous kind,
es of the mind. *Dryden.*
nefs to defend
t friend. *Swift.*
k fann'd the poet's fire,
and with reason to admire.

Pope.
 common, not more learn'd than

ous as his noble blood. *Pope.*
who wit and gold refines,
he ripens mines. *Pope.*
Theano, heav'nly fair,
anger with a mother's care.

Pope.
ch forms, with such length,
finest, as you use for your-
all little ill-natured passions
ow great and generous, de-

bers, *ad*
delight in
is used of animals. *Sprightly;*

the imperial eagle does not stay
Till the whole carcase he devour,
As if his *gen'rous* hunger understood
That he can never want plenty of food,
He only sucks the tasteful blood. *Cowley.*
Astizon spies

Hisop'ning hounds, and now he hears their cries:
A gen'rous pack. *Addison.*

4. Liberal; munificent.—

When from his vest the young companion
bore
The cup the *gen'rous* landlord own'd before,
And paid profusely with the precious bowl,
The stinted kindness of this churlish soul. *Par.*
Faith by the margin of her native flood,
Whose wealthy waters are well known to fame,
Fair as the bordering flowers the princely
flood,
And rich in bounty as the *gen'rous* stream.

Heigh on Pharaoh's Daughter.

5. Strong; vigorous.—Having in a digestive fur-
 nace drawn off the ardent spirit from some good
 sack, the phlegm, even in this *generous* wine, was
 copious. *Boyle.*

Those who in southern climes complain,
From Phœbus' rays they suffer pain,
Must own that pain is well repaid,
By *gen'rous* wines beneath a shade. *Swift.*

* *GENEROUSLY.* *adv.* [from *generous.*] 1.
 Not meanly with regard to birth. 2. Magnani-
 mously; nobly.—

When all the gods our ruin have foretold,
Yet *gen'rously* he does his arms withhold.

Dryd. Ind. Bmp.

3. Liberally; munificently.

* *GENEROUSNESS.* *n. f.* [from *generous.*]
 The quality of being generous.—Is it possible to
 conceive that the overflowing *generousness* of the
 divine Nature would create immortal beings with
 mean or envious principles? *Collier on Kindness.*

* *GENESAN,* a town in Asia Minor, in the
 Arabian Irak, 90 miles *East.*

(1.) * *GENESIS.* *n. f.* [from *genesis,* French]
 creation; the first *book,* which treats
 of production of i.

(2.) *GENESIS,* the first book of the *Old*
 Testament, contains the history of the creation
 the lives of the first patriarchs. This book
 is at the head of the Pentateuch. Its author
 is supposed to be Moses: it contains the relation
 of events, viz. from the beginning of the
 world to the death of Joseph.—The Hebrews call
 it *sebitb,* because it begins with that word
 in their language signifies "in the beginning."
 The Greeks gave it the name *genesis,* g. d
 tion or generation, because it begins with
 the story of the production or generation of
 the world. This book, besides the history of the
 world, contains an account of the original inno-
 cence of man; the propagation of mankind;
 the fall of man; the general defection and
 corruption of the world; the deluge; the restora-
 tion of the world; the division and propelling of
 the world; the history of the first patriarchs to
 Joseph. It was easy for Moses to be
 acquainted with the truth of what he relates in this
 book, because it came down to him through
 tradition from Adam to Noah there was one
 Methuselah, who lived so long as to
 be both: in like manner Shem converted
 Abraham; Isaac with Abraham and
 Jacob from whom the facts recorded in this
 book may be conveyed to Moses by Amos
 was contemporary with Joseph.

(3.) *GENESIUS,* in geometry, denotes
 the formation of a line, plane, or solid, by the
 motion or flux of a point, line, or surface. *See*
GENESIS. The genesis or formation, of the
 globe or sphere, is conceived by sup-
 posing a semicircle to revolve upon a right line
 from one extreme thereof to the other,
 as an axis, or axis of circumvolution: the
 revolution of that semicircle is the genesis
 of the sphere, &c. In the genesis of figures,
 a line or surface that moves is called the *axis*
 and the line round which, or, according
 to the revolution or motion is made, the *axis*

GENESIUS, Joseph, a Greek historian
 flourished about A. D. 940. He wrote
 the history of Constantinople from Leo to Basilus
 and Latin. It was printed at Venice in

(1.) *GENESSEE,* a large tract of land
 in New York, bounded on the NW. and N. by
 Ontario; E. by Onondago county; S. by
 Seneca; and W. by lake Erie and the Niagara

(2.) *GENESSEE,* a river of New York
 runs into lake Ontario; in Lon. 77. 40.
 44. 10. N.

(3.) *GENESSEE,* a township of New
 York county. It had 217 electors in
 1800. *GENESI,* Charles Claude, a French
 philosopher at Paris in 1636. He wrote a didactic
 the proofs on the existence of God, and
 mortality of the soul; and several tracts
 died in 1720 aged 84.

(1.) * *GENET.* *n. f.* [French. The
 originally signified a horseman, and per-
 haps a gentleman or knight.] A small-sized
 well-bred Spanish horse.—You'll have your
 neighbor to you; you'll have couriers for
 and *genets* for germanes. *Shak. Othello.*
 more likely that frogs should be engendered

, than Spanish *genets* be forgotten by *Ray*.

ows his statue too, where plac'd on high,
underneath him seems to fly. *Juv.*
NET, GENNET, or JENNET, in the
To ride *a-la-genette*, is to ride after the
ion, so short that the spurs bear upon
flank.

EIL, a town of France, in the dep. of
Loire, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. of Baugé.

HLIA, in antiquity, a solemnity kept
of some person deceased.

ETHLIACAL. *adj.* [*γενεθλιακός*.] Per-
taining to nativities as calculated by astronomers;
configurations of the stars at any birth.
t immediately before he was slighting
those foolish astrologers, and *genethliaci-*
rists, that use to pry into the horoscope
Howel.

ETHLIACI, in astrology, [from *γενεθλια*,
creation, or nativity,] persons who e-
rpes, and pretend to foretel what shall
by means of the stars which presided
ity. The ancients called them CHAL-
LATHEMATICI. Hence the several ci-
on laws, made against mathematicians,
t the *genethliaci* or astrologers. They
ed Rome by a formal decree of the se-
yet found so much protection from the
the people, that they remained there-
ed. Hence an ancient author speaks
boninum genus, quod in civitate nostra
etabitur & retinebitur.

ETHLIACKS. *n. s.* [from *γενεθλια*.]
: of calculating nativities, or predict-
re events of life from the stars predom-
he birth.

ETHLIATICK. *n. s.* [*γενεθλια*.] He who
nativities.—The truth of astrological
is not to be referred to the constella-
genethliaticks conjecture by the disposi-
er, and complexion of the person.

TE, in zoology. See VIVERRA.

ENEVA, a ci-devant republic of En-
e confines of France, Savoy, and Swit-
ng in alliance with the Swiss cantons,
l to France in 1798, in a manner not
rable to the then French government;
sly against the declared opinion and
of a majority of the citizens. It now
epartment of LAC LEMAN. It com-
extent of about 7 square leagues, and
into 9 parishes before its annexation
th republic. The country is extreme-
, and has many magnificent views, a-
the different positions of the numerous
ountains with regard to the town and
inhabitants were formerly divided in-
viz. citizens, burgeses, inhabitants,
; and on the revolution in 1782, a 5th
domicilii, were added, who annually
mission from the magistrates to reside

The citizens and burgeses alone,
re admitted to a share in the govern-
called *inhabitants* were strangers al-
le in the town with certain privile-
PART. I.

ges; and the *natives* were the sons of these inha-
bitants, who possess additional advantages.

(2.) GENEVA, a city of Switzerland, on the
confines of old France and the ci devant duchy of
Savoy, now annexed to the French republic, and
capital of the department of Lac Lemman. It is
seated on the banks of the Rhone, just at its efflux
from the lake of Geneva; and part of it is built
on an island in the river. It is handsome, well
fortified, and pretty large; the streets in general
are clean and well paved, but the principal one is
encumbered with a row of shops on each side be-
tween the carriage and foot paths. The latter is
very wide, and protected from the weather by
great wooden pent-houses projecting from the
roofs; which, though very convenient, give the
street a dark and dull appearance. The houses
are generally constructed of free stone, with base-
ments of limestone; the gutters, spouts, ridges,
and outward ornaments, being made of tinned i-
ron. Some of them have arched walks or piazzas
in front. The place called *Treille* is very agreea-
ble, being planted with Linden trees, and com-
manding a fine prospect of the lake, with several
ranges of rocks rising behind one another, some
covered with vineyards and herbage, and others
with snow, having openings between them. Im-
mediately below Geneva the Rhone is joined by
the Arve, a cold and muddy stream, rising among
the Alps, and deriving a considerable part of its
waters from the Glaciers. The Rhone is quite
clear, and transparent, so that the muddy water
of the Arve is distinguishable from it even after
they have flowed for several miles together. There
are 4 bridges over the Rhone before it joins the
Arve; and from it the city is supplied with water
by an hydraulic machine which raises it 100 Paris
feet above the level. This city lies 40 miles NE.
of Chambéry, 60 NW. of Lyons, and 135 of
Turin. Lon. 5. 55. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

(3.) GENEVA, ACADEMY AND LEARNED MEN
OF. This city is remarkable for the number of
larned men it has produced. The reformed doc-
trines of religion were very early received in it,
being preached there in 1533 by William Farel and
Peter Viret of Orbe, and afterwards finally estab-
lished by the celebrated John Calvin. Of this
reformer Voltaire observes, that he gave his name
to the religious doctrines first broached by others,
in the same manner that Americus Vesputius gave
name to the continent of America, which had for-
merly been discovered by Columbus. But Vol-
taire in this, as in many other assertions is wrong.
It was not Calvin that gave his name to the doc-
trines, but the public at large, whereas Vesputi-
us expressly *stole* the honour due to Columbus. It
was by the assiduity of this celebrated reformer,
and the influence that he acquired among the ci-
tizens, that a public academy was first established
in the city, where he, Theodore Beza, and some
of the more eminent first reformers, read lectures
with uncommon success. The intolerant spirit
that formerly prevailed in Geneva is now total-
ly annihilated. The advantages of the academy
at Geneva are very conspicuous among the citi-
zens, even the lower class of them being exceed-
ingly well informed; so that, according to Mr

gh the government was accounted re-
bained an almost absolute authority
ple, and exercised it in a most unjust
y manner. Thus violent commotions
and the citizens became divided in-
ties, one of which, viz. the patriots

Eidgenossen or *confederates*; the party
being disgraced by the appellation
of *flaves*. The true period of Ge-
y may therefore be considered as com-
th the treaty concluded with Berne
in 1526; in consequence of which the
son deprived of his authority, the bi-
from the city, and the reformed reli-
republican form of government intro-
long war commenced with Savoy on
t; but the Genevans proved an over-
their enemies by their own bravery and
of the inhabitants of Berne.

NEVA. HISTORY OF, TO THE ABOLI-
THE GENERAL ASSEMBLIES. In 1584,
concluded a treaty with Zurich and
which it is allied to the Swiss cantons.
of Savoy made their last attempt against
1562, when the city was treacherous
in the night time during a profound
soldiers had scaled the walls, and got
own before any alarm was given; but
repulsed by the desperate valour of a
, who perished in the encounter. A
been fastened to one of the gates by
rds; but the gunner was killed before
discharged. The war occasioned by
ery was next year concluded by a so-
, which has ever since been observed
es; though the independence of Gene-
er formally acknowledged by the king
till 1754. The restoration of tranquil
without, in consequence of the above
however soon followed by the flames
discord, so common in popular go-
so that during the whole of the 17th
history of Geneva affords little more
count of the struggles betwixt the aris-
and popular parties. About the begin-
18th century the power of the Grand
s become almost absolute; but to re-
thority, an edict was procured in 1707
ular party, enacting that every 5 years
council of the citizens and burghers
summoned to deliberate upon the affairs
blic. In consequence of this law, a
mbly was convened in 1712; and the
t of that assembly was to abolish the
ich they had been convened. A pro-
extraordinary can scarcely be account-
e principles of popular fickleness and
. Rousseau, in his Miscellaneous Works,
o the artifices of the magistrates, and
al terms marked on the billets then in
he question being put, "Whether the
he councils for abolishing the periodics
should pass into a law?" the words
or *rejection*, put upon the billets by
otes were given, might be interpreted

Thus, if the billet was chosen on
word *approbation* was written, the opi-
councils which rejected the assemblies

was approved; and by the word *rejection*, the pe-
riodical assembly was rejected of course. Hence
several of the citizens complained that they had
been deceived, and that they never meant to re-
ject the general assembly; but only the opinion of
the councils.

(8.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO THE INSUR-
RECTION IN 1781. In consequence of the aboli-
tion of the general assemblies, the power of the
aristocratical party, was greatly augmented, till
at length, the inhabitants, exerting themselves with
uncommon spirit and perseverance, found means
to limit the power of the magistrates, and enlarge
their own rights. In 1776, as Mr Coxe informs
us, the government might be considered as a
mean betwixt that of the aristocratical and popu-
lar cantons of Switzerland. The members of the
senate, or little council of 25, enjoyed in that
capacity several very considerable prerogatives.
By them half the members of the great council
were named; the principal magistrates were sup-
plied from their own body; they convoked the
great and general councils, deliberating previous-
ly upon every question which was to be brought
before these councils. They were vested also with
the chief executive power, the administration of
finances, and had in a certain degree the jurisdic-
tion in civil and criminal causes. Most of the
smaller posts were likewise filled by them; and
they enjoyed the sole privilege of conferring the
burghership. These, and other prerogatives, how-
ever, were balanced by those of the great council
and the privileges of the general council. The
former had a right to choose the members of the
senate from their own body; receiving appeals in
all causes above a certain value, pardoning crimi-
nals, &c. besides which they had the important
privilege of approving or rejecting whatever was
proposed by the senate to be laid before the peo-
ple. The general council, or assembly of the peo-
ple, was composed of the citizens and burghers
of the town; their number in general amounting
to 1500, though usually not more than 1200 were
present; the remainder residing in foreign countries,
or being otherwise absent. They met twice a-year,
chose the principal magistrates, approved or re-
jected the laws and regulations proposed by the
other councils, imposed taxes, contracted alliances,
declared war or peace, and nominated half the
members of the great council, &c. But the prin-
cipal check to the power of the senate arose from
the right of *re-election*, or the power of annually
expelling 4 members from the senate at the nomi-
nation of the *syndics* or principal magistrates, and
from the right of representation. The *syndics*
were 4 in number, chosen annually from the se-
nate by the general council; and 3 years elapsed
before the same members could be again appoint-
ed. In choosing these magistrates, the senate ap-
pointed from its own body 8 candidates, from
whom the 4 *syndics* were to be chosen by the ge-
neral council. The latter, however, had it in
their power to reject not only the first 8 candi-
dates, but also the whole body of senators in suc-
cession: in which case, 4 members of the senate
retired into the great council; and their places
were filled by an equal number from that council.

to the power of representation, every citizen had the privilege of applying to the senate to procure a new regulation in this respect or of remonstrating against any act of the magistracy. To these remonstrances the magistrates were obliged to give an explicit answer; for if a satisfactory answer was not given to one, a second was immediately presented. The representation was made by a greater or smaller number of citizens according to the importance of the point in question. Since 1776, however, several changes have taken place. This right of *re-election*, which the aristocratical party were obliged to yield to the people in 1768, soon proved very disagreeable, being considered by the former as a kind of ostracism; for which reason they caught at every opportunity of procuring its abolition. They were now distinguished by the title of *negatives*, while the popular party had that of *representants*; and the point in dispute was the compilation of a new code of laws. This measure the negatives opposed, as supposing that it would tend to reduce their prerogatives; while, on the other hand, the *representants* used their utmost endeavours to promote it, in hopes of having their privileges augmented by such means. At last in January 1777, the negatives were obliged to comply with the demands of their antagonists; and a committee for forming a new code of laws was appointed by the concurrence of the little, great, and general councils. The committee was to last for two years, and the code to be laid before the three councils for their joint approbation or rejection. A sketch of the first part of the code was presented to the little and great councils on the 1st. Sept. 1779, that they might profit by their observations before it was presented to the general council. Great disputes arose; and at length it was carried by the negatives that the code should be rejected and the committee dissolved. The opposite party complained of this as unconstitutional, and violent disputes ensued; the issue of which was, that the great council offered to compile the code, and submit it to the decision of the public. This did not give satisfaction to the popular party, who considered it as insidious; the contentions revived with more fury than ever, until at length the negatives supposing, or pretending to suppose, that their country was in danger, applied to the guarantees, France, Zurich, and Berne, intreating them to protect the laws and constitution. This was productive of no good effect; so that the negatives found no other method of gaining their point than by sowing dissension among the different classes of inhabitants. The *natives* were discontented and jealous on account of many exclusive privileges enjoyed by that class named *citizens*; they were besides exasperated against them for having, in 1770, banished 8 of the principal natives, who pretended that the right of burghership belonged to the natives as well as to the citizens, and demanded that this right should be gratuitously conferred instead of being purchased. The negatives, in hopes of making such a considerable addition to their party, courted the natives by all the methods they could think of, promising a public declaration, that they were ready to upon them those privileges of trade and

commerce which had hitherto been confined solely to the citizens. The designs of the negatives were likewise openly favoured by France, and dispatches were even sent to the French resident at Geneva, to be communicated to the principal natives who sided with the aristocratic party. The attorney general, perceiving this mode of interference to be unconstitutional, presented a spirited remonstrance by which the French court were so mortified, that they procured his deposition from office; and thus their party was very much increased among the natives. The *representants* endeavoured to conciliate the former party, and even promised what hitherto opposed in the strongest manner to facilitate the acquisition of the burghership to bestow it as the recompense of good behaviour. Thus two parties were among the natives themselves; and the becoming every day worse and worse, insurrection took place on the 31st Feb.

(9.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO REVOLUTION IN 1782. A dispute, accompanied with violent reproaches, having commenced between two neighbouring and opposite parties, a battle would have immediately taken place, if not been for the interposition of the one side, and the chiefs of the other on the other. The tumult was begun on the 1st side, when a discharge of musquetry from the arsenal. Some young men, with the negatives, having taken possession of the arsenal, had fired by mistake upon some of their own party, and had killed one and wounded another. This was considered by the *representants* as the signal for a general insurrection, on which they instantly took up arms and marched in 3 columns to the arsenal; but there only a few young men who had rashly followed their orders, they permitted the rest to retire unmolested. In the opinion of some people, however, this affair was preconcerted, and the *representants* are said to have been the first aggressors having thus taken up arms in haste to lay them down. They took possession of all the avenues to the city; and their being summoned next morning by the fulfilment of their engagements with respect to the ship, they held several meetings with the negatives on that subject, but without success, tho' the latter readily agreed to an augmentation of the commercial privileges of the native burghership. The committee, however, at the number and threats of the natives, set up an edict, permitting the natives to trade, and to hold the rank of officers in military associations; and conferred the burghership on more than 100 persons, taken from the natives and inhabitants, and even from the peasantry. This was approved by the negatives not daring to make their own. Thus the popular party imagined, that they had got a complete victory; but they soon found themselves deceived. They were prevailed upon by deputies from Zurich and Berne, who sent to conciliate the differences, to lay

this was no longer done, than the
declared the edict in favour of the
be null and illegal. The senate de-
fines of the same opinion; and main-
the affect of the council had been
by through fear of the representatives
under arms, and whom none at that
people. The representatives, exaspera-
renewed proceeding, presented an-
franchise on the 18th March, 1783, sum-
magistrates once more to confirm the
month afterwards received the letter
that "The government was neither
able to confirm it." The natives,
themselves disappointed in their favourite
very time they had such strong hopes
it, behaved like frantic people, and
tumult took place. The most mode-
popular party endeavoured in vain to
ry, by dispersing themselves in different
the city; and the citizens, finding
last obliged either to abandon the
natives or to join them openly, hasty-
the latter measure; after which, so
now oppose them, the officers of the
s took possession of the town, and
insurrection. Various negotiations
l on with the natives, to prevail up-
ratify the edict, but without success:
few of the magistrates were confined
lar party along with the principal
as they expected the interference of
account of what they had done, they
prolong the confinement of the pri-
to keep them as hostages for their
In the mean time the body of citi-
s if their power was already establi-
shed several members of both councils,
n their stead, an equal number of per-
sons favourable to the cause of the re-
The great council thus new modelli-
l the edict for conferring the burgher-
number of the natives; and appoint-
tee of safety, composed of 11 mem-
on considerable authority. By this com-
munic tranquillity was re-established;
the fortifications were ordered to be
al the people were buoyed up by the
ous notions of their own prowess, and
that France either durst not attack
not incline to do so. In consequence
error, they refused every offer of re-
made from the other party; until at
ere dispatched against them by the king
and the canton of Berne; and their
nerals, Messrs de la Marmora and
dered to act in concert with the
ander M. de Jaucourt, who had ad-
e frontiers with a considerable detach-
ment.
Others, however, continued to
fortifications with indefatigable la-
gants stocked from all quarters to
ring to man the guard and work at the
without any pay; women of all
ded to the walls, encouraging the
in assisting them in their labour. The
never, advanced in such force, that
of disengagement forebaw that all resist-

of necessity of surrendering, at the thoughts of the people of the city, and even of general emigration. A ship to be delivered to the city, the chiefs summoned the pri-ers from their posts, ordered the cannon batteries to be rendered unfit for service, and at last took care of themselves by quitting the town. The people were in the utmost despair; and left the town in such multitudes, that when the Sardinians entered it in the morning, they found it almost deserted. This was followed by the restoration of the former magistrates, a complete subjection of the popular party, and the establishment of a military government.

(10.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO THE REVOLUTION IN 1789. The changes which took place on this occasion were as follow: 1. An abolition of the right of re-election. 2. The abolition of that right by which the general council nominated half the vacancies in the great council. 3. The right of remonstrating was taken from the citizens at large, and vested in 36 adjuncts, who might be present in the great council the first Monday of every month. They enjoyed a right of representation, and in consequence of that had a deliberative voice; but on the whole, were so insignificant, that they were nicknamed *Les Images*, or "The shadows." 4. The introduction of the *grabeau*, or annual confirmation of the members of the senate and of the great council, vested entirely in the latter. By this law part of the authority both of the senate and general council was transferred to the great council; and by subjecting the senate to this annual revision, its power was greatly lessened, and it was made in fact dependent upon the general council. 5. The circles or clubs in which it was customary to convene the citizens, and all public assemblies whatever, were prohibited: and so rigorously was this carried into execution, that even the *Society of Arts* were prohibited from meeting. 6. The militia were abolished; firing at marks, even with bows and arrows, was prohibited, and the town, instead of being guarded by its own citizens, was now put under the care of 1000 foreign soldiers, whose colonel and major were both to be foreigners. These troops were to take an oath of fidelity to the republic, and of obedience to the great council and the committee of war; but were under the immediate command and inspection of the latter, and subject to the superior control of the former. 7. No person was permitted to bear arms, whether citizen, native, or inhabitant. 8. Several taxes were imposed without the consent of the general council; but in time to come it was provided, that every change or augmentation of the revenue should be submitted to that body. 9. Several privileges with regard to trade and commerce, formerly possessed by the citizens alone, were now granted to both citizens and inhabitants. It was not to be expected, that this constitution would be agreeable to people who had such a strong sense of liberty, and had been accustomed to put such a value upon it, as the Genevans. From what

has been already related, it might seem to conclude, that an almost universal emigration would have taken place; but after the excitement had time to subside, most of the fled at first, returned; and, in the opinion of Coxe, not more than 600 finally left the town on account of the revolution in 1783. The Genevans principally settled at Brussels and Cologne, where they introduced the arts of printing and watch making. Soon after the revolution, indeed, a memorial, signed by above 1000 persons of both sexes, all either possessing property, or versed in trade or manufacture, was presented to the earl of Temple, then lord lieutenant of Ireland, expressing a desire to that kingdom. The proposal met with approbation; the Irish parliament voted towards defraying the expences of their emigration, and affording them a proper settlement in the island. Lands were purchased for 800000, in a convenient situation near Waterford; but the scheme was actually completed at the end of 1800; a charter was granted with considerable privileges; the standard of gold was altered for the accommodation of the watch makers; and the foundation of an academy upon an useful and liberal plan. Seven Genevans landed in Ireland, in July 1783; but the nation had expended nearly 30,000 on the scheme, it was suddenly abandoned. It principally to have been owing to the necessity occasioned in the execution of a complicated plan; and in some degree a high demand of the Genevan commission required many privileges inconsistent with the constitution of Ireland. By these delays the Genevans induced to abandon the scheme, and their former place of residence. Ever since who had already landed, though mainly at the public expence, were discontented at being the new town prepared for their residence, and as those among the proposed emigrants possessed the greatest share of property ready withdrawn their names, the remainder not choose to remain in the country which had not capital sufficient to carry on any considerable trade or manufacture. A petition presented by the Genevan commissioner, requesting that 10,000l. of the 50,000l. voted appropriated to the forming a capital; had been voted for other purposes, it was of course rejected: in consequence the Genevans relinquished the settlement, and soon after quitted the island. The people of Old Geneva, though returned to their former place of abode, were far from inclined to submit to the yoke with patience; they were obliged to pay heavy taxes to maintain a military force to keep themselves in subjection; so intolerable did this appear, that in every thing seemed ready for another revolution. The success of this seemed more probable than that of the former, as France was not in a condition to interfere as formerly. The ferment soon rose to such a height, that the government was obliged to call in the aid of troops to quell a tumult which happened in the

duced only a temporary tranquillity; an-
 tumult took place on the 26th of Jan. 1789,
 out of the publication of an edict raising
 of bread a farthing per pound. On this
 the instantly rose; plundered the bakers
 and next day a carriage loaded with bread
 led by soldiers was plundered in its way
 to the distribution office. The soldiers fired on
 it, by which one man was killed and an-
 wounded: but the tumult still increasing,
 the soldiers were driven away; and the body of
 the dead was carried in a kind of procession
 to the town house, as a proof of the violence
 of the aristocratic party. The magistrates
 in the mean time, spent their time in
 doing nothing, instead of taking any effectual me-
 sures for quelling the insurrection. The citizens,
 on the other hand, attacked and carried two of
 the fortifications, dangerously wounded the commanding
 officer, and he attempted to allay the fury of both
 parties. At last the magistrates dispatched against
 the insurrection a considerable body of troops, whom they
 thought the insurgents would not have the courage
 to resist, but in this they were mistaken. The
 soldiers had formed a strong barricade, behind
 which they played off two fire-pumps, filled with
 water and soap lyes, against the extremities
 of the houses which the military had to cross be-
 cause they could not attack them. The commanding
 officer was killed and several of his men wounded.
 A discharge of small arms from windows;
 stones of the pavement were carried up to
 the roofs of houses to be thrown down upon the
 soldiers; they should force the barricades and
 enter the streets. The tumult, in the
 evening, continued to increase, and was in dan-
 ger of becoming universal; when the magistrates,
 seeing it would be impossible to quell the insur-
 rection without a great effusion of blood, were re-
 luctant to the necessity of complying with their
 demands.

One of the principal magistrates re-
 ceived a person to the quarter of St Gervais,
 and issued an edict for lowering the price of
 bread, granted a general amnesty, and releas-
 ed the insurgents who had been taken into
 custody.

Thus a momentary calm was produ-
 ced. The leaders of the insurrection, sensible
 that the magistrates were either unable or unwill-
 ing to employ a sufficient force against them, re-
 took advantage of the present opportu-
 nity to procure a full change of government.
 The insurrection, therefore, took place on the
 30th of the month, in which the soldiers were
 removed from their posts, disarmed, and the gates
 were opened to the people. The magistrates then, con-
 sidering that all opposition was fruitless, deter-
 mined to comply with the demands of their anta-
 gonists to their full extent: and the aristocratical
 party, suddenly changing their sentiments, renoun-
 ced that system to which they had
 so obstinately adhered. On the applica-
 tion of the solicitor-general, therefore, for the re-
 storation of the ancient liberties of the people, the
 edicts of bearing arms, re-establishment of the
 rights of their circles or political clubs, the
 removal of the garrison from the barracks, and
 the release of the representants who were banished
 these moderate demands were received

with complacency, and even satisfaction. The
 preliminaries were easily settled, and a new edict
 of pacification was published under the title of
Modifications à l'Édition de 1782, and approved by
 the senate, great council, and general council.
 So great was the unanimity on this occasion, that
 the modifications were received by a majority of
 1321 against 52. The pacification was instantly
 followed by marks of friendship betwixt the two
 parties which had never been experienced before:
 the sons of the principal negatives frequented the
 circles of the burghers; and the magistrates ob-
 tained the confidence of the people, by dismissing
 the military, evacuating the barracks, and devo-
 ting them to the use of the university and public
 library. In a word, the constitution established
 in 1789, gave general satisfaction, as a just me-
 dium between the too democratic form established
 in 1768, and the too aristocratic one established in
 1782. The history of the republic from this period
 to its union with France, being necessarily connec-
 ted with that of the French revolution, will be
 noticed under that article. See REVOLUTION.

(II.) GENEVA, INHABITANTS OF. The city
 is by far the most populous in Switzerland, con-
 taining about 30,000 inhabitants, of whom, how-
 ever, 5000 are generally supposed to be absent.
 The district dependent upon it does not contain
 above 16,000. The people are very active and
 industrious, and carry on an extensive commerce.

(II.) GENEVA, LAKE OF. This lake, which
 was anciently called LEMANUS, (whence the pre-
 sent name of the department, LAC LEMAN,) is in
 the shape of a crescent; along the concave side
 of which Mr Coxe travelled 54 miles, Switzerland
 forms the concave, and the department of Mont
 Blanc, (the ci-devant Savoy,) the convex part;
 the greatest breadth being about 12 miles. The
 country on the side of Mont Blanc is full of high
 and craggy mountains; but from Geneva to the
 environs of Lausanne it slopes to the margin of
 the lake, and is very rich and fertile. The banks
 rise considerably in the neighbourhood of Lausanne,
 and form a most beautiful terrace, with a rapid
 descent a few miles beyond the town. A plain
 begins in the neighbourhood of Vevay, which
 continues for a great way beyond the end of the
 lake, but contracts towards the water by the ap-
 proach of the mountains. The lake itself appears
 at a distance of a beautiful blue colour, and the
 water is very clear and transparent. Near Gene-
 va the coast abounds with pebbles; between that
 city and Lausanne it is sandy; from thence to
 Chillon it is bounded by hard calcareous rocks;
 and the extremity of the shore is a marsh formed
 by mud collected from the Rhone. The great-
 est depth of this lake, found by M. de Luc, is
 160 fathoms. Here the birds called *tippet grebes*
 appear in December; but retire in February to
 other places where they breed, and make float-
 ing nests of reeds, as the lake of Geneva affords
 none. This lake, like all others situated between
 mountains, is subject to sudden storms. The
 Rhone runs through its whole extent from its E.
 to its SW. extremity; after which it passes through
 the city and divides it into two unequal parts.

(III.) GENEVA, a lake of Upper Canada, which
 forms

forms the W. extremity of Lake Ontario, to which it is joined by a short and narrow strait.

(IV.) GENEVA, a post town of New York, in Onondago county, at the NW. corner of Lake Seneca, on the road from Albany to Niagara: 74 miles W. of Oneida castle, and 460 NW. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 40. W. of that city. Lat. 42. 49. N.

(V. i.) * GENEVA. *n. f.* [A corruption of *genève*, French, a juniper berry.]—We used to keep a distilled spirituous water of juniper in the shops. At present only a better kind is distilled from the juniper-berry: what is commonly sold is made with no better an ingredient than oil of turpentine, put into the still, with a little common salt and the coarsest spirit. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

(ii.) GENEVA, or GIN, is an ordinary malt spirit, distilled a second time, with the addition of some juniper-berries. Originally, the berries were added to the malt in the grinding; so that the spirit thus obtained was flavoured with the berries from the first, and exceeded all that could be made by any other method. At present, they leave out the berries entirely, and give their spirit a flavour by distilling them with a proper quantity of oil of turpentine; which, though it nearly resembles the flavour of juniper-berries, has none of their valuable virtues.

(VI.) GENEVA, DUCHY OF. See GENEVOIS.

(VII.) GENEVA, NEW. See N° I. § 10.

GENEVANS, the people of GENEVA.

GENEVES, the territory of Geneva. See GENEVA, N° I. § 1.

(I.) GENEVIEVE, St, the patroness of the city of Paris, flourished in the end of the 3th century, and died A. D. 512. Five years after her death, Clovis erected the church of St Genevieve, under the name and invocation of St Peter, where her relics, are, or were till lately, preserved, her shrine visited and her image carried with great processions and ceremonies.

(2.) GENEVIEVE, St, fathers or religious of, a congregation of regular canons, established in France, in the 17th century. It was a reform of the Augustine canons, begun by St Charles Faure, in the abbey of St Vincent de Senlis, in 1618. In 1634, the abbey was made elective; and a general chapter, composed of the superiors of 15 houses, who had received the reform, chose F. Faure coadjutor of the abbey of St Genevieve, and general of the congregation. It increased very much, and before the abolition of monachism, consisted of above 100 monasteries; in some of which the religious were employed in the administration of the parishes and hospitals; and in others, in the instruction of ecclesiastics. It took its name from the abbey of St Genevieve, which was the chief of the order, and whose abbot was the general. The abbey itself was named from the Saint. See N° 1.

(3.) GENEVIEVE, St, or MISSIRE, a village of Louisiana, on the Mississippi, opposite Kaskaskias, 12 miles from Fort Chartres.

GENEVILLIERS, a town of France in the dep. of Paris, 2 miles W. of St Denys.

GENEVOIS, or the DUCHY OF GENEVA, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the N. by Switzerland, on the E. by Faucigny, on the

S. by Savoy Proper, and on the W. by the ci-devant province of Dauphiné. Anciently Geneva and its territory in it. It is now annexed to France in the department of Mont Blanc.

GENEURO, a mountain betw and the ci-devant province of Dauphiné, Briançon and Sufa.

GENGENBACH, an imperial city, many, in Suabia, on the Kinzig; of Strassburg, and 21 N. of Friburg.

GENGIS KHAN, the renowned the Moguls, a barbarous and bloody conqueror. See JENGHIZ KHAN, and MOGULS.

GENGOUX, St, ci-devant Le R. France in the department of Saône and ci-devant prov. of Burgundy, wines; seated on a mountain 17 Châlons. Lon. 4. 43. E. Lat. 46. 1.

(1.) * GENIAL. *adj.* [genial] That which contributes to propagate.

Higher of the genial bed by far And with mysterious reverence I

Creator Venus, genial pow'r o The bliss of men below and gods

2. That gives cheerfulness or support

Nor will the light of life continue

But yields to double darkness night

So much I feel my genial spirits

3. Natural; native.—It chiefly denotes natural incapacity, and genial indisposition.

(2.) GENIAL GODS, in the Pagan religions who were supposed to preside

ration. The genial gods, says Festus,

air, fire, and water. The twelve

with the sun and moon, were sometimes

ed in the number.

* GENIALLY. *adv.* [from genial.]

naturally.—Some men are genially disposed

opinions, and naturally averse to others

2. Gayly; cheerfully.

* GENICULATED. *adj.* [geni-

Knotted; jointed.—A piece of

plant seeming to be part of a sugar-

on *Festus*.

* GENICULATION. *n. f.* [geni-

Knottiness; the quality in plants of

or joints.

GENIEZ, St, a town of France

of Aveiron, and late prov. of Rouergue

the birthplace of Abbe Raynal, an

NE. of Rhodéz. Lon. 3. 6. E. Lat.

GENII, in the Mahometan theol-

intermediate beings, supposed to

men and angels. They are of a grade

the latter, but much more active

than the former. Some of them are

bad, and they are capable of future

damnation like men. The Orientals

these geni inhabited the world 5

years before the creation of Adam,

princes, who all bore the common name

of Eblis; that falling at length into an

corruption, Eblis was sent to dwell

remote part of the earth, there to

and that some of that generation

were by Tahmurath, one of the an-

Persia, forced to retreat into the

of Kaf. Of this king's success

so many fabulous and romantic stories. We suppose several ranks and degrees of species among this kind of beings; peculiarly called *Jins*, or *genii*; some *ies*; some *Divs*, or giants; and others *fates*.

E, a town of France in the dep. of oire, 3 miles N. of Loches.

G. n. f. [*genus*, Italian; *genius*, Latin.] particular turn of mind.—Some *genius* able of pure affection; and a man is ilents for it as much as for poetry, or ience. *Tatler*.

ILLOSSI, and } in anatomy. See **A-VOIDSUS**, } **ANATOMY**, § 301.

TOMA, in botany, a genus of the order, belonging to the pentandria class. The calyx is a turbinate quinquefid; the corolla monopetalous and tubulosa; short filaments; the anthera seeds very numerous and subangulate in a filiform receptacle.

A, in botany, a genus of the monogynous order, belonging to the pentandria class of in the natural method ranking under *Contortae*. The corolla is wheel-stigma club-shaped; the berry bilobed, red, and fleshy.

ST GENIS, a town of the French dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci de Savoy, on the Oulier; 12 miles W. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 45. 40. N.

A, **AROM**, or **DYERS-WEED**, a genus of the diadelphia order, belonging to the diadelphia plants; and in the natural method to the 3rd order, *Papilionaceae*. The blade, the upper lip bidentate, the identate; the vexillum is oblong and turned back from the pistil and stamens several species; of which the following are most remarkable:

A CYTISUS, or **CYTISO GENISTA**, a common shrub; which is too well known to need description. Its young flowers are formed as pickles; and the plant, when dried, is a tolerably pure alkaline salt. Dr. Sydenham, in the case of a dropsical patient, who was taking half a pint of a decoction of tops, with a spoonful of whole white wine every morning and evening. The decoction had been tapped three times, and tried several times before. An infusion of the tops, freely, has been known to produce effects. Cows, horses, and sheep, eat it.

A TINCTORIA is also a native of the sea with shrubby stalks 3 feet high, spear-shaped leaves placed alternately, and by several spikes of yellow flowers, pods. The branches are used by the sailors for a yellow colour; from whence it is called *broom*, *green wool*, *wood waxen*.

A dram and a half of the powder makes a mild purgative. A decoction of the plant is diuretic; and, like the powder, is serviceable in dropsical cases. *Gouts*, and *sheep, eat it*.

T. L.

(1.) * **GENTILIS**. *n. f.* [*genialis*, Lat.] Part belonging to generation.—Hiam is conceived to be Jupiter, who was the youngest son, who is said to have cut off the *genitals* of his father. *Brown*.

(2.) **GENITALS**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*. **GENITE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Corrèze, 18 miles W. of Brive.

GENITES, among the Hebrews, those descended from Abraham, without any mixture of foreign blood. The Greeks distinguished by the name of *genites* such of the Jews as were issued from parents, who during the Babylonish captivity, had not allied with any gentile family.

* **GENITING**. *n. f.* [A corruption of *Janeton*, French, signifying *Jane* or *Janet*, having been so called in honour of some lady of that name; and the Scottish dialect calls them *Janet* apples, which is the same with *Janeton*; otherwise supposed to be corrupted from *Janetling*.] An early apple gathered in June.—In July come early pears and plums in fruit, *genittings* and *codlins*. *Bacon*.

(1.) * **GENITIVE**. *adj.* [*genitivus*, Latin.] In grammar, the name of a case, which, among other relations, signifies one begotten, as, the father of a son; or one begetting, as son of a father.

(2.) **The GENITIVE**, is the second case of the declension of nouns. The relation of one thing considered as belonging in some manner to another, occasioned in the Greek and Latin, a peculiar termination of nouns called the *genitive case*; but in the modern tongues a particle is prefixed to express the relation of this case. In English we prefix the particle *of*; in French *de* or *du*, &c. though in strictness there are no cases in either of these languages; inasmuch as they do not express the different relations of things by different terminations, but by prepositions.

(1.) * **GENIUS**. *n. f.* [Latin; *genie*, French.] 1. The protecting or ruling power of men, places, or things.—

There is none but he

Whose being I do fear: and, under him,
My *genius* is rebuk'd; as it is said
Antony's was by Cæsar. *Shak. Macbeth.*

The *genius* and the mortal instruments
Are then in council; and the state of man,
Like to a little kingdom, suffers then. *J. Cæf.*

And as I awake, sweet music breathe,
Sent by some spirit to mortals good,
Or th' unseen *genius* of the wood. *Milton.*

And the tame demon that should guard my throne,

Shrinks at a *genius* greater than his own. *Dryd.*

To your glad *gen.* sacrifice this day;

Let common meats respectfully give way. *Dryd.*
2. A man endued with superior faculties.—There is no little writer of Pindaricks who is not mentioned as a prodigious *genius*. *Addison.* 3. Mental power or faculties.—

The state and order does proclaim
The *genius* of that royal dame. *Waller.*

4. Disposition of nature by which any one is qualified for some peculiar employment.—

A happy *genius* is the gift of nature. *Dryden.*
—Your majesty's sagacity, and happy *genius* for natural history, is a better preparation for enquiries of this kind than all the dead learning of the schools. *Burnet's Theory, Preface.*

while others are disagreeable, not their strict regularity. The genius, says Abbe Du Bos, consists in a command of the organs of the brain; in motion of each of these organs; as purity of the blood, which disposes it, during exercise, so as to furnish it to the springs employed in the imagination. Here he supposes poster's blood is heated; for that poets cannot invent in cool blood; so evident they must be wrapt into a passion when they produce their finest. He mentions a poet who never wrote ten his poetic fury hurried him into frenzy. The admirable pictures in *Orinda* and *Clorinda* are alleged by some to be drawn at the expence of a disposition to real madness, into which he fell. "Do you imagine," says Cicero, "he wrote in cold blood? No, it was not. He must have been inspired with a power to be able to write such admirable

a town of France, in the department of 7 miles N. of Chauny.

NADIUS, patriarch of Constantinople, succeeded Anatolius in 458, was esteemed author; but all his works are lost, except a little against Simony, and part of a book *St Cyril's Anathemas*. He died

NADIUS, a bishop or priest of Marburg, wrote a work *De Dogmatibus Ecclesie*. It has been ascribed to St Augustin, among his works. He wrote another *Ecclesie Scripturibus*. Both are extant in 492.

a town of France, in the department of Loire, near the Loire, 9 miles NW.

2, a town of Germany in the late times, now annexed to the French Republic, included in the dep. of the Roer. It is on the Niers, near the Meuse, and 9 miles.

3, a town of France in the dep. of Ille, 5 miles NE. of Guerche.

NESARETH, in ancient geography, a town of Galilee, called also Cinnereth, *Cbinnereth*, by Moses; 140 stadia in length, 10 in breadth; abounding in fish. It is called the *Sea of Galilee*, and St John *berias*.

NESARETH, a district on the lake.

GENOA, the GENOESSE REPUBLIC, or the REPUBLIC, a small democratic state of Italy, lying along that part of the Mediterranean from it is called the *Gulf of Genoa*, 2 miles, but varying in its breadth from 1 to 2 miles. It is bounded on the N. from Piedmont, Montferrat, the Cisalpine Republic, Parma, a small territory belonging to the republic of Lucca. This part of the ancient LIGURIA, whence the name of the LIGURIAN REPUBLIC. It is 11. 27. and 9. 25. Lon. E. and between 45. 0. Lat. N.

(2.) GENOA, the capital of the Ligurian republic, is seated on the coast of the Mediterranean sea, at the bottom of the gulph, (§ 4.) partly on the flat, and partly on the declivity, of a pleasant hill; in consequence of which, it appears to great advantage from the sea. Two of the streets consist entirely of a double straight row of magnificent palaces, at least they did so before the late bombardment. The others, though clean and well paved, are crooked and narrow. The palaces of the ci-devant nobility are almost all of marble, and many of them are painted on the outside. Of these there is a vast number besides churches, convents, and hospitals. The palace where the ci-devant doge resided, and where the great and little council, and the two colleges of the procurators and governors assembled, is a large stone building in the centre of the city. It contains some fine paintings in fresco; two statues of Andrew and John Doria in white marble; and an arsenal, in which are said to be arms for 34,000 men, with a shield, containing 120 pistol barrels, and 33 coats of mail, which, it is said, were worn by as many Genoese heroines in a croilade. Of the churches, the finest are those of the Annunciation, St Mary Carignan, St Dominic, and St Martha. In the cathedral is an hexagonal cup made of a single emerald. An academy of painting, sculpture, civil and military architecture, was instituted here in 1751. The streets of Genoa are remarkably steep and narrow, yet one may walk in the night with the greatest safety, which is more than can be said of many cities in Italy. There are two fine stone bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Bisagno, the first whereof washes the W. and the other the E. side of the city, within which there is also a surprising stone bridge joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being safe; but no expence has been spared to render it safe and commodious. The wind to which it is most exposed, is the SW. called *Labreccio*. The place where the galleys lie, is called the *Darsena*, where before the revolution there were commonly a great number of Turkish slaves. On a rock, on the W. side of the harbour, is the *fanal* or light-house, a high tower, on the top of which is a lantern, containing 36 lamps. Genoa lies 62 miles SE. of Turin, 63 S. of Milan, and 224 NW. of Rome. Lon. 8. 41. E. Lat. 44. 25. N.

(3.) GENOA, CONSTITUTIONS AND GOVERNMENT OF. The ancient constitution, from the time of its establishment by the brave Andrew Doria, in 1528, was aristocratic, though not so much so as that of Venice. The nobility alone were capable of holding the chief offices in the republic. From this body were elected the Doge, the great council and the senate. The doge, or duke, was elected for two years, and was incapacitated from being re-elected for 5 years after; but had a procurator's office assigned him, and a pension of 500 scudi for life. No person could be elected doge till he was 50 years of age, and had left off trade for 15 years before. The great council consisted of 80 counsellors in whom the sovereignty chiefly resided. The senate consisted of 12 senators, who with the doge, had the administration of affairs. In Nov. 1791, this form

of government was overturned, hereditary titles and honours abolished, and a new democratic constitution established, by gen. Bonaparte, with a directory, two councils, &c. similar to the late constitution of France. (See FRANCE, § 61.) At present (Sept. 1800) some farther alterations are making in this constitution, which perhaps will be again new-modelled upon the plan of the present constitution of France, under consuls, &c.

(4.) GENOA, GULF OF, a semicircular gulf of the Mediterranean Sea, which washes the whole S. coast of Genoa, from the coast of the French republic, (ci-devant Nice and Monaco) on the W. to that of Lucca on the E.

(5.) GENOA, HISTORY OF. The ancient history of Genoa, like that of most other places, is wrapt up in fable. Some say, it was built by *Genauus*, a son of Saturn; others by the god *Janus*, agreeably to which origin, the ancient Latin authors often call it *Janua*. Be that as it may, the city of Genoa was a celebrated emporium in the time of the 2d Punic war; and having declared for the Romans, was plundered and burnt by Mago the Carthaginian. It was afterwards rebuilt by the Romans; and with the rest of Italy continued under their dominion till the overthrow of the western empire in 476. In 498, it fell under the power of Theodoric the Ostrogoth; who having defeated the usurper Odoacer, became king of Italy. Not long after, the Goths being almost entirely subdued by Belisarius, Justinian's general, Genoa was re-annexed to the Roman or rather eastern empire. In 670, it was plundered and burnt by the Lombards, whose king Protharius erected it into a provincial dukedom. The Lombards continued masters of Genoa till 774, when they were conquered by Charlemagne. He reduced Liguria to its ancient bound, settled by Augustus, and erected it into a marquise: appointing his relation *Audemarus* the first count or margrave. In 806 the Genoese reduced Corsica. Genoa at this time being distinguished for its wealth and populousness, began to give its name to the whole coast; and continued under the dominion of these counts for about 100 years, till the Carlovingian race became extinct in Italy, and the empire was transferred to the German princes. In 935, while the Genoese forces were absent on some expedition, the Saracens surprised the city, which they plundered and burnt, putting to death a great number of the inhabitants, and carrying others into captivity. Having embarked their captives, together with an immense booty, they set sail for Africa: but the Genoese immediately returning, pursued the invaders; and having entirely defeated them, recovered all the captives and booty, and took a great number of the enemy's ships. About A. D. 950, the Franks having lost all authority in Italy, the Genoese began to form themselves into a republic, and to be governed by their own magistrates, who were freely elected, and took the name of *Consuls*. To support their independence, they applied themselves to commerce and navigation; and being apprehensive that some of the German emperors, who often invaded Italy, might renew their pretensions to their state, they acknowledged Berengarius III, D.

of Friuli, who had been elected emperor by a party of Italian nobles. Berengarius, who had ado to maintain himself in his new dignity, favoured by his concessions to enlarge the number of his adherents: and accordingly confirmed the new republic in all its privileges. After this the Genoese began to extend their commerce from Spain to Syria, and from Egypt to Constantinople; their vessels being fitted for fighting as well as merchandise. Having thus acquired reputation, they were invited in 1017, by the Pisans, who had likewise formed themselves into a republic, to join with them in an expedition against Sardinia, which had been conquered by the Moors. In this expedition they were successful; the island was reduced; but from this time the enmity took place between the two republics, which did not end but with the ruin of the latter. The first war with the Pisans commenced 30 years after the Sardinian expedition, and lasted 18 years; when the contending parties concluded a peace, they sent their united forces against the Moors in Africa, of whom they said to have killed 100,000. The Genoese were very active in the time of the crusades, and took a principal share in the taking of Jerusalem. They also waged considerable wars with the Moors of Spain, of whom they generally got the better. They also prevailed against the neighbouring states; and, in 1230, had enlarged their territories beyond the skirts of the Apennines, so that the rest of Italy looked upon them with an envious eye: but in 1211, the factions which had reigned in the city, notwithstanding all their wealth and power, induced the inhabitants to submit to 20 years to the dominion of the emperor Frederick VII. That emperor, however, died in 1231; and the year he had left soon after to Pisa, upon which the dissensions in Genoa revived with greater fury than ever. In 1240 a quarrel happened between the families of the Spinola and Doria; which came to such a height, that both parties fought in the streets for 24 days without intermission, raised battering engines against each others houses, and fired the city with cannon. At last the Spinola quitted the city, and retired to their territories in the Apennine mountains. The civil war continued till 1255; when, by the mediation of the king of Naples, it was agreed that a lexes should return to the city; the republic should be governed by the king's officers, and all the offices of the state be equally divided between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, the contending parties. By this ruinous war the coast of Genoa, formerly adorned with gardens and vineyards, was now reduced to the appearance of a barren waste. So great was the desolation, that, according to Petrarch, the spectators sailed along were struck with astonishment and horror. Villani, a contemporary author, says that the losses each party had sustained could have been sufficient to have purchased a kingdom. The Genoese republic being esteemed in his time the richest and most powerful state in Christendom. Stella informs us, that, before the time of the most extravagant profusion and luxury reigned among the Genoese: but that, towards

ny noble families were reduced to indigence that, for about 100 years after, it became a habit for the nobles to live in a plain manner. In 1336, both parties sustained their animosities, sent two fleets of 20 each into the German ocean, to assist E. K. of France, against Edward III. of England. This naval expedition proved the cause of a remarkable revolution in the Genoese state. The sailors accused their officers of withholding them of their pay, proceeded to an insurrection, and, having expelled the admiral and commanders, seized the galleys. Philip, a chosen arbitrator, decided in favour of the sailors, and imprisoned 16 chiefs of the mutiny.

Upon this several of the sailors left the city and returned to Genoa; where they went to the docks, repeating their mutinous complaints, which were eagerly listened to, upon a report that the mutineers were broke upon the city. The factious spirit increased; and at Genoa insisted on having an abbot of their choosing, and 20 of the people, with four of the captains of the republic, as a committee for that purpose. While the multitude patiently expecting their decision, a merchant, a wooden bench, and called out Simon Bucamgrace should be chosen abbot, being instantly echoed by the populace, who first declared *abbot*, then *lord*, and *king*, of Genoa. But the dissensions continued so violent as ever, notwithstanding the establishment of the new magistracy; and by these perturbations the republic was at last so much weakened, that in 1390, Charles VI. K. of France, made himself Lord of Genoa. However, they were exceedingly impatient of the French yoke; and, in 1412, the duke of Milan obtained his sovereignty. With this situation they were equally displeased, and therefore revolted. In 1458, finding themselves pressed by a powerful fleet and army sent by Alphonso of Naples, they conferred the sovereignty of the city upon Charles VII. of France. But in 1475 they revolted, and, 4 years after, put themselves under the protection of the duke of Milan, whom they revolted in 1478. He then declared himself sovereign of the republic in 1480, in 1499 the city and territories of Genoa were conquered by Lewis XII. of France. The independence of the Genoese was not corrected by this misfortune. They revolted in 1506; but were again subdued by Lewis. In 1512 they revolted; and in 1516, the city was plundered by the Spaniards. In 1528, Andrea Doria, then an admiral in French service, undertook to rescue his country from the dominion of foreign princes, and restore its liberty. He told his countrymen that the French, who had again obtained the sovereignty, had left them only a shadow of liberty, and pretended to protect them from their oppressors. To the nobility he represented the French as suffering the government to be vested in the hands of foreigners less worthy of authority than themselves. Thus he soon formed a strong party, and when almost 3000 of the French garrison carried off by the plague, he ad-

vanced with 500 men. His friend having opened the gates of the city to him, he seized the principal posts, and thus became master of it without drawing his sword. The garrison retired to the forts, where they soon after capitulated, and being driven out of the city, Doria re-established the ancient form of government. See DORIA. The republic has since continued to preserve her liberty, though greatly fallen from her ancient splendor. In 1684, the Genoese having fallen under the resentment of Lewis XIV, the city was almost destroyed by a formidable bombardment. In 1688, it was bombarded by admiral Byng, and forced to capitulate; but the British government had no view of making a permanent conquest of it. In 1713, the emperor Charles VI. sold the town and marquise of Finale to the republic, which 30 years after involved it in a bloody war; for in 1743, the Q. of Hungary having by the treaty of Worms ceded to the king of Sardinia her right to Finale, the Genoese formed an alliance with France, Spain and Naples; and, in 1745, declared war against the K. of Sardinia, who soon made himself master of great part of the state, while several Genoese ports were bombarded by the British, and the city of Genoa was taken by the Imperialists: but after a terrible slaughter they were driven out by the Genoese; who again defeated them in 1747, when they attempted to recover it. In 1730, the island of Corsica revolted from the Genoese, and could never afterwards be reduced by them: for which reason they at last sold it to the French, who in 1770 totally reduced it. See CORSICA. As the revolution that took place in this state in 1797, and the other events that occurred during the present war, will necessarily be noticed under the article REVOLUTION, we shall only mention here, that the city of Genoa, after sustaining a long and severe siege, from the Austrian forces by land, and the British fleet, which blockaded the port by sea, was at last surrendered on the 7th June 1800, by gen. Massena, on the most honourable terms, after suffering the greatest hardships, the garrison having eaten all their horses, and being reduced to the last 3 oz. of "a wretched mixture of bran, oat chaff, and cocoa nut," which they used for bread. Within two or three weeks after, however, the Austrians were obliged to give up the city to the French, a party of whom had been sent to its relief after the victory at Marengo, and were within a day's march of it, when the garrison capitulated.

(6.) GENOA, INHABITANTS OF. The total number of citizens of all ages in this republic is estimated at 150,000. As to their character, the Genoese in general are esteemed crafty, industrious, and inured to labour above the other Italians.

(7.) GENOA, MILITARY FORCE OF. In time of peace the republic usually keep a body of 5000 regular troops; viz. 4000 natives, 200 Germans, 500 Swiss, 300 Italians, and 100 bombardiers; but in war it has about 20,000 troops in all.

(8.) GENOA, PRODUCE OF. This country, though a great part of it is mountainous, and some of that barren, yet produces plenty of excellent fruit, good pasture, wood, garden stuffs, and mulberry trees; with some wine and oil, but little

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little corn. What is wanted of the last, is supplied from Lombardy, Sicily, or Naples.

(9.) GENOA, REVENUE OF. The ordinary revenue of this republic is estimated at two millions per annum.

(10.) GENOA, STRENGTH OF. The city of Genoa is surrounded on the land side with two walls, the outermost of which reaches beyond the mountain, and extends about 10 Italian miles in circumference. It is defended by bastions, and about 500 pieces of cannon are mounted on the outworks. The fortifications towards the sea are also remarkably strong. On the whole it may be pronounced impregnable; for Massena in his letter to Bonaparte said, "had it not been for want of subsistence we would have for ever held out in Genoa."

(11.) GENOA, TRADE OF. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damasks, plush, silk, brocades, laces, gloves, sweetmeats, fruits, oil, Parmesan cheese, anchovies, and drugs from the Levant; but the badness of the harbour, and the high price of commodities, greatly check its commerce. In 1751, Genoa was declared a free port for ten years, under certain restrictions: in that called *Porto Franco*, any merchant may have a ware-house, and import or export goods duty-free; but such as are disposed of in the city, or on the continent, are taxed pretty high. The convenient nobility were allowed to trade in the wholesale way; to carry on velvet, silk, and cloth manufactures; and to have shares in merchant ships; and some of them, as the Palavicini, were actually the greatest merchants in Genoa. Another very profitable article of trade carried on is banking, and dealing in bills of exchange.

GENOELS, Abraham, an eminent painter of Antwerp, born in 1640. He excelled in portraits and landscapes.

GENOESE, the people of Genoa. See GENOA, § 6.

GENOLHAC, or GENOVILLAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Gard, 15 m. NW. of Alais.

GENOSA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto; 10 miles SE. of Otranto.

GENOUILLAT, a town of France, in the dept. of Creuse; 9 miles W. of Bouffiac.

(1.) GENOUILLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Charente, 10 miles W. of St Jean.

(2.) GENOUILLE, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, 3 miles S. of Civray.

GENSAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Gironde, 9 miles SE. of Libourne.

GENSERIC, king of the Vandals in Spain, a barbarous conqueror of the 5th century. He succeeded his father Godefridus, A. D. 428; defeated Hermenric, king of the Suevi; over-ran all Africa, conquered Barbary, took Carthage, ravaged Sicily, and sacked Rome. See BARBARY, § 3; ROME, &c. He died in 477.

GENSING, in botany. See PANAX.

* GENT. *adj.* [*gent*, old French.] Elegant; soft; gentle; polite. A word now disused.—

Vespasian with great spoil and rage,

Forwasted all: 'till Genuilla *gent*

Persuaded him to cease.

Fairy Queen.
She that was noble, wise, as fair and *gent*,

Cast how she might their harmless lives prefer.

* GENTEEL. *adj.* [*gentil*, French.] 1. Polite; elegant in behaviour; civil.—He had a genteel manner of binding the chains of this king, than most of his predecessors. *Swift to Gay*.—Poets have no notion of genteel comedy, and into the most filthy double meanings, when they have a mind to make their audience merry. *son on Italy*. 2. Graceful in mien.—

So spruce that he can never be genteel. 3. Elegantly dressed.—Several ladies that twice her fortune, are not able to be always genteel, and so constant at all places of pleasure and expence. *Law*.

* GENTEEILLY. *adv.* [from *genteel*] Elegantly; politely.—Those that would be genteelly dressed, need not purchase it at the dear rate of the atheists. *Glanville*.—After a long fatigue of eating and drinking, and babbling, he concludes the work of dining genteelly. *South*. 2. Gracefully.

* GENTLENESS. *n. f.* [from *gentle*.] Elegance; gracefulness; politeness.—He had a genius full of gentleness and spirit, having notwithstanding that was ungraceful in his postures and dress. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*.—Parmegiano has dignified gentleness of modern effeminacy, by uniting it with the simplicity of the ancients, and the severity of Michael Angelo. *Reynolds*. Qualities befitting a man of rank.

GENTIAH, a town of Asia, in the country of Affam; 370 miles E. of Batna.

* GENTIAN. *n. f.* [*gentiane*, French; *gentiana*, Latin.] Felwort or baldmony.—The gentian is large and long, of a tolerably firm texture, and remarkably tough; it has a farinaceous disagreeable smell, and an extremely bitter taste. *Hist. Mat. Med.*—If it be fistulous, and the seed small, dilute it with gentian root. *Hist.*

GENTIANA, GENTIAN, in botany. A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranked under the 20th order *Rotaceae*. The corolla is monopetalous; the capsule bivalved and unilocular; there are two longitudinal receptacles. The remarkable species are the following:

1. GENTIANA CENTAUREUM, the lesser gentian of the shops, is a native of many parts of Britain. It grows on dry pastures; and its height is commonly proportioned to the goodness of the soil, as in rich soils it grows to the height of 4 feet, but in poor ones not above 3 or 4 inches. It is an annual plant with upright branching stems, garnished with small leaves, placed by pairs. The flowers grow in form of an umbel at the top of the stalk, and are of a bright purple colour. They come out in July, and the seed ripens in autumn. The plant cannot be cultivated in gardens. The tops are an useful aperient bitter, in which they are often used in the present practice of medicine.

2. GENTIANA LUTEA, the common gentian of the shops. It is a native of the mountainous parts of Germany; whence the roots, the chief part used in medicine, are brought to this country. These have a yellowish brown colour,

of taste. The lower leaves are of an oval shape, a little pointed at the end, yellowish green, and have 5 large veins each of each. The stalk rises 4 or 5 feet, clothed with leaves growing by pairs at almost embracing the stalk at their base. The upper leaves of the same form with the lower, but gradually in their size to the top. The flowers are out in whorls at the joints on the upper part of the stalks, standing on short footstalks, in the axils of the wings of the leaves. They are yellow colour. The roots of this are often used in medicine as stomachic bitters, but they are less exceptionable than the substances of this class. Infusions of it flavoured with orange peel, are successful. Some years ago a poisonous fungus was discovered among the gentian brought from the East; the use of which occasioned violent and in some cases death. This root is distinguished from the gentian, by its being of a white colour, and void of bitterness. *TIANELLA. n. f.* A kind of blue co-

GENTILE. n. f. [*gentilis*, Latin] 1. uncircumcised nation; one who knows not God.—Tribulation and anguish upon that doleful evil, of the Jew first, and almost all the Gentiles. *Rom. ii. 2.*—*Gentiles* or infidels, heathens, upon both the spiritual and temporal, have been in one pursuit conjoined. A person of rank. Obsolete.—*GENTILE. n. f.* [*gentilis*, Latin] 1. uncircumcised nation; one who knows not God.—Tribulation and anguish upon that doleful evil, of the Jew first, and almost all the Gentiles. *Rom. ii. 2.*—*Gentiles* or infidels, heathens, upon both the spiritual and temporal, have been in one pursuit conjoined. A person of rank. Obsolete.—

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ter, born at Pisa in 1563. After painting with great reputation at Florence, Rome, Genoa, and other parts of Italy, he removed to Savoy, thence to France, and at last came over to England, upon the invitation of Charles I.; who appointed him lodgings in his court, with a considerable salary; and employed him in his palace at Greenwich, and other public places. The most remarkable of his performances in England, were the ceilings of Greenwich and York house. He did also a Madonna, a Magdalen, and Lot with his two daughters, for king Charles. After the death of the king, when the royal collection was sold, nine of these pictures drew 600 l. His most esteemed work abroad was the portico of cardinal Bentivoglio's palace at Rome. He made several attempts in face-painting, but with little success; his talent lying altogether in histories, with figures as big as the life. After 12 years continuance in England, he died in 1647, aged 84; and was buried in the Queen's chapel at Somerset house. His head was drawn by Vandyke.

(2.) *GENTILESCHI*, Artemisia, daughter of the preceding, was little inferior to her father in painting history, and excelled him in portraits. She drew some of the royal family, and many of the nobility.

* *GENTILESSA. n. f.* [Fr.] Complaisance; civility. Not used.—

She with her wedding-cloaths undressed
Her complaisance and gentilesses. *Hudibras.*

(1.) *GENTILIS*, Albericus, professor of civil law at Oxford; an Italian by birth. He quitted Italy with his father, on account of religion. He wrote several works; 3 books in particular, *De jure belli*, which were useful to Grotius. He died at London in 1608.

(2.) *GENTILIS*, Scipio, brother to the former, and as celebrated a civilian, forsook his native country that he might openly profess the Protestant religion. He was counsellor of Nuremberg, and professor of law. In his lectures, as well as books, he mixed the flowers of polite learning with the thorns of the law. He died in 1616.

* *GENTILISM. n. f.* [*gentilisme*, Fr. from *gentile*.] Heathenism; paganism.—If invocation of saints had been produced in the apostolical times, it would have looked like the introducing of *gentilism* again. *Stillingfleet.*

* *GENTILIOUS. adj.* [*gentilitious*, Latin.] 1. Endemic; peculiar to a nation.—That an unfavorable odour is *gentilitious*, or national unto the Jews, reason or sense will not induce. *Brown.* 2. Hereditary; entailed on a family.—The common cause of this distemper is a particular and perhaps a *gentilitious* disposition of body. *Arbutnot.*

* *GENTILITY. n. f.* [*gentilité*, French; from *gentil*, French; *gentilis*, Latin.] 1. Good extraction; dignity of birth. 2. Elegance of behaviour; gracefulness of men; nicety of taste. 3. Gentry; the class of persons well born.—Gave kind must needs, in the end, make a poor *gentility*. *Drives on Ireland.* 4. Paganism; heathenism.—When people began to spy the falshood of oracles, whereupon all *gentility* was built, their hearts were utterly averted from it. *Hooker.*

GENTILLY, a town of France, in the dept.

of Paris; 4 miles S. of Paris. It was the residence of the kings of the Merovingian and Carlovingian races.

GENTILOUX, a town of France, in the dept. of Creuse, 9 miles SW. of Felletin.

(1.) * GENTLE, *adj.* [*gentilis*, Lat.] 1. Well born; well descended; ancient, though not noble.—They entering and killing all of the *gentle* and rich faction, for honesty sake broke open all prisons. *Sidney*.—These are the studies wherein our noble and *gentle* youth ought to bestow their time. *Milton*.

Of *gentle* blood, part shed in honour's cause,
Each parent sprung. *Pope*.

2. Soft; bland; mild; tame; meek; peaceable.—I am one of those *gentle* ones that will use the devil himself with courtesy. *Shak.*

Her voice was ever soft,
Gentle and low; an excellent thing in woman. *Shak.*

As *gentle*, and as jocund, as to jest,
Go I to fight. *Shak. Richard II.*
—A virtuous and a good man, reverend in conversation, and *gentle* in condition. 3 *Mac. xv. 12.*

The *gentlest* heart on earth is prov'd unkind. *Fairfax.*
Your change was wise; for, had she been deny'd,

A swift revenge had follow'd from her pride:
You from my *gentle* nature had no fears;
All my revenge is only in my tears. *Dryden.*
—He had such a *gentle* method of reproving their faults, that they were not so much afraid as ashamed to repeat them. *Atterbury*. 3. Soothing; pacific.

And though this sense first *gentle* music found,
Her proper object is the speech of men. *Davies*.

(2.) * GENTLE, *n. f.* 1. A gentleman; a man of birth. Now out of use.

Gentles, do not reprehend;
If you pardon, we will mend. *Shak.*
Where is my lovely bride?

How does my father? *Gentles*, methinks you frown. *Shak.*

2. A particular kind of worm.—He will in the three hot months bite at a flagworm, or at a green *gentle*. *Walton's Angler*.

* To GENTLE, *v. a.* To make gentle; to raise from the vulgar. Obsolete.—

He to day that sheds his blood with me,
Shall be my brother; be he never so vile,
This day shall *gentle* his condition. *Shak.*

* GENTLEFOLK, *n. f.* [*gentle* and *folk*.] Persons distinguished by their birth from the vulgar. The queen's kindred are made *gentlefolk*.

Shak. Richard III.
—*Gentlefolks* will not care for the remainder of a bottle of wine; therefore set a fresh one before them. *Savist.*

(1.) * GENTLEMAN, *n. f.* [*gentilhomme*, Fr. *gentiluomo*, Italian; that is, *gentilis*, a man of ancestry. All other derivations seem to be whimsical.] 1. A man of birth; a man of extraction, though not noble.—A civil war was within the bowels of that State, between the *gentlemen* and the peasants. *Sidney*.—

I freely told you all the wealth I had
Run in my veins; I was a gentleman. *Shak.*

He hither came a private *gentle*
But young and brave, and of a
Ancient and noble. *Or*

You say a long descent
Makes *gentlemen*, and that your
Is much disparag'd to be match'

2. A man raised above the vulgar to or post.—

Inquire me out some mean-boy
Whom I will marry straight to Clari

—He is so far from desiring to be a man, that he desires to be used as all. *Low*. 3. A term of complaisant ironical.—The same *gentlemen*, who piece of morality on the three making hand in hand, would have fou a one had there been four of them tance, and covered from head to 4. The servant that waits about the man of rank.—Sir Thomas More, ter he gave up his chancellorship wife's pew, and used the usual wo tleman usher, Madam, my lord is

Let be call'd be
That gentleman of Buckingham'

5. It is used of any man however b
The earl of Hereford was rep
In England the most valiant *gent*
—The king is a noble gentleman at *Shak.*

(2.) GENTLEMAN (§ 1. *def.* 1.) 1 prehended all above the rank of ye by even noblemen were truly ca See COMMONALTY, § 2. A *gentle* defined among heralds, to be one, w title, bears a coat of arms, or w have been freemen: and by the co tleman giveth, he is known to be, descended from those of his name many hundred years before. The ed of the French *gentil*, "fine, fast coming;" and the Saxon *man*. *T* *his homo* was used among the Rom descended of a race of noble perso name, born of free or ingenuous whose ancestors had never been sl death by law. Thus Cicero in his *ties sunt, qui inter se eodem sunt non* wards the declension of the Roman corded by Ammianus Marcellinu two companies of brave soldiers, *gentiles*, and the other *scutarii*.

thence, we derive the names *gentlem* *Pu*quire also supposes the appellation *gentes* to have been transmitted to Roman soldiery; it being to the *ge turn*, who were the bravest of the the principal hereditaries and portion assigned. See BENEFICE, § 2. 1 serving, that during the empire of the *scutarii* and *gentiles* had the best of all the soldiers, became insentit to apply the same names, *gentilhom* to such as they found their kings provision or appointments to. (

re confounded together by Sir Edward who observes, that every esquire is a gentleman and a gentleman is defined to be one in coat armour." It is indeed a matter unsettled, what constitutes the distinction; for it is not an ever large, that confers this rank upon

Camden, who was himself a herald, sets them the most accurately; and he puts forth of them. See ESQUIRE, § 1. s for gentlemen, says Sir Thomas Smith, de good cheap in this kingdom; for wholieth the laws of the realm, who studieth rarities, who professeth liberal sciences, can live idly and without manual labour will bear charge and countenance of a gentleman, he shall be called master, and shall be a gentleman.

1. GENTLEMAN USHER OF THE BLACK ROD.

2. GENTLEMEN OF THE CHAPEL; officers of duty and attendance in the royal chapel, number 32. Twelve of them are priests; 10, commonly called clerks of the chapel, performance of divine service. One is chosen for confessor of the household, to visit the sick, examine and communicate, and administer the sacrament. 20 clerks, well versed in music, is chosen first, who is master of the children, to sing in music, and whatever else is necessary service of the chapel; a second is like-ganist; a third a lutanist; and a fourth there are likewise three vergers, to carry silver rods they carry in their hands; jeant, a yeoman, and groom of the vestry attend the dean and subdean, and ceteras and other necessities for the chapel; has the whole care of the chapel, keeps records of the nobility and gentry; the his attendance within the chapel door, after it.

3. GENTLEMANLIKE. } *adj.* [gentleman and gentlemanly. } *like.* Becoming a

h. — He holdeth himself a gentleman, h to work, which, he saith, is the life of a churl; but enureth himself to his trade to the gentlemanly trade of stealing.

4. GENTLEMANLY. — Pyramus is a sweet-fac'd man; as one shall see in a summer's day; by gentlemanlike man. *Shakef.* — You set me up like a peasant, hiding from me unlike qualities. *Shakef.* — Two clergy-candidates for a free-school, where a procured the place for the better schooled gentlemanly person of the two. *Swift.*

5. GENTLENESS. *n. f.* [from *gentle*.] 1. Digress; goodness of extraction. 2. Softness; sweetness of disposition; meekness;

— My lord Sebastian, you speak, doth lack some gentleness.

3. GENTLENESS. *Shakef.* — rave and baughty scorn of all, my with that esteem'd, d slavish virtue seem'd. *Cowley.*

4. GENTLENESS.

Still she retains

Her maiden gentleness, and oft at eve Visits the herds. *Milton.*

— The perpetual gentleness and inherent goodness of the Ormond family. *Dryd. Fuh* — Charges are brought about silently and insensibly, with all imaginable benignity and gentleness. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.* — Masters must correct their servants with gentleness, prudence, and mercy. *Rovers.* — Women ought not to think gentleness of heart despicable in a man. *Clarissa.* 3. Kindness; benevolence. Obsolete. —

The gentleness of all the gods go with thee.

6. GENTLESHIP. *n. f.* [from *gentle*.] Carriage of a gentleman. Obsolete. — Some in France, which will needs be gentlemen, have more gentlenesship in their hat than in their head. *Ascham.*

7. GENTLEWOMAN. *n. f.* [from *gentle* and woman. See GENTLEMAN.] 1. A woman of birth above the vulgar; a woman well descended. — The gentlewomen of Rome did not suffer their infants to be so long swathed as poorer people. *Ap- bat's World.* —

Doth this sir Protheus

Often resort unto this gentlewoman? *Shakef.* — Gentlewomen may do themselves much good by kneeling upon a cushion, and weeping. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. A woman who waits about the person of one of high rank. —

The late queen's gentlewoman, a knight's daughter,

To be her mistress' mistress! *Shak. Hen VIII.*

Her gentlewoman, like the Nereids, So many mermaids, tended her i' th' eyes, And made their bends adorning. *Shakef.*

3. A word of civility or irony. — Now, gentlewoman, you are confessing your enormities; I know it by that hypocritical down-cast look. *Dryden.*

GENTLIN, a town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburg, 30 miles E. of Magdeburg.

8. GENTLY. *adv.* [from *gentle*.] 1. Softly; meekly; tenderly; inoffensively; kindly. —

My mistress gently chides the fault I made. *Dryden.*

— The mischiefs that come by inadvertency, or ignorance, are but very gently to be taken notice of. *Locke.* 2. Sottly; without violence. —

Fortune's blows,

When most struck home, being gently warded, crave

A noble cunning. *Shakef. Coriolanus.*

— A sort of great bat, as men ly asleep with their legs naked, will suck their blood at a wound so gently made as not to awake them. *Grew's Mus.*

GENTOOS, in modern history, according to the common acceptation of the term, denote the professors of the religion of the bramins or brachmans, who inhabit the country called HINDOOSTAN, or INDOSTAN, in the East Indies, from the word *san*, a region, and *hind* or *hindoo*: which Ferishteh, as we learn from colonel Dow's translation of his history, supposes to have been a son of Ham, the son of Noah. Hindoo, however, is not the name by which the inhabitants originally styled themselves; but, according to the idiom of the *Schanferit* which they use, *jumbadoep*, from

3

jumboe,

Jumboo, a jackall, an animal common in their country; and *deep*, a large portion of land surrounded by the sea; or *bheretkunt*, from *khant*, i. e. a continent, and *bherhut*, the name of one of the first Indian rajahs. They have assumed the name of *Hindoo* only since the era of the Patar government, to distinguish themselves from their conquerors the Mussalmen. The term *Gentoo* or *Gent*, in the Sanscrit dialect, denotes animal in general, and in its more confined sense, *man-kind*, and is never appropriated particularly to such as follow the doctrines of *Brahma*. The *Gentoo*s are divided into 4 great tribes, each of which has its own separate appellation; but they have no common or collective term that comprehends the whole nation, under the idea affixed by the Europeans to the word *Gentoo*. Mr Halhed, in the preface to his translation of the Code of *Gentoo* Laws, conjectures, that the Portuguese, on their first arrival in India, hearing the word frequently in the mouths of the natives, as applied to mankind in general, might adopt it for the domestic appellation of the Indians themselves; or perhaps their bigotry might figure from the word *Gentoo* a fanciful allusion to *Gentile*. The *Hindoo*s, or *Gentoo*s, vie with the Chinese as to the antiquity of their nation. They reckon the duration of the world by four *jogues*, or distinct ages: The 1st is the *Suttee jogue*, or age of purity, which is said to have lasted about 3,100,000 years: during which the life of man was 20,000 years, and his stature 21 cubits: The 2d, the *Tirtah jogue*, or the age in which one third of mankind were reprobated; which consisted of 2,400,000 years, when men lived to the age of 10,000 years: The 3d, the *Dwapar jogue*, in which half of the human race became depraved; which endured to 600,000 years, when men's lives were reduced to 1000 years: and 4th, the *Collee jogue*, in which all mankind were corrupted, or rather diminished, which the word *collee* imports. This is the present era, which they suppose will subsist for 400,000. of which near 5000 are already past; and man's life in this period is limited to 100 years. Many authors suppose that most of the *Gentoo Shasters*, or scriptures, were composed about the beginning of the *Collee jogue*: but an objection occurs against this supposition, viz. that the *shasters* take no notice of the deluge; to which the *bramins* reply, that all their scriptures were written before the time of Noah, and the deluge never extended to *Hindoo*tan. Nevertheless, it appears from the *shasters* themselves, that they claim a much higher antiquity than this; instances of which are recited by Mr Halhed. The doctrine of *TRANSMIGRATION* is one of the distinguishing tenets of the *Gentoo*s. It is then opinion, according to Mr Holwell, that those souls which have attained to a certain degree of purity, either by the innocence of their manners or the severity of their mortifications, are removed to regions of happiness proportioned to their respective merits; but that those who cannot to far surmount the prevalence of bad examples and the powerful degeneracy of the times, as to deserve such a promotion are condemned to undergo continual punishment in the animation of successive animals, until, at the stated period, another renovation of the four

jogues shall commence, upon the d the present. They imagine six disks above the earth; the highest of which is the residence of *Brahma* or *Brah* particular favourites. This sphere is a station of those men who never intermix and of those women who have united themselves with their husbands; who expressly enjoined in the code of the C This code, printed by the East India 1776, is a very curious collection of prudence, which was selected from canals in the Sanscrit language, by the erced Pundits, or lawyers; who we for this purpose from May 1773 to February 1775 is translated into the Persian into English by Mr Halhed. The contained in this collection are interwoven religion of the *Gentoo*s, and reverend highest authority. The curious recovers an astonishing similarity between the code and many of the Jewish law; between the *chambrains* or priests, and the *Levites*; the ceremony of the scape goat under dispersion, and a *Gentoo* ceremony *ashvamedh*, in which a horse and pole of the goat. Many obsolete usages, attested in many parts of the testament, may also receive illustration from the code. It appears from that the *bramins* who are the priests of the country, have resigned all executive power into the hands of the caste or tribe; and no *bramin* has been capable of the magistracy since the first *jogue*. The only privilege, in which they have appropriated to themselves exemption from all capital punishment, is perpetual exile; but it is everywhere ordained, that a *bramin* shall not die on any account whatsoever. and original tribes into which the *Gentoo*s are divided, according to their theology, 1. the four different members of *Brahma* proposed immediate agent of the creative spirit of the Almighty. These tribes are the *BRAMINS*, which proceeded from his whole office is to pray, read, and instruct; the *CHETTEREES*, which proceeded from his office is to draw the bow, to fight, and govern; 3. the *BRE*, which proceed from his belly or thigh, who are to provide food or life by agriculture and traffic; and from his feet, which are ordained to and travel. Few Christians, says the the *Gentoo* code, have expressed themselves more becoming reverence of the spiritual deities of Providence, in all with a more extensive charity towards fellow creatures of every profession *Gentoo*s. It is indeed an artifice of the *bramins*, that God's all merciful not have permitted such a number of nations, if he had not found a pleasing variety.

* GENTRY. n. s. [gentility, gentry

condition; rank derived from inheri-

are certainly a gentleman,
he experienc'd, which no less adorns
us than our parent's noble name,
in success we are gentle. *Shak.*

f people above the vulgar; those be-
vulgar and the nobility.—They slaugh-
er of the gentry, for whom no sex or
be accepted for excuse. *Sidney.*—Let
t aim at greatness, take heed how their
id gentry multiply too fast. *Bacon.*—
cheerfully the hawkers cry
and the gentry buy. *Swift,*

of civility real or ironical.—
many coloured gentry there above,
are rul'd by tumult and by love. *Prior,*
; complaisance. Obsolete.—

us so much gentry and good-will,
attend your time with us a while. *Shak.*
SING, a town of China, in the pro-
vince of Szechuen.

1. See GENOA, § 5.

ELECTENTES. See CATECHUMEN,

GENUFLECTION. *n. f.* [*genuflexion*,
and *flexio*, Lat.] The act of bending the
knee, or the motion expressed by bending the knee.
In all the rites of adoration, *genuflexions*,
as, incense, oblations, prayers only ex-
celling fleet.

GENUFLECTION, says the Jesuit Rosweyd,
in the East, has been a very ancient cus-
tom in the church, even under the Old Testa-
ment; and was observed through-
out the East, excepting on Sundays, and from
Whit Sunday, when kneeling was for-
bidden by the council of Nice. Others have
attributed the custom of not kneeling on
Sundays to the time of the apostles, as it
appears from St Irenæus, and Tertul-
lian. The Ethiopic church, scrupulously at-
tending to ancient ceremonies, still retains that
at divine service. The Russians esteem
it an indecent posture to worship God on the
knees, as the Jews usually prayed standing. Ros-
weyd gives the reasons of the prohibition of ge-
nuflection on Sundays, &c. from St Basil, Anastasi-
us, &c.

GENUINE. *adj.* [*genwinus*, Lat.] Not spu-
ritual; counterfeit; real; natural; true.—
We were at one time tried with genuine
and at another time sophisticated ones.
Faith, belief and remembrance, and love and
hope, have so great influence to make men
happy, that where any of these is, the rest, to-
gether with the true and genuine effects of them,
must follow. *Tillotson.*—

A sudden darkness covers all;
the night: night added to the groves.

Dryden.

GENUINELY. *adv.* [from *genuine*.] With-
out mixture; without foreign admixtures;
There is another agent able to analyze
bodies less violently, more genuinely,
and more universally than fire. *Boyle.*

GENUINENESS. *n. f.* [from *genuine*.] Free-
dom from counterfeit; freedom from

adulteration; purity; natural state.—It is not
essential to the *genuineness* of colours to be du-
rable. *Boyle.*

(1.) * GENUS. *n. f.* [Latin.] In science, a
class of beings, comprehending under it many spe-
cies: as *quadruped* is a *genus* comprehending un-
der it almost all terrestrial beasts.—A general idea is
called by the schools *genus*, and it is one common
nature agreeing to several other common natures:
so animal is a *genus*, because it agrees to horse,
lion, whale, and butterfly. *Watt's Logick.*—If mi-
nerals are not convertible into another species,
though of the same *genus*, much less can they
be furnished reducible into a species of another
genus. *Harvey on Consump.*

(2.) GENUS is also used for a character or man-
ner applicable to every thing of a certain nature
or condition: in which sense it serves to make
capital divisions in divers sciences, as medicine, na-
tural history, &c.

(3.) GENUS, in medicine. See MEDICINE, un-
der the *Nojology*.

(4.) GENUS, in metaphysics and logic, denotes
a number of beings which agree in certain gene-
ral properties common to them all; so that a ge-
nus is nothing else but an abstract idea, expressed
by some general name or term. See LOGIC and
METAPHYSICS.

(5.) GENUS, in music, by the ancients called
genus melodia, is a certain manner of dividing and
subdividing the principles of melody, *i. e.* the con-
sonant and dissonant intervals, into their concin-
nous parts. The moderns considering the octave
as the most perfect of intervals, and that whereon
all the cords depend, in the present theory of music,
the division of that interval is considered as con-
taining the true division of the whole scale. But
the ancients went to work somewhat differently;
the *diatessaron*, or fourth, was the least interval
which they admitted as concord; and therefore
they sought first how that might be most conve-
niently divided; from whence they constituted
the diapente and diapason. The diatessaron being
thus, as it were, the root and foundation of the
scale, what they called the *genera*, or kinds, a-
rose from its various divisions; and hence they
defined the *genus modulandi* to be the manner of
dividing the tetrachord and disposing its 4 sounds
as to succession. The genera of the music were
3, the ENHARMONIC, CHROMATIC, and DIATO-
NIC. (See these articles.) The two first were va-
riously subdivided; and even the last, though that
is commonly reckoned to be without any species,
yet different authors have proposed different di-
visions, under that name, without giving any par-
ticular names to the species, as were done in the
other two.

(6.) GENUS, in natural history, a subdivision of
any class or order of natural beings, whether of
the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdoms, all
agreeing in certain common characters. See BO-
TANY and ZOOLOGY.

(7.) GENUS, in rhetoric, Authors distinguish
the art of rhetoric, as well as orations or discour-
ses produced thereby, into 3 genera, demonstra-
tive, deliberative, and judiciary. To the demon-
strative kind belong panegyrics, genethliacons, epi-
thalamiums, funeral harangues, &c. To the deli-

berative, perfone, dissuasions, commendations, &c. To theiciary, accusations and defences.
GENZANO, a town of Naples in the prov. of Basilicata, 12 miles ESE. of Venola.

* **GEOCENTRICK**. *adj.* [*γην and κεντρον*; *geocentrique*, Fr.] Applied to a planet or orb having the earth for its centre, or the same centre with the earth. *Harris.*

* **GEODÆSIA**. *n. f.* [*γεωδαισια*; *geodesic*, French.] That part of geometry which contains the doctrine or art of measuring surfaces, and finding the contents of all plain figures. *Harris.*

* **GEODÆTICAL**. *adj.* [*from geodæsia*.] Relating to the art of measuring surfaces; comprehending or showing the art of measuring land.

GEOFFRÆA. See **GEOFFRŒA**.

GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH, Bp. of St Asaph, called by our ancient biographers *Gallofridus Monumetensis*. Leland conjectures that he was educated in a benedictine convent at Monmouth, where he was born; and that he became a monk of that order. Bale, and after him Pits, call him archdeacon of Monmouth; and it is generally asserted, that he was made bishop of St Asaph, in 1151 or 1152, in the reign of K. Stephen. His history was probably finished after 1138. It contains a fabulous account of British kings, from Brutus the grandson of Æneas the Trojan to Cadwallader, in 690. But Geoffrey, though we may blame his credulity, was not the inventor of the legendary history. It is a translation from a MS. written in the British language, and brought to England from Armorica by his friend Gualter, archdeacon of Oxford. But the achievements of king Arthur, Merlin's prophecies, and many speeches and letters, were chiefly his own additions. In excuse for this historian, Mr Wharton judiciously observes, that fabulous histories were then the fashion, and popular traditions a recommendation to his book.

GEOFFRŒA, or } in botany, a genus of the
GEOFFROYA, } decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order *Papilionaceæ*. The calyx is quinquefid, the fruit an oval plum; the kernel compress'd. There is only one species, viz.

GEOFFROYA INERMIS, the cabbage-bark tree, a native of Brasil and Jamaica. See *Plate CLX, fig. 5*. The wood is used in building; but it is chiefly valued for its bark, which is administered as an anthelmintic medicine. From this medical property it is also called the *worm-bark tree*. This bark is of a grey colour externally, but black and

furrowed on the inside. It has a mild and sweetish taste, and a disagreeable smell given in cases of worms, in form of decoction, syrup, and extract. The decoction is preferred; and is made by slowly boiling of the fresh dried bark in a quart of water, till it assume the colour of Madeira wine. The nels is the syrup; evaporated, it forms a solid mass. It commonly produces some sickness and sometimes violent effects, as vomiting, and fever. These last are said to be overcome by the use of warm water, castor oil, and tartaric acid. It should always be begun with small doses. But when properly and cautiously administered, it is said to operate as a ver anthelmintic, particularly for the expulsion of *lumbri*, which are a very common case in the West India islands, where it is frequently employed. But it has, we believe, but little use in Britain.

GEOFFROY, Stephen Francis, M.D. celebrated physician, botanist, and chemist, Paris, in 1672. After having finished his studies in Paris, he travelled into England, Holland, &c. In 1704, he received the degree of M.D. and at length became professor of chemistry at the Royal College. He wrote, 1. Several very curious Theſes, which were afterwards translated in French. 2. An excellent treatise intitled *Tractatus de Medicina, sive Medicamentorum simplicium virtute, delectu, et usu*. He died at Paris, in 1731.

* **GEOGRAPHER**. *n. f.* [*γην and γραφω*, French.] One who describes, according to the position of the different parts of the earth, hath employed than hath been known or described by the old geographers. *Ad Craterem* by the old geographers. *Ad Craterem* by the old geographers. *Ad Craterem* by the old geographers.

From sea to sea, from mountain to mountain, and grow a new geographer by love.

(1.) * **GEOGRAPHICAL**. *adj.* [*from γεωγραφικος*, French; from *γραφω*.] Relating to geography; belonging to geography.

(2.) **GEOGRAPHICAL MILE**, the farthest sea mile; being one minute, or the 60th part of a great circle on the earth.

* **GEOGRAPHICALLY**. *adv.* [*from γεωγραφικος*.] In a geographical manner; according to the rules of geography.—Minerva lends to the knowledge of this country; she calls it to the knowledge of this country; she calls it to the knowledge of this country.

G E O G R A P H Y.

SECT. I. DEFINITIONS and DIVISIONS of the SCIENCE.

GEOGRAPHY is thus defined by Dr JOHNSON:

* **GEOGRAPHY**. *n. f.* [*γην and γραφω*; *geographia*, French.] Geography, in a strict sense, signifies the knowledge of the circles of the earthly globe, and

the situation of the various parts of the earth. When it is taken in a little larger sense, the knowledge of the seas also; and in a still larger sense, it extends to the various customs, and governments of nations. *Warpus* is extolled by the Greeks as attaining to the knowledge of the earth; but *geography* makes slight account of, when they discourse of Andes

lg. Errs.—According to ancient fables its sailed up the Danube, and from thence into the Adriatick, carrying their heir shoulders; a mark of great ignorance. *Arbutnet on Coins.*

PHYSICAL is more accurately defined by Dr. **VARENIUS** as “the science that teaches and examines the nature and properties of the earth, as to its place, magnitude, motions, celestial aspects, &c. with the various lines, real or imaginary, on its surface. Geography is distinguished from **TOPOGRAPHY**, as a part from the whole; considering the whole visible world, land and earth. And from **TOPOGRAPHY** it is distinguished, as the whole from a part.

PHYSICAL considers geography as either exterior: but **VARENIUS** more justly divides it into general and special, or universal and particular.

GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY is that which considers the earth in general without reference to particular countries; or the affection of the whole globe, as its figure, motion, land, sea, &c.

SPECIAL OR PARTICULAR GEOGRAPHY is that which contemplates the constitution of the several regions, or countries, their bounds, climate, seasons, weather, inhabitants, arts, language, &c..”

PHYSICAL is considered in a still more extensive and comprehensive view, by other modern geographers, who divide it into **ASTRONOMICAL** and **PHYSICAL** GEOGRAPHY.

ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY comprehends the determination of the magnitude and figure of the earth, the measurement of the degree of the arc of different latitudes: Proportion of the circumference to the diameter of the equator: Circumference of the earth: Division of its surface by latitude; by zones; by circles of longitude: Methods of finding the latitude and longitude: Representation of the earth's surface on a spherical globe; and on a plane: by maps; by charts; stereographic, conical, and globular projection, &c. &c.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY comprehends the description of the earth, according to the properties of its several substances, which compose it: The division into solid and fluid: division of the atmosphere into air and water: The gravity, extent, depth, saltness, productions, and general properties of the ocean; the phenomena of the winds, whirlpools, &c. Division of the earth into stratified and unstratified; metallic veins, &c. Natural divisions of the earth from the variousities of its surface: Structure and height of mountains, &c. Divisions of the earth as connected with the atmosphere: View of its constitution: elasticity, density, and temperature: Congelation; evaporation; rain; origin of rivers, springs, and lakes; motion, velocity, and windings, inundations, &c. of rivers: Divisions of the earth from the distribution of cold of its surface: Unequal distribution of heat in the atmosphere the cause of winds: The various forms of the earth formed by the phenomena of the sea, &c. &c.

It must be allowed, that this complete and comprehensive view of the science, is quite agreeable to the original meaning of the word, *Γεωγραφία*, which is derived from *γῆ*, earth, and *γραφειν*, to write or describe; and may therefore be used to signify a description of the earth, both external and internal, in the fullest sense of the word. But as **PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY** comprehends the subject of many other sciences, which will be found treated of under **AEROLOGY**, **CHEMISTRY**, **EARTH**, **ELECTRICITY**, **MAGNETISM**, **METALLURGY**, **MINERALOGY**, **RIVER**, **TIDE**, **WIND**, &c. &c. we mean to restrict the present treatise to **ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY**, and more especially to that branch of it above defined by **VARENIUS**, under the title of **GENERAL GEOGRAPHY**; the particular geography of the various countries, kingdoms, cities, towns, &c. being to be found in their order, under their respective names throughout this work.

SECT. II. HISTORY of GEOGRAPHY.

It is quite uncertain when geography began first to be studied among mankind. It is generally agreed, that the knowledge of it was derived to the Greeks, who first of the European nations cultivated this science, from the Egyptians or Babylonians; but it is impossible to determine which of these two nations had the honour of the invention. Herodotus tells us, that the Greeks first learned the poles, the gnomon, and the 12 divisions of the day, from the Babylonians. **PLINY**, and **DIOGENES LAERTIUS**, however, tell us, that **Thales of Miletus** first found out the passage of the sun from tropic to tropic; which he could not have done without the assistance of a gnomon. He is said to have been the author of two books, the one on the tropic, and the other on the equinox; both of which he probably determined by the gnomon; and thus he was led to discover the four seasons of the year, which are determined by the solstices and equinoxes.

THALES divided the year into 365 days; which was undoubtedly a method discovered by the Egyptians, and communicated by them to him. It is said to have been invented by **Mercurius Trismegistus**, who, according to **Eusebius**, lived about 50 years after the departure of the Israelites out of Egypt. **Pliny** tells us expressly, that this discovery was made by observing when the shadow returned to its marks; a clear proof that it was done by the gnomon. **Thales** also knew the method of determining the height of bodies by the length of their shadows, as appears by his proposing this method for measuring the height of the Egyptian pyramids. Hence many learned men have been of opinion, that as the use of the gnomon was known in Egypt long before the dawn of learning in Greece, the pyramids and obelisks, which to common travellers appeared to be only buildings of magnificence, were in reality as many sun-dials, built on a very large scale, with a design to ascertain the season of the year, by the variation of the length of their shadows. In confirmation of this opinion, it was found by **M. CHAZELLES**, in 1694, that the two sides, both of the larger and smaller pyramids,

stood

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stood exactly N. and S.; so that they still form true meridian lines.

From the time of Thales, who flourished in the sixth century before Christ, very little seems to have been done towards the improvement of geography for 200 years. During this period, there is only one astronomical observation recorded; namely, that of METON and EUPTOMON, who observed the summer solstice at Athens, during the archonship of Apseudes, on the 21st of the Egyptian month Phamenoth, in the morning, being the 27th of June, A. A. C. 432. This observation was made by watching narrowly the shadow of the gnomon, and was done with a design to fix the beginning of their cycle of 19 years.

TIMOCHARIS and ARISTILLUS, who began to observe about A. A. C. 395, seem to have been the first who attempted to determine the longitudes and latitudes of the fixed stars, by considering their distances from the equator. One of their observations gave rise to the discovery of the precession of the equinoxes, which was first observed by HIPPARCHUS, about 150 years after; who also made use of their method, to delineate the parallels of latitude, and the meridians on the surface of the earth; thus laying the foundation of the science, as it is now studied.

The latitudes and longitudes, thus introduced by Hipparchus, were not however, much attended to till PROCELY'S time. STRABO, Vitruvius and Pliny, entered into a minute geographical description of the situation of places, according to the length of the shadows of the gnomon, without taking the least notice of the longitudes and latitudes.

But Hipparchus's discovery of the longitudes and latitudes soon laid a foundation for making maps, or delineations of the surface of the earth *in plano*, on a very different plan from what had been formerly attempted. Maps were at first little more than rude outlines and topographical sketches of different countries. The earliest were those of SESOSTRIS, mentioned by Eustathius; who says, that "this Egyptian king, having traversed great part of the earth, recorded his march in maps, and gave copies of his maps not only to the Egyptians, but to the Scythians, to their great astonishment."

Some imagine, that the Israelites made a map of the Holy Land, when they gave the different portions to the seven tribes at Shiloh, which seems extremely probable. for JOSHUA tells us, that they were sent to walk through the land, and that they *described it by cities in seven parts in a book*; and JOSEPHUS tells us, that when Joshua sent out people from the different tribes to measure the land, he gave them, as companions, persons well skilled in geometry, who could not be mistaken (Josh. xviii. 8, 9.)

The first Grecian map on record is that of ANAXIMANDER, mentioned by STRABO, lib. i. p. 7. It has been conjectured, that this was a general map of the then known world, and it is supposed to be the one referred to by Hipparchus as *name of the ancient map*.

ERATOSTHENES minutely describes a map made by ANAXAGORAS tyrant of Miletus, which will give us some idea of the maps of those

ages. He tells us, that ANAXAGORAS sent Cleomenes king of Sparta, with a vessel, to attack the king of Persia, palace at Susa, in order to restore them their ancient liberty. It was traced in copper, and contained the intermediate which were to be traversed in that manner, as Eratosthenes tells us, that it contained "the circumference of the earth, the whole of it, and all the rivers;" but from the statuary at that time, it may be fairly conjectured by the *whole sea* was meant no more than the Mediterranean; and therefore, the earth was divided into the coasts of that sea, and par Lesser Asia, extending towards the Persia. The rivers were the Halys, and Tigris, which Herodotus mentions to be crossed in that expedition, contained one straight line, called the *way*, which took in all the places of it from Sardis to Susa. Of these there the whole journey, containing 13,500 Roman miles of 5000 feet each.

These itinerary maps of the places were indispensably necessary in ANAXAGORAS quotes ERATOSTHENES as author of the *encampments of Alexander* and likewise Amyntas to the same purpose tells us, that Diogenes and Eratosthenes surveyors of Alexander's marches, and the exact number of miles according to duration; which he afterwards confirmed by letters of ALEXANDER himself. The latter also remarks that a copy of this great survey was given by Xenocles his son PATROCLES the geographer, who, as Eratosthenes informs us, was admiral of the fleets of Antiochus. His book on geography is quoted both by Strabo and Pliny; and Eratosthenes with the principal in constructing this map of the oriental world.

ERATOSTHENES first attempted to apply to a regular system, and introduced a regular parallel of latitude. This was certain places where the longest day was the same length. He began it from the straits of Gibraltar; and it thence passed through the sea, and near the southern extremity of Sicily. Thence it was continued to the straits of Rhodes and the Bay of Issus; entering Cilicia, and crossing the Euphrates, it was extended to the mountain Caucasus. By means of this line, he endeavoured to correct the errors of the ancient map. In doing this, he was regulated by observing the longest day was 14½ hours, which he afterwards determined to be the latitude of Rhodes. This first parallel through Rhodes was considered with a degree of preference as the foundation stone of all ancient maps; a general idea of the then known world was attempted to be measured in stadia and according to the extent of that line, by the geographers.

Eratosthenes soon after attempted to draw other parallels of latitude, but also a meridian at right angles to these, passing

of Alexandria, down to Syene and Menelaus at last undertook a still more arduous task to determine the circumference of the earth by an actual measurement of a segment of great circles.

But the magnitude of the earth is insupportable which has probably engaged the efforts of astronomers and geographers ever since the figure of it was known. ANAXAGORAS is said to have been the first among the ancients who wrote upon this subject. ARCHYTA, a Pythagorean, famous for his mathematics and mechanics, also made attempts in this way; and Dr Long conjectures these are the authors of the most ancient treatise, that the circumference of the earth is 360,000 stadia. ARISTARCHUS of Samos is also said to have considered the magnitude of the sun and moon. ARCHYTA is also said to have held the circumference of the earth to be 30,000 stadia; but it does not appear what methods were made use of by these philosophers to solve the problem. Perhaps they were assisted by observations of stars in the sky, the horizon, and actual mensuration of parts of the circumference of the earth. PTOLEMY in his treatise *De Geog.* affords a clue. In that work he says, that distances through our zenith, according as we go more or less northerly; and that the parts of the earth stars come above us, which, if we go northward, are no longer visible. Hence it appears, that there are different methods of measuring the circumference of the earth, by observing stars which pass through the zenith of one place, and do not pass through the zenith of another; the other by observing some stars above the horizon of one place, and are not visible at the same time to be in the horizon of another. ERATOSTHENES, made use of the former method, is the best, at Alexandria in Egypt, A. D. 276.

He knew, that at the summer solstice the sun was vertical to the inhabitants of Syene, and that the sun's shadow, under the tropic, where they had a well built for the purpose, on the bottom of which the rays of the sun fell perpendicularly on the day of the summer solstice. He observed by the shadow of a column perpendicular in an hemispherical basin, how much the sun was on that day at noon in the zenith of Alexandria; and found it to be the 50th part of a great circle. Then supposing Syene and Alexandria to be under the same meridian, he concluded the distance between them to be the 50th part of a great circle upon the earth; and this being by measure 5000 stadia, he concluded the circumference of the earth to be 250,000 stadia: as this number divided by 360 would give a degree, either Eratosthenes or some of his followers assigned the round number of 360,000 stadia to a degree; which multiplied makes the circumference of the earth 360,000 stadia; whence both these measures are different authors as that of Eratosthenes, and of POMPEY the Great, POSSIDONIUS attempted to measure the circumference

of the earth by Aristotle's 2d method, viz. horizontal observations. Knowing that the star called Canopus was but just visible in the horizon of Rhodes, and that at Alexandria its meridian height was the 48th part of a great circle in the heavens, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ deg.; answering to the like quantity of a circle on the earth: then supposing them both to be under the same meridian, and the distance between them to be 5000 stadia, the circumference of the earth will be 240,000 stadia; which is the first measure of Possidonus. But according to Strabo, Possidonus made the measure of the earth to be 180,000 stadia, at the rate of 300 stadia to a degree. The reason of this difference is thought to be, that Eratosthenes measured the distance between Rhodes and Alexandria, and found it only 3,750 stadia: Taking this for a 48th part of the earth's circumference, which is the measure of Possidonus, the whole circumference will be 180,000 stadia. This measure was received by MARINUS of Tyre, and is usually ascribed to Ptolemy. Possidonus's method, however, is found to be exceedingly erroneous, on account of the great refraction in the stars near the horizon, the difficulty of measuring the distance at sea between Rhodes and Alexandria, and from his supposing these places under the same meridian, when they are really very different. CALPURNIUS remarks, that taking exactly the mean betwixt the last dimensions of Eratosthenes and Possidonus, a degree of a great circle upon the earth will be 600 stadia, and a minute of a degree 10 stadia, which is just a mile and a quarter of the ancient Roman measure and a mile of the modern measure.

Several geographers, after the time of Eratosthenes and Possidonus, made use of the different heights of the pole in distant places under the same meridian, to find the dimensions of the earth. About A. D. 800, the khalif Almamun had the distance measured of two places two degrees asunder, and under the same meridian, in the plains of Sinjar near the Red Sea. The result was, that the mathematicians found the degree at one time to consist of 36 miles, and at another of $36\frac{1}{2}$, or $36\frac{3}{4}$.

The next attempt to find the circumference of the earth was in 1525, by FERMEL, a learned French physician. To attain his purpose, he took the height of the pole at Paris, going from thence directly northwards, until he came to the place where the height of the pole was one degree more than at that city. The length of the way was measured by the number of revolutions made by one of the wheels of his carriage; and after proper allowances for the declivities and turnings of the road, he concluded that 68 Italian miles were equal to a degree on the earth.

SNELLIUS, an eminent Dutch mathematician, next attempted to measure the circumference of the earth. Having taken the heights of the pole at Alcmarr and at Bergen op Zoom, he found the difference to be $1^{\circ} 11' 30''$. He next measured the distance betwixt the parallels of these two places, by taking several stations and forming triangles; by means of which he found the degree to consist of 341,676 Leyden feet. Having measured the distance betwixt the parallels of Ale-

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and Leyden, which differ only half a degree in their latitude, the calculation came out 342,120 Leyden feet to a degree. Hence he assigned the round number 342,000 Leyden feet to a degree: which, according to Picard, amounts to 55,021 French toises.

In 1635, Mr NORWOOD, an Englishman, took the elevations of the pole at London and at York; and having measured the distance betwixt the two parallels, assigned 69½ miles and two poles to a degree; each pole being reckoned 16½ feet.

After 1654, Ricciolus made use of several methods to determine the circumference of the earth; from all which he concluded, that one degree contained 64,363 Bologna paces, which are equivalent to 61,650 French toises. The most remarkable attempt, however, was that of the French mathematicians, who employed telescopic sights for the purpose, which had never been done before. These are much the best; as by them the view may be directed to an object at a greater distance, and towards any point with more certainty; whence the triangles for measuring distances may be formed with greater accuracy than otherwise can be done. In consequence of this improvement, the fundamental base of their operations was much longer than that made use of by Snellius or Ricciolus. The distance measured was between the parallels of Sourdon and Malvoisine; between which the difference of the polar altitude is somewhat more than one degree. The result of the whole, as related by PICARD, was, that one degree contained 57,060 French toises.

As this problem can be the more accurately determined in proportion to the length of the meridian line measured, the members of the Royal Academy prolonged theirs quite across the kingdom of France, measuring it trigonometrically all the way. This work was begun in 1683, and finished in 1718. They used Picard's fundamental base, as being measured with sufficient accuracy; and an account of the whole was published by Cassini in 1720. In this work some mistakes were detected in the calculations of Snellius; and it was likewise shown, that there are errors in those of Ricciolus owing principally to the latter having taken too short a fundamental base, and not having paid sufficient attention to the effects of refraction. But though Snellius, had made some mistakes in his calculations, there is no reason to doubt the accuracy of his observations. Holland, by its flatness, is the fittest country in Europe for measuring an arc of the meridian; and Snellius had an uncommon opportunity of observing the exactness of his fundamental base, viz. the distance betwixt one tower at Leyden and another at Southerwode. A frost happened just after the country round Leyden had been overflowed; by which means he was enabled to take two stations upon the ice, the distance between which he carefully measured 4 times over; and then from these stations he observed the angles which the visual rays pointing at those towers made with the straight line upon the ice. From these considerations professor MUSCHENBROEK was induced to make new calculations and form triangles upon the fundamental base of Snellius, which he did in 1700; and from thence he assigns

57,033 toises to a degree, which is more than had been done by the academicians.

In consequence of various opinions entertained concerning the true figure of the earth, and the magnitude of a degree upon Messrs. MAUPERTUIS, CLAIRAUT, and L'OUTRE, of France, were sent by Louis the 14th to measure the arch of the meridian in different regions of the earth.

They began their operations, assisted by CELSIUS, an eminent astronomer of Sweden, in Lapland, in July 1736; and by the end of May following, had obtained the measure of that degree which their point was in lat. 66° 20' N. and found it to be 57,439 toises when reduced to the level. About the same time another company of philosophers were sent to South America, consisting of GODIN, BOUGUER, and CONDAMINE, to whom were joined Don JOSE and Don ANTONIO DE ULLOA, of Spain. They began their operations in Europe in 1735, and began their operations in the province of Quito in Peru, in October, and finished them after many interruptions 8 years. The Spanish gentlemen published a separate account, and assigned for a degree of the meridian, at the equator, 56,753 toises. M. Bouguer makes it 56,753 reduced to the level of the sea; and Cassini states it at 56,749 toises.

M. LA CAILLÉ, being at the Cape of Hope in 1751, found the length of the meridian in lat. 33° 18' 30" S. to be 57,074 toises. In 1755, Father BOSCHICI found the length of a degree in lat. 43° to be 57,050 toises.

In 1740, Messrs Cassini again examined the measures in France; and, after the necessary corrections, found the length of a degree whose middle point is in lat. 46° to be 57,074 toises; and in the lat. of 57° to be 57,050 toises. In 1764, F. BECCA measured a portion of the meridian in the neighbourhood of Vienna, and found the length of a degree whose middle point was 44° 44' N. to be 57,024 toises. Vienna is 3 degrees of the meridian west from which it may be concluded that lat. 47° 40' N. may be reckoned to be 57,024 Paris toises. In 1766, Messrs MASON measured a part of the meridian in Maryland, and found that the length of a degree whose middle point is 39° to be 57,024 English feet, or 56,904½ toises.

To the history of these attempts to measure degrees of the meridian, we may add considerable additional information upon which may be expected, when the Survey of the Coast shall be completed, which was begun by Gen. ROY some years ago, and continued in a style of accuracy greatly superior to any former system of geometrical operations. An important addition has also been made to our knowledge of the figure of the earth, by the very extensive arch of the meridian reaching from Dunkirk to Barcelona, measured by order of the constituent Assembly of France, for the purpose of establishing an universal standard of weights and

elucidation of this problem of the circumference of the earth was essentially necessary for the radical principles of all maps; ANAXIMENES, though the best of which can boast, was nevertheless exceedingly and inaccurate. It contained little the states of Greece, and the dominions of Alexander, digested according to the surveys above mentioned. He ordered, and has quoted, the voyages of into the great Atlantic ocean, which some faint idea of the western parts of not so imperfect, that they could not into the outlines of a chart. Strabo, as extremely ignorant of Gaul, Spain, Britain, Italy, the coasts of the Adriatic, and all the countries towards the made the distance between Epidamnus and the Adriatic, and the bay of the Egean sea, to be only 900 stadia, altho it was above 2000; and enlarged from Carthage to Alexandria to 15,000 in reality it was only 9000.

the state of geography and the nature prior to the time of HIPPARCHUS; a closer connection between geography and astronomy, by determining the longitudes from celestial observations, first steps to this new projection of the been in a great measure made easy by as, upwards of 50 years before the Hipparchus, when he inverted his noble or measuring the surface of a sphere rent segments.

been often the occasion of making or the maps of different countries; and geography made great advances from the Roman arms. In all the provided by that people, camps were every-rected at proper intervals; and roads with substantial materials, for making communication between them: and thus and surveying were carried on according throughout the extent of that large very new war produced a new survey of the countries where the scenes acted; so that the materials of geography accumulated by every additional contribus tells us, that at the beginning of Punic war, when HANNIBAL was pre-paring for his expedition against Rome, the countries which he was to pass were carefully measured by the Romans.

ÆSAR caused a general survey of the empire to be made, by a decree of the senate; the surveyors, ZENODOXUS, THEOPHILUS, POLYCLITUS, had this task assigned to them; and he said to have completed it in 25 Roman itineraries, that are still extant, but care and pains they had been at, surveys in all the different provinces of the empire; and Pliny has filled the 3d, 4th, and 5th of his Natural History with the geotances that were thus measured. All the maps are still preserved, known by the name of the *Ptolemaic Tables*, published by Bertius, which give a sufficient specimen of the state of geography in the Roman times. Vegetius calls the *Itinera Pida*, for

the clearer direction of their armies in their march.

The Roman empire had been enlarged to its greatest extent, and all its provinces well known and surveyed, when PTOLEMY, in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about A. D. 150, composed his system of geography. The principal materials he made use of for composing this work, were the proportions of the gnomon in its shadow, taken by different astronomers at the times of the equinoxes and solstices; calculations founded upon the length of the longest days: the measures or computed distances of the principal roads contained in their surveys and itineraries; and the various reports of travellers and navigators, who often determined the distances of places by hearsay and conjecture. All these were compared together, and digested into one uniform body or system; and afterwards were translated by him into a new mathematical language, expressing the different degrees of longitude and latitude, according to the invention of Hipparchus; but which Ptolemy had the merit of carrying into full practice and execution, after it had been neglected for upwards of 200 years. With such imperfect and inaccurate materials, it is no wonder to find many errors in Ptolemy's system. Neither were the errors such as had been introduced in the more distant extraneous parts of his maps, but even in the very centre of that part of the world which was best known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, and where all the famed ancient astronomers had made their observations. Yet this system, with all its imperfections, continued in vogue till the end of the 15th century.

The improvements in geography, which, since that period, have taken place, were owing to the great progress made in astronomy by Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and other eminent men who lived within these 3 last centuries. More correct methods and instruments for observing the latitude were found out; and the discovery of Jupiter's satellites afforded a much easier method of finding the longitudes than was formerly known. The voyages also made by celebrated navigators of different nations, which were now become much more frequent than formerly, brought to the knowledge of the Europeans a vast number of countries totally unknown to them before. The late voyages of Captain Cook, made by order of his Britannic Majesty, have contributed more to the improvement of geography, than any thing that has been done during the 18th century. See COOK, N° III. § 2—11.

To these may be added the voyage made by VANCOUVER to explore the NW. coasts of America; and that of the unfortunate LA PEYROUSE in the South Sea: as well as the late important additions made to geographical knowledge by the discoveries made by Mr MUNRO PARK, in his Travels in the interior Parts of Africa. On the whole the geography of the utmost extremities of the globe is now in a fair way of being much better known to the moderns, than that of the most adjacent countries was to the ancients: at least with regard to the sea-coasts of these countries; for, as to their internal geography, it is less known now than before, except in a very few places. Still however, it must be owned, that geography is a science

even yet far from perfection. The maps of America and the eastern parts of Asia are, perhaps, more unfinisbed than any of the rest. Even the maps of Great Britain and Ireland are imperfect and unsatisfactory; and the great numbers of them, that are varied and republished, without any real improvement, confirm an observation made by Lord Bacon, that an opinion of plenty is one of the causes of want. The late Mr Bradley was of opinion, that there were but two places in England whose longitude might be depended upon as accurately taken; and that these were the observatory at Greenwich, and Serburn castle, the seat of the earl of Macclesfield in Oxfordshire; and that their distance was one degree in space, or four minutes in time. Even this was found to be inaccurate, the distance in time being observed by the late transit of Venus to be only 3 minutes and 47 seconds. It were well, however, if there were no greater errors with regard to other places; but if we examine the longitude of the Lizard, we shall find scarce any two geographers that agree concerning it; some making it $4^{\circ} 40'$ from London; others 5° , and others $5^{\circ} 14'$; while some enlarge it to 6° . Our best maps are therefore still to be considered as unfinished works, where there will always be many things to be added and corrected, as future geographers may find time and opportunity.

The chief works on geography among the moderns are Johannes de Sacrobosco, (or John Hallifax,) *De sphaera*; Sebastian Munster's *Cosmographia Universalis*; Clavius, on the sphere of Sacrobosco; Piccioli's *Geographia et Hydrographia Reformata*; Weigelius's *Speculum Terre*; De Chales's Geography, in his *Mundus Mathematicus*; Cellarius's Geography; Cuviers *Introduction in l'Universum Geographiam*; Leibnecht's *Elementa Geographiae Generalis*; Stevemus's *Compendium Geographicum*; Wolfii *Geographia*, in his *Elementa Mathematicae*; Busching's *New System of Geography*; Gordon's, Salmon's, and Guthrie's Grammars; and, above all, Varenus's *Geographia Generalis*, with Jurin's additions, the most scientific and systematical of any geographical work.

SECT. III. Of the FIGURE and MAGNITUDE of the EARTH.

THE EARTH is one of the great bodies which compose the planetary system. It moves round the sun in an orbit nearly circular, and compleats its revolution in the course of a year, while at the same time it revolves continually upon its own axis, which is inclined to the plane of its orbit at an angle of $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; the time of a revolution being 23 hours and 56 minutes. The revolution of the earth round the sun is called its ANNUAL MOTION, and the rotation it performs on its own axis is called its DIURNAL MOTION.

While the earth revolves round the sun in the course of its annual motion, its axis, round which the diurnal motion is constantly performed, moves always parallel to itself. It is by the parallelism the axis, and the annual motion of the earth, that the changes of the seasons are produced, as been already explained at large; (See *ASTRONOMY, Part 3, Sect. 3.*) while by the diurnal motion all places on the earth's surface are alternate-

ly turned towards the sun, and by the changes of day and night are produced. *ASTRONOMY, § 412 and 413.*

That the earth is nearly of a sphere may be proved by many arguments: these have been given under *ASTRONOMY* and 389. See also *HEATH, § IV, ii* this conclusion has been drawn from which were not greatly complicated, and which were intimately connected with the common affairs of life, it is reasonable to conclude that the attention which was determined the returns of the proper performing the labours of husbandry regulation of civil affairs, would lead early period of society to form pretty of the figure of the earth. When it once known to be spherical, the curiosity would naturally lead him to endeavour its dimensions; and we accordingly history, that such attempts were not been already noticed in last section. accurate measure that was made of which we have any certain knowledge executed by M. PICCARD, in France end of the last century, and which finished several times since that period. difficult to understand in what way it be measured; the direction of gravity perpendicular to the earth's surface shows that the zenith of any place, or heavens directly over our head, and zon which is a plane touching the earth at that place, will be continually changing as we change our position on the surface. Hence it follows, that as we go to N., the pole of the heavens, or the heavens, in which the earth's axis is produced meets the sphere of the fixed stars more and more elevated above the meridian altitude also of the stars in regions of the heavens will appear while that of the stars in the southern hemisphere be diminished. By the elevation of the stars, we shall know the angle point of concurrence of perpendiculars earth's surface at each extremity of arc; for this angle is equal to the diurnal meridian altitude of the same star at extremities of the arc, diminished which the arc itself subtends as seen which last angle is altogether independent number of degrees in the arc being only necessary to determine its length known measure, as a fathom, &c. but be a work of great labour to apply an arc of great extent, it will be if extremities be connected by a series to those of a base line of 3, or 4000 l and considering the accuracy with angles of these triangles can be observed of the arc may be found with great was in this way that degrees of the earth been repeatedly measured. In France, within these few years, an measured extending from Dunkirk and the degree whose middle is situated has by this means been found to be

the spherical figure be the most simple, it is natural for man to suppose objects as they are, which he most readily comprehends. The simplicity of nature is not always that of our conceptions. Infinitely varied. Nature is only simple in her cause: economy consists in producing a great variety of circumstances, by means of a few general laws. The earth is a result of these laws, which, a great variety of circumstances, may easily sensibly from a spherical figure; small variations, observed in the length of the meridian in France, sufficiently at such a deviation did exist; but they were unavoidable in such observations: an important phenomenon in a state of

SCIENCE, in which this has been warmly agitated, concluded with the difference of magnitude in the meridian, if real, would be most sensibly by the comparison of degrees measured at the equator and towards the poles. A company of Academicians was sent to Lapland, where, having measured a degree, they found it to contain 56,753 toises shorter, by 174 toises than a degree at 45° N. Other Academicians were sent to Lapland, and having measured a degree, they found it to be 57,458 toises, which was 1,705 toises shorter than the degree at the equator by 68 toises. These measurements, it was concluded, that the earth was not exactly spherical: measurements of degrees made since have all tended to shew, that the meridian gradually increases from the poles.

The earth is the next curve in point of simplicity, and the earth has been considered as formed by the revolution of a circle about its lesser axis; its oblateness or flattening, in the direction of its poles, is a consequence of the observed increase of the length of the meridian from the equator to the poles. The radii of the degrees being in the direction of the gravity, they are by the law of the centrifugal force perpendicular to the surface, with which the earth is in a great degree. They do not therefore, as in a circle, tend to the centre of the spheroid; they are in the same direction, nor of the same length, as the radii drawn from the centre to the surface; which cut it obliquely every part at the equator and poles. The two adjoining perpendiculars, for the same meridian, meet each other, at the end of the small terrestrial arc which they form between them. If this arc were a straight line, these perpendiculars would be parallel; but in proportion as this arc is curved, they would meet at a distance; but in proportion as this arc is curved, they would meet at a distance the less, as the curvature of the arc is greater. Hence it follows, that seeing the earth is the point where the length of the ellipse is the least, the radius of a

degree at the pole, and consequently that degree itself, must be the greatest of any degree on the earth's surface. On the contrary, at the equator, or at the extremity of the greater axis, the curvature is the least, and therefore the degree in the direction of the meridian is there the smallest. And in going from the equator to the pole, the degrees increase in such a manner, that if the ellipse be not very eccentric, the increase is nearly proportional to the square of the sine of the latitude.

If the earth were exactly an oblate spheroid, its magnitude, as well as the proportion of its axes, might be determined by the measurement of two degrees in the direction of the meridian, as has been already explained. See EARTH, § IV, ii. It should also follow, that by a comparison of all the degrees hitherto measured, taken two and two, we should obtain the same proportion between the axes. This, however, has not been the case. The results have indeed shewn, that the earth is flattened at the poles; but they have left an uncertainty as to the quantity of the compression, extending from between the 170th to the 330th part of the radius of the equator. Between these two quantities, the former of which is nearly double of the latter, most of the results are placed; but in such a manner, that those most entitled to credit are much nearer to the least extreme than to the greatest.

In consequence of this disagreement in the result of comparisons of degrees of the meridian, measured in different latitudes, it has been concluded by mathematicians, that the figure of the earth is not that of a spheroid; nor does it even appear, that the parts of it on each side of the equator are exactly similar.

It will, however, be sufficient for the purpose of Geography, to suppose the earth a spheroid. Upon this hypothesis, LA PLACE, by a comparison of the arc of the meridian measured at the equator, and another measured between Dunkirk and Mountjoy, has found, that the polar diameter is less than the equatorial by one 334th part of the latter; and that a 4th part of the elliptic meridian is 5,230,740 toises; the toise being that used in measuring the earth in Peru, and reduced to a temperature of 56½ degrees of a mercurial thermometer, divided into 100 degrees from the freezing point to that of water, boiling under a pressure equivalent to a column of mercury 76 centimetres in height, or about 30 inches English measure. This determination also agrees nearly with the results from the combination of a great number of experiments made at different places of the earth, upon the pendulum.

Because the measure of a degree at the equator has been assumed, in the preceding calculation at 56,753 toises, it follows also from the method explained under the article EARTH, § IV, ii. that the equatorial diameter is 3,172,267, and the polar diameter 3,161,471 toises; the difference between them being 10,796 toises. From these data and the rules of mensuration, it will be easy to find the surface, solidity, &c. of the earth, also the number of miles in a degree, &c.

The French government have taken the length of the quadrant of the meridian, as the basis of a new system of weights and measures. The ten millionth part of the quadrant has been assumed as

the *metre* or unit of linear measures, from which all the other measures are formed, by taking its multiples and submultiples according to the decimal mode of notation. Thus it appears the *metre* is expressed by the decimal fraction of the *toise* 511,074. For a full account of the measures of the French Republic, see *MEASURE*.

The following table of the dimensions of the earth is given by Dr HUTTON.

The diameter	79,579 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles
The circumference	25,000 miles
A degree contains	69 $\frac{1}{2}$ English miles
The superficies	198,944,206 square miles
The solidity	263,930,000,000 cubic miles.

SECT. IV. Of the CIRCLES supposed to be DESCRIBED ON the EARTH'S SURFACE.

IN geography the circles, which the sun apparently describes in the heavens, are supposed to be extended as far as the earth, and marked on its surface. In like manner we may imagine as many circles as we please to be described on the earth, and their planes to be extended to the celestial sphere, till they mark concentric ones on the heavens. The most remarkable of those supposed by geographers to be described in this manner are the following:

The *AXIS* of the earth is that imaginary line passing through the earth's centre, round which it continually revolves, from west to east.

The *POLES* of the earth are the points at which the axis meets the earth's surface. One of these is called the north pole, and the other the south pole. These correspond to the poles of the heavens, or the points where the earth's axis, when produced, meets the starry sphere.

The *EQUATOR* is a great circle on the earth's surface, equally distant from both poles, and corresponds to the equinoctial circle in the heavens. It divides the earth's surface into two equal portions called the *northern* and *southern hemispheres*. The equator is also sometimes called the *LINE*, or *EQUINOCTIAL LINE*.

The distance of any place, northward or southward from the equator, is called its *LATITUDE*, and is reckoned in degrees and minutes, &c. The distance between the poles and equator, which is a quadrant of a great circle passing thro' the poles, has by all geographers hitherto been supposed to be divided into 90 degrees; and each of these again subdivided into 60 minutes, &c. But some French astronomers, and in particular LA PLACE, in his *Exposition du Systeme du Monde*, as well as in his *Traite de Mecanique Celeste*, has adopted the decimal division of the meridian. They have supposed the distance between the equator and the poles to be divided into 100 degrees, and each degree to be subdivided into 100 minutes, each minute into 100 seconds, and so on.

All places lying on the north side of the equator are said to have north latitude; on the contrary, all places on the south side of the equator are said to have south latitude.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE are lesser circles upon the earth's surface parallel to the equator; they are considered as indefinite in number; that lie directly east or west from each other are said to lie in the same parallel of latitude.

The *TROPICS* are two lesser circles or parallels to the equator, and 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ degrees from it. That which lies on the north of the equator is called the *TROPIC OF CANCER*; that which lies on the south side is the *TROPIC OF CAPRICORN*. These correspond to the circles of the same name, and the sun's north and south declination in the equinoctial in the heavens.

The *POLAR CIRCLES* are two lesser circles on the earth's surface, parallel to the equator, as far distant from the poles, which are as far distant from the poles, which are round, as the tropics are from the equator. That which lies towards the north pole is the *ARCTIC CIRCLE*, and that which lies towards the south pole is called the *ANTARCTIC CIRCLE*. To these there are corresponding circles in the heavens.

Great circles passing through the poles of the earth, and therefore perpendicular to the equator, are called *MERIDIANS*. The meridian through any particular place, lies in the celestial meridian of that place. It divides the surface of the earth into two portions, called the *eastern* and *western hemispheres*, in respect of that place. The meridian is considered as indefinite in number; any two lying directly north and south from each other are upon the same meridian. Sometimes the meridian of a place is understood the great circle, passing through that place, and tending from the one pole to the other. The other half of the circle is called the *antimeridian*.

If we suppose 12 great circles, one of which is the meridian of a given place, to intersect each other at the poles of the earth, and divide the equator into 24 equal parts, these are called *HORARY CIRCLES* of that place. If the poles be divided into 24 tenet circles, corresponding to the 24 hours of the day and night, the distance between each two of these is 15°, being the 24th part of 360°.

The *LONGITUDE* of any place on the earth is an arc of the equator intercepted between the meridian passing through that place and another meridian previously agreed upon, called the *primitive meridian*. The longitude is reckoned eastward and westward from the primitive meridian, by which means all places lying in the same hemisphere to the eastward of that meridian, which the first meridian passes, will have east longitude; and all places lying to the westward of that place, will have west longitude.

Geographers at different periods, among different countries, have fixed upon different meridians for the first meridian. The first ancient custom was to make it pass through the city of Alexandria, which was known. Ptolemy, knowing that there is no such place on the earth as can be considered the first meridian, have laid aside that method of reckoning longitude. Ptolemy assumed the meridian passing through the mouth of the Canary Islands as his first meridian. After him, as more countries were discovered in that quarter, the first meridian was removed farther off. The Arabian geographers

GEOGRAPHY.

Fig. 1.

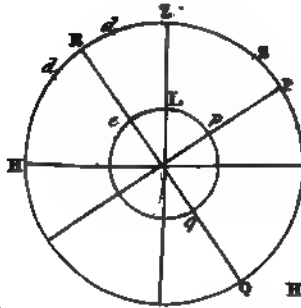


Fig. 2.

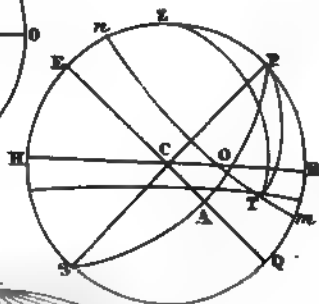


Fig. 3.

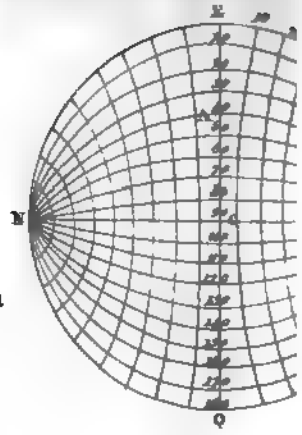


Fig. 4.

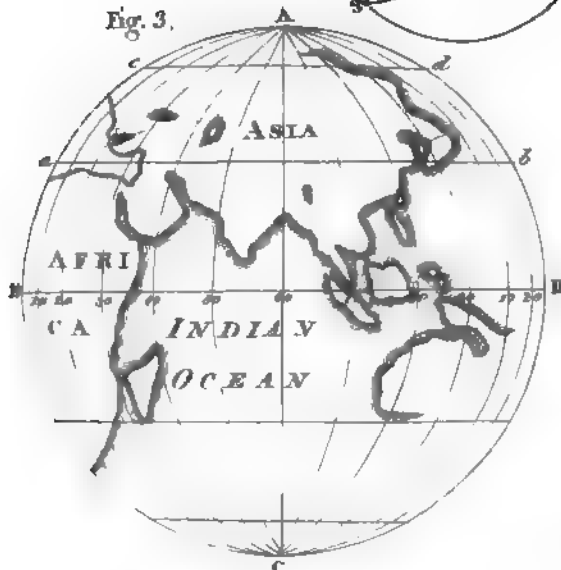


Fig. 5.

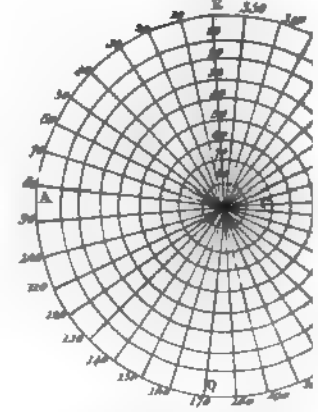


Fig. 6.



Fig. 7.

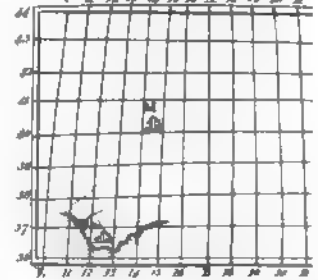
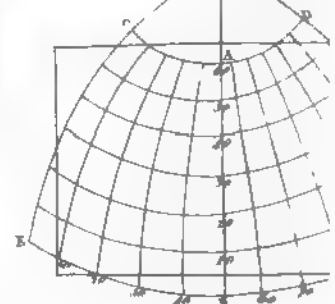


Fig. 8.



first meridian upon the utmost shore of an ocean. Some fixed it to the island of PLAS, near Cape Verd; Hondius to the JAMES; others to the Isle DEL CORVO, or Azores, because there the magnetic needle due north at that time, and it was known, that the deviation of the needle due north is itself subject to variation.

geographers, particularly the Dutch, fixed upon the PIRK OF TENERIFF; the Isle of PALM, one of the Canaries; the French, by order of the king, on the FERRU, another of the Canaries. About regarding any of these rules, geographers often assume the meridian place where they live, or the capital of a country, or its chief observatory, for a meridian. Hence in Great Britain, we reckon longitudes of places eastward and westward from the meridian of London, and longitudes of places in Scotland from that of Edinburgh.

SENSIBLE HORIZON of a place is either sensible or rational. The plane of which touches the surface of the earth at that place, is the **SENSIBLE HORIZON**. A great circle of the sphere, which passes through the place, and is parallel to the plane of the horizon, is the **RATIONAL HORIZON**.

The sensible and rational horizons are defined as two distinct circles of the sphere, seeing that their planes, when produced, are only distant from each other by the earth's semidiameter. It is evident that these circles of the sphere are not, as to sense, to coincide; for the earth's semidiameter, but even the semicircle round the sun, subtends no sensible arc at the distance of the nearest of the stars.

The horizon divides the celestial sphere into two equal portions or hemispheres, the one visible, but the other, by reason of the distance of the body of the earth, is invisible.

SENSIBLE HORIZON of a place is also understood a circle, which determines the limit of the surface of the earth, which is visible; called also the **VISIBLE HORIZON**. It is that this circle will be most accurate at sea, and equally distant every where from the eye of an observer, but below the level of the sea.

It will also be so much the more extensive, as the eye is raised above the earth's surface. The **ZENITH** of a place is the point of the heavenly sphere over the head of an observer; and the point in the opposite hemisphere, directly under his feet; or the zenith and nadir are the poles of the horizon.

Circles of the sphere passing through the zenith and nadir are called **VERTICAL CIRCLES**. They are also sometimes called **MERIDIAN CIRCLES** of the horizon; and in general, a great circle passing through the poles of the sphere is called its **secondary**. That vertical circle which has its plane perpendicular to the plane of the meridian, is called the **PRIME VERTICAL**. The meridian and prime vertical, by their intersections with the horizon divide it into

four equal parts. The points of their intersection are called the **CARDINAL POINTS**. The meridian cuts the horizon at right angles in the north and south points, and the prime vertical cuts it at right angles in the east and west points.

Smaller circles of the sphere parallel to the horizon are called **PARALLELS OF ALTITUDE** or **ALMACANTERS**. These parallels, as well as the vertical circles, may be considered as indefinite in number.

SECT. V. Of the METHODS of FINDING the LATITUDE and LONGITUDE of PLACES.

THE figure and magnitude of the earth being known, it next becomes a problem of the utmost importance in geography, to determine the position of any assigned place upon its surface. This is done by finding its latitude and longitude, for by the first of these is determined the position of the parallel of latitude which passes through that place; and by the second the position of its meridian; and thus the position of the place itself becomes known.

Let $PZEQ$, Plate CLXII, fig. 1. represent the celestial meridian, P the pole of the heavens, EQ the equinoctial, and HO the horizon: Let pLe represent the terrestrial meridian, p the pole, and eq the equator: Let L be any place on the earth, the latitude of which is to be found, and Z its zenith: The arch pL , which is the latitude of the place, evidently contains the same number of degrees as the arch EZ , which is the distance of the equinoctial from the zenith. Now ZO and PE are both quadrants; wherefore the arches, PO and ZE , are equal; but the arch PO is the elevation of the pole above the horizon. Thus it appears, that the latitude of a place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place. There is no star exactly in the pole of the world, but the elevation of the pole may be found by the pole star, which is very near the pole, or by any other circumpolar star in this manner: Let the altitude of the star be taken when it is on the meridian, both above and below the pole, by means of a quadrant or other proper instrument, making the proper corrections for the refraction of the atmosphere: Then, half the sum of these altitudes, reckoned from the north, will be the elevation of the pole, or the latitude of the place at which the observation is made: For let S be the place of the star when above the pole and s its place below the pole, then since $PS = Ps$, it is evident that PO is equal to half the sum of OS and $O s$.

Another method is by means of the declination of the sun, or a star, and one meridian altitude of the same; thus: Having, by means of a quadrant or other instrument, found the zenith distance, Zd , of the luminary, or else its altitude, Hd , and taken its complement, Zd ; then, to this distance add the declination dE , as found by astronomical tables, when the luminary and place are on the same side of the equator, or subtract it when they are on different sides, and the sum or difference will be the latitude EZ sought. By either of these methods, and by many others that could be mentioned, the latitude may be found very accurately.

While

While the earth revolves on its axis from W. to E. the different terrestrial meridians, which are considered as fixed to its surface, are turned in succession towards the sun; and it is noon day at every place when the plane of the meridian of that place passes through his centre; at which time the sun, as seen from that place, appears to be to the S. or N. according as the place happens to be situated to the N. or S. of the parallel of declination, which he describes that day in the heavens. Hence it appears, that all places situated on the same meridian will have their noon at the same instant of time; and that it will be forenoon to all places situated to the W. of that meridian, seeing that the meridians of these places have not yet passed the sun's centre; while on the contrary, it will be afternoon to all places situated to the E. of the meridian passing through the sun, seeing that the meridians of these places have already passed his centre. Since the planes of all the terrestrial meridians pass, one after another, through the sun in 24 hours, it follows that in 1 hour the meridians of two places, whose difference of longitude is the 24th of 360° , or 15° , will have arrived at the sun's centre; and therefore, when it is noon at any place it will want 1 hour from noon at all places upon the meridian 15° to the W. of the meridian of that place, and 2 hours at all places 30° to the W. and so on till we come to the opposite meridian; where the difference of longitude is 180° , at which place it will then be midnight. The contrary happens with respect to places situated to the eastward of the given meridian; for at these places it is past noon, by the same part of 24 hours that the difference between their longitudes, and that of the meridian where it is then noon, is of 360° . The difference between the times of noon, and therefore of all the other hours of the day, at different places of the earth, is the foundation of the methods by which the longitude of any place is found. Suppose that some remarkable phenomenon were to be seen in the heavens, at the same instant of time, throughout all places of that hemisphere of the earth from which the phenomenon was then visible; it is evident from what has been said, that the time of its appearance would be different at different places, according to the meridians happened to be situated in respect of that phenomenon; and that if we knew the longitude of any place, as reckoned from some given meridian where the phenomenon was visible, we should be able to tell the difference between the time of its appearance, as reckoned at that place, and upon the given meridian. Suppose, for example, that the phenomenon was visible at 8 P. M. at some place upon the given meridian, and that another place was 30° of longitude W. from that meridian; then the phenomenon would be seen at 8 P. M. as reckoned at that place. Hence it follows on the contrary, that if we know the times of the appearance of the phenomenon, as reckoned at both these places, we shall also know how many degrees of longitude the one place is eastward or westward from the other. If, for example, it is seen at 9 P. M. at any one place, and at midnight at another place, we may be assured, that the latter place is 45° of longitude E. from the former.

In this way may the longitudes of all places upon the earth's surface be found. These phenomena to be observed at these places are eclipses of the sun and moon; eclipses of the satellites, and particularly of his first satellite; and particularly of his first satellite; and lastly, the angular distance of the moon from the sun, and from the fixed stars.

The eclipses of JUPITER'S SATELLITES frequently happen, and which may be observed on shore, would afford to the navigator a method of finding his longitude, if it were possible to observe them at sea; but that has not yet been made to overcome the attendant on such observations, by the irregular motions of the vessel, have been hitherto unsuccessful. Navigation and geography have received great advantages from these eclipses, especially from the eclipses of the first satellite, the commencement and the end of which may be served with precision. It is indeed now known also the hour at which any eclipse may be seen under a known meridian; and it is by the difference of these hours that the longitude is found; but the tables of the eclipses are now brought to such a degree of accuracy as to give the times of these eclipses with precision almost equal to that of the observations themselves. The great difficulty of observing eclipses at sea has rendered it necessary to observe other celestial phenomena; and the motions of the moon are the only ones which are generally useful for the determination of longitude. The position of the moon, as it appears if seen from the centre of the earth, may easily be found at any time, by taking the distances from the sun or stars by a prominent object. These being found, the tables of the eclipses give the hour as reckoned at the first meridian, when she ought to have had that position, as a comparison of this time, with the time reckoned on board of the vessel when the observation was made, the navigator is enabled to find his longitude.

To estimate the accuracy of this method must be considered, that in consequence of the error of observation, the place of the moon determined by the observer, does not exactly correspond to the hour pointed out by his tables; and that in consequence of errors in the tables, the same place does not exactly correspond to the hour at which the observation was made, as reckoned at the first meridian. The difference of these hours is not therefore that which results from an observation perfectly made, with tables rigorously exact. Suppose the amount of the error was one minute in the tables, it would correspond to an error of 15° of longitude, or 15 geographical miles at the equator. It would, however, be less upon any other part of the N. or S. of the equator. Besides, it is diminished by numerous and repeated observations made upon the distances of the moon from the sun and from the stars, to the end that the errors of observation and of the tables mutually destroy each other. It is evident that errors in the longitude, arising from the

d in the observations, will be so much as the motion of the celestial body, upon which observations are made, is the more distant it appears, that observations made upon the moon, when at her least distance from us, are preferable to those made upon her when at her greatest distance. If the motion of the moon is only about one 13th of that of the sun, it is evident that the errors in the observations would be 13 times greater: from which it is evident that the moon is the only celestial body employed to determine the longitude. It also appears of what importance it is to the art of navigation and geography, that tables should be constructed of her mo-

on observations the longitudes and latitudes of a great number of places have been determined, and the position and extent of many countries accurately defined, concerning which erroneous opinions formerly were entertained. Much, however, yet remains to be done: vast parts of Africa and America are yet to be measured entirely unknown, and even those frequently visited by navigators may have positions more accurately determined than hitherto done.

For the methods of finding the longitude stated of, there is yet another much used, to which, to whom an exact knowledge of time, when at sea, and without any other than the stars and compass, is of the greatest importance. It has been already observed, that in order to know the longitude of any place, it is necessary to know the difference between the time of noon, or of any other hour, at that place, and the time of noon, or of the same hour, at any place upon the first meridian; for the difference of time the longitude may be found, allowing 15° of longitude for every hour, and so in proportion for any period of time.

It appears, that if a traveller, or navigator, carries with him a watch, or time-keeper, so regulated as to show exactly the hours as reckoned at the place from which he starts; by comparing the time shown by the watch with the time as reckoned at any place he visits, or as found by means of proper astronomical observations at that place, it is evident that he immediately finds its longitude. If, in departing from the first meridian, he had known from any other meridian whose longitude the first meridian was known, still it is evident that the longitude is to be found by the same method of observation. This method of finding longitude would be the most simple of all, if it were not a matter of great difficulty to carry time-keepers that shall go with perfect accuracy; more especially on board of a ship, where they are continually exposed to changes of position as well as continual agitation. The watches that occur have however been over-perfected and ingenuity; and watches have been constructed that have gone with great accuracy for many months. See LONGITUDE.

SECT. VI. Of the DIFFERENT POSITIONS of the SPHERE.

If we could suppose an inhabitant of the earth capable of living at either of the poles, he would have always one of the celestial poles in his zenith and the other in his nadir, the equator coinciding with the horizon. Hence all the celestial parallels, are also parallel to the horizon; and hence a person, or people, are said to live in a PARALLEL SPHERE, or to have a parallel horizon.

Those who live under the equator have both poles in the horizon, all the celestial parallels cutting the horizon at right angles; whence they are said to live in a RIGHT SPHERE, or to have a RIGHT HORIZON.

Those who live between either of the poles and the equator are said to live in an OBLIQUE SPHERE, or to have an oblique horizon; because the celestial equator cuts his horizon obliquely, and all the parallels in the celestial sphere have their planes oblique to that of the horizon. In this sphere some of the parallels intersect the horizon at oblique angles, some are entirely above it, and some entirely below it; all of them, however, so situated, that they would obliquely intersect the plane of the horizon extended.

The largest parallel, which appears entire above the horizon of any place in N. latitude, is called by the ancient astronomers the ARCTIC CIRCLE of that place. Within this circle, i. e. between it and the arctic pole, are comprehended all the stars which never set in that place, but are carried perpetually round the horizon, in circles parallel to the equator.

The largest parallel, which is hid entirely below the horizon of any place in N. latitude, was called by the ancient astronomers the ANTARCTIC CIRCLE of that place by the ancients. This circle comprehends all the stars which never rise in that place, but are carried perpetually round below the horizon, in circles parallel to the equator.

In a parallel sphere, however, the equator may be considered as both arctic and antarctic circles; for being coincident with the horizon, all the parallels on one side are entirely above it, and those on the other entirely below it. In an oblique sphere, the nearer any place is to either of the poles the larger are the arctic and antarctic circles, as being nearer to the celestial equator, which is a great circle. In a right sphere, the arctic and antarctic circles have no place; because no parallel appears either entirely above or below it.

By the ancients the arctic circle was called *maximus semper apparentium*, and *circulus perpetue apparitionis*; the antarctic circle on the other hand, being named *maximus semper occultarum*, and *circulus perpetue occultationis*.

By the arctic and antarctic circles, however, modern geographers in general understand two fixed circles, at the distance of 23½ degrees from the poles. These mark out the space all round the globe where the sun appears to touch the horizon at midnight in mid-summer, and to be entirely sunk below it in winter.

According to the different positions of the globe with regard to the sun, the celestial bodies exhib-

but different phenomena to the inhabitants. Thus, in a parallel sphere, they appear to move in circles round the horizon; in a right sphere, they appear to rise and set as at present, but always in circles cutting the horizon at right angles; but in an oblique sphere, the angle varies according to the degree of obliquity, and the position of the axis of the sphere with regard to the sun. The phenomena thence arising will be sufficiently understood from what is said under the article ASTRONOMY. From thence we will easily perceive the reason of the sun's continual change of place in the heavens: but though it is certain that this change takes place every moment, it is imperceptible for some time, unless by very nice astronomical observations. Hence we may generally suppose the place of the sun to be the same for a day or two together, though in a considerable number of days it becomes exceedingly obvious to every body. When he appears in the celestial equator, his motion seems for some time to be in the plane of that circle, though it is certain that his place there is only for a single moment; and in like manner, when he comes to any other point of the heavens, his apparent diurnal motion is in a parallel drawn throughout. Twice a year he is in the equator, and then the days and nights are nearly equal all over the earth. This happens in March and September; after which, the sun proceeding either northward or south, according to the season of the year, and the position of the observer, the days become longer or shorter than the nights, and summer or winter comes on, as is fully explained under the article ASTRONOMY.

The recession of the sun from the equator either northward or southward is called his DECLINATION, and is either north or south according to the season of the year; and when this declination is at its greatest height, he is then said to be in the tropic.

The space between the two tropics, called the TORRID ZONE, extends 47 degrees of latitude all round the globe; and throughout the whole of that space the sun is vertical to some of the inhabitants twice a year, but to those who live directly under the tropics only once. Throughout the whole torrid zone also there is little difference between the length of the days and nights. The ancient geographers found themselves considerably embarrassed in their attempts to fix the northern tropic; for though they took a very proper method, namely, to observe the most northerly place where objects had no shadow on a certain day, yet they found that on the first day no shadow was cast for a space of no less than 400 stadia. The reason of this was, the apparent diameter of the sun; which being about half a degree, seemed to extend himself over as much of the surface of the earth, and to be vertical every where within that space.

When the sun is in or near the equator, he seems to change his place in the heavens most rapidly; so that about the equinoxes one may very soon receive the declination in a day or two: he approaches the tropics this apparent change gradually; however, so that for a day or two he seems to move at all.

From these facts it may be understood from

any map on which the ecliptic is described by drawing lines through every degree parallel to the equator, we shall perceive they all approach nearer and nearer each other at last, when we approach the point betwixt the ecliptic and tropic, several degrees scarce be distinguishable.

SECT. VII. METHOD of FINDING of the DAY, and the BEGINNING of the TWILIGHT.

As it is of considerable importance in geography, to know the length of the assigned place upon the earth, it will be proper to shew the manner of finding the time of the rising and setting of the sun, or any other of the celestial bodies. Let $PZES$, Plate CLXII, Fig. 2. represent the celestial meridian of any place, P and Z the poles of the sphere; let EQ be the horizon, stereographically projected upon the plane of the meridian; let I be the 6 o'clock hour circle, and m the circle of declination described by the sun on any given day of the year; the point in which it cuts the horizon; then n half the arch described by the sun within the horizon, and $O m$ the half of the arch when below the horizon. Let POS be the hour circle passing through the sun in the horizon, and meeting the equator at A ; the arch EA of the equator intercepted between the meridian and hour circle, and converted into time, (allowing 15 degrees will evidently give half the time the sun remains above the horizon, as it will give half the time it remains below the horizon. As the arch EC contains 90 degrees, it is only necessary to find the arch CA which is called the sun's ascension, it being the difference between the sun's declination and his oblique ascension; converted it into time to add it to, or subtract it from six hours, according as the place and sun's declination are of contrary names, that is both N. or both S. and the other S. and the difference shall be half the length of the day required.

In the spherical triangle CAO , CA is the sun's declination, to be found from astronomy; the angle ACO the complement of the sun's latitude, in order to find AO the sun's ascension. Hence from the principles of trigonometry we have the following proportion:

As radius to the tangent of the latitude, so the tangent of the sun's declination to the tangent of the sun's ascension required.

When the sun is in the same hemisphere as the place, and his declination is the complement of its latitude, which happens at places in the polar circle the circle of declination will not cut the horizon, and consequently the sun will not set during the time his declination exceeds the latitude, but when the sun and place

ever, then he will never rise at that declination exceeds the colatitude it is easy to see how to find the sun begins to shine constantly upon : within the polar circle ; and also that place begins to be wholly in considerable time together.

observed in ASTRONOMY, Part III, twilight commences in the morning, when the sun is 18° from the zenith. The time of its commencement, may be found by spherical trigonometry : *Plate CLXII, fig. 2.* Let h , P the pole of the sphere, and T the sun, 18° below the horizon HR . In triangle PZT , we have PZ the pole from the zenith, which is the latitude of the place, and PT the sun's declination ; also ZT , the sun from the zenith, which, in ways $90^\circ + 18^\circ$ or 108° . From find the hour angle, ZPT , which the following proportion. Let V of the triangle. Then as sine ZP radius square, so is sine $(V - ZP)$ T to the square of the sine of $\frac{1}{2}$ angle ZPT being turned into time from noon of the beginning or twilight.

of the DIVISION of the EARTH'S SURFACES and ZONES ; and the DISPOSITION of SHADOWS of BODIES.

ing the diversity in the length of days, the rising and setting of the other phenomena already mentioned geographers divided the surface of certain districts, which they call ; and instead of the method of designation of places by their latitude as we do now, they contented themselves with the climate in which they

When more accuracy was required also the beginning, middle, and the climates.

ion, however, was certainly very inaccurate : for the only method they had the difference was by the length of climate, according to them, was had the day in its most northerly or longer than in the most southerly. ing of their first climate, they took der which the day is $12\frac{1}{2}$ hours of the world which lie nearer being supposed to be in any climate in a loose sense they may be a right sphere, or because they or thought to be uninhabitable by t. The northern climates were general : seven ; which must have an equal bern climates corresponding with them climates, according to the as follow : 1. Merue. 2. Syene in Alexandria in Egypt. 4. Rhodes, according to others, a parallel the Hellespont. 6. The parallel the mouth of the river Boristheiphean mountains.—Each of these

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places was supposed to be in the middle of the climate ; and as the southern parts of the globe were then very little known, the climates to the S. of the equator were supposed to be as far distant from that circle as the northern ones ; in consequence of which they took their names from the latter.

A parallel was said to pass through the middle of a climate, when the day under that parallel is a quarter of an hour longer than that which passes through the most southerly part. Hence it does not divide the space into two equal parts, but that part next the equator will always be the larger of the two ; because the farther we recede from that circle, the less increase of latitude will be sufficient to lengthen the day a quarter of an hour. Thus, in every climate there are 3 parallels ; one marking the beginning, the 2d the middle, and the 3d the ending of the climate ; the ending of one being always the beginning of another. Some of the ancients divided the earth by these parallels ; others by a parallel did not mean a mere line, but a space of some breadth : and hence the parallel may be understood as the same with half a climate.

This method of dividing the surface of the earth into climates, though now very much disused, has been adopted by several modern geographers. Some of these begin their climates at the equator, reckoning them by the increase of half an hour in the length of the day northward. Thus they go on till they come to the polar circles, where the longest day is 24 hours : betwixt these and the poles they count the climates by the increase of a natural day in the length of time that the sun continues above the horizon, until they come to one where the longest day is 15 of ours, or half a month ; and from this to the pole they count by the increase of half months or whole months, the climates ending at the poles where the days are six months long. The climates betwixt the equator and the polar circles are called *hour climates*, and those between the polar circles and the poles are called *month climates*.—In common language, however, we use the word CLIMATE in a very different sense ; so that, when two different countries are said to be in different climates, we understand only that the temperature of the air, seasons, &c. are different.

The division of the earth into zones has arisen from the various appearances of the sun, and the effects of his light and heat upon different parts of it. These are five in number : 1. The torrid zone, lying between the two tropics for a space of 47° of latitude. This is divided into two equal parts by the equator ; and the inhabitants have the sun vertical to them twice a-year, excepting only those who dwell under the tropics, to whom he is vertical only once. 2. The two temperate zones lie between the polar circles and the tropics, containing a space of 43° of latitude. And, 3. The two frigid zones lie between the polar circles and the poles. In these last the longest day is never below 24 hours ; in the temperate zones it is never quite so much, and in the torrid zone it is never above 12. The zones are named from the degree of heat they were supposed to be subjected to. The torrid zone was supposed by the ancients to be

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be.

be uninhabitable by reason of its heat; but this is now found to be a mistake, and many parts of the temperate zones are more intolerable in this respect than the torrid zone itself. Towards the polar circles, also, these zones are intolerably cold during winter. Only a small part of the northern frigid zone, and none of the southern, is inhabited. Some geographers reckoned six zones, dividing the torrid zone into two by the equator.

When any parts of the heaven or earth are said to be on the RIGHT or LEFT, we are to understand the expression differently according to the profession of the person who makes use of it: because according to that, his face is supposed to be turned towards a certain quarter. A geographer is supposed to stand with his face to the north, because the northern part of the world is best known. An astronomer looks towards the south, to observe the celestial bodies as they come to the meridian. The ancient augurs, in observing the flight of birds, looked towards the east; while the poets look towards the *Fortunate Isles*. In books of geography, therefore, by the right hand we must understand the east: in those of astronomy, the west; in such as relate to augury, the south; and in the writings of poets, the north.

From the difference in the length and positions of the shadows of terrestrial substances, ancient geographers have given different names to the inhabitants of certain places of the earth; the reason of which will be easily understood from the following considerations. 1. As the sun in his apparent annual revolution never removes farther from the equator than $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, none of those who live without that space, or beyond the tropics, can have that luminary vertical to them at any season of the year. 2. All who live between the tropics have the sun vertical twice a year, tho' not all at the same time. Thus to those who live directly under the equator, he is directly vertical in March and Sept. at the equinox. If a place is in 10° N. lat. the sun is vertical when he has 10° north declination; and so of every other place. 3. All who live between the tropics, have the sun at noon sometimes N. and sometimes S. of them. Thus, they who live in a place situated in 20° N. lat. have the sun at noon to the northward when he has more than 20° N. declination, and to the southward when he has less. 4. Such of the inhabitants of the earth as live without the tropics, if in the northern hemisphere, have the sun at noon to the S. of them, but to the N. if in the southern hemisphere. 5. When the sun is in the zenith of any place, the shadow of a man, or any upright object, falls directly upon the place where they stand, and consequently is invisible; whence the inhabitants of such places were called ASCIT, or without shadows: those who live between the tropics, and have the sun sometimes to the N. and sometimes to the S. of them, have of consequence their shadows projecting N. at some seasons of the year, and S. at others; whence they were called AMPHISCIT, having two kinds of shadows. They who live without the tropics have their noon shadows always the same way; and are therefore called HETEROSCIT, that is, having only one kind of shadow. If they are in N. lat. the shadows are always turned towards the N.

and if in the southern hemisphere, towards the S. When a place is so far distant from the equator that the days are 24 hours long or long, the inhabitants were called PERISCIT; because the sun always turns round them.

Names have likewise been given to the different parts of the earth, from 11 of latitude under which they live; and from the position with regard to one another. The places are so near each other, that they have only one horizon, or at least that the perceptible difference between them, the inhabitants were called SYNOECIT, that is, living under the same sky; the seasons, days, nights, &c. being perfectly alike. Those who live in distant places, but under the same parallel, were called PEROECIT; that is, living in the same latitude. Those who are on the same side of the equator, have the seasons of the year at the same time, but if on different sides, the summer of one is the winter of the other; as explained in ASTRONOMY. Some writers, however, have named of *Perioeci*, distinguish those who live under opposite points of the same parallel, noon of the one is the midnight of the other; the two places lie under parallels equally distant from the equator, but in opposite hemispheres. The inhabitants were called ANTOECIT. The similar increase of days and nights, and seasons, but in opposite months. According to the Antioeci were such as lived under the same geographical meridian, and had day at the same time. If two places are in equal distance from the equator, and under the same meridian, the inhabitants were called THOECIT, with respect to one another. When two persons are Antipodes, the one is the nadir of the other. The elevation of the pole, but it is the same at both poles: they have also days and night similar seasons of the year; but they have different hours of the day and night, as well as seasons of the year. Thus, when it is mid-day with us, it is midnight with our Antipodes. When it is summer with us, it is winter with them.

SECT. IX. Of the CONSTRUCTION OF MAPS.

A MAP is a plane figure representing the earth, or some part of it; by the projection of its globular surface, exhibiting seas, rivers, mountains, cities, &c. in their true positions, or nearly so. Maps are either *Universal*, or *Particular*.

UNIVERSAL, or GENERAL MAPS, exhibit the whole surface of the earth in its hemispheres.

PARTICULAR, or PARTIAL MAPS, exhibit some particular part or region of the earth.

Both kinds are usually called *Geographical*, or *Land* MAPS, as distinguished from *Marine*, or *Sea* MAPS; which represent the sea and sea coasts, and are properly called *CHARTS*.

Maps are constructed by making a projection of the globe, or a part of it, either on

or circle, or by the eye placed in
or point, according to the rules of
kc. of which there are several me-

CONSTRUCTION OF GENERAL MAPS. A
world must represent two hemispheres;
it be drawn upon the plane of that
divides the hemispheres.

method is to project each hemisphere
of some particular circle, by the
OGRAPHIC PROJECTION; which see;
hemispheres on one common base or
the plane of projection is that of a
map will be the E. and W. hemispheres
meridians will be ellipses; and
circles will be right lines. Upon the
equinoctial, the meridians will be
offing in the centre, which will re-
side; the parallels of latitude will be
that common centre; and the maps
rthern and southern hemispheres.

CLXII, is an orthographic projec-
the hemispheres upon the plane of
And Fig. 4. an orthographic projec-
northern hemisphere upon the plane
The fault of this way of drawing
towards the outside the circles are
other; and therefore equal spaces
th are represented by very unequal
map.

method is to project the same hemi-
rules of STEREOGRAPHIC PROJECTION;
each way all the parallels will be ex-
circles, and the meridians by circles
(For the nature and properties of
ions, See PROJECTION OF THE
at here the contrary fault occurs;
s towards the outides are too far a-
bout the middle they are too near

ethod is therefore adopted to reme-
of both the former methods: viz.
E. and W. hemispheres, describe the
fig. 5. plate CLXII, for the meridi-
projection; through the centre of
he equinoctial EQ, and axis PN per-
it, making P and N, the north and
Divide the quadrant PE, EN, 2°Q,
9 equal parts, each representing 10
ming at the equinoctial EQ. Divide
N into 9 equal parts, beginning at
ugh the corresponding points draw
of latitude. Again divide CE and
12 parts; and through the points of
he two poles P and N, draw circles,
ples, for the meridians. Thus the
repared to receive the names of the
tries, kingdoms, cities, &c. in the

N. or S. hemisphere, draw AQBE,
equinoctial, dividing it into the four
, AQ, QB, and BE; and each qua-
qual parts; and through these points
s from the centre C, for the paral-
l; numbering them as in the figure.
method, equal spaces on the earth
l by equal spaces on the map, as
jection will bear; for a spherical

surface can no way be represented exactly upon a
plane. Then the several countries, kingdoms, ci-
ties, seas, islands, sea coasts, towns, &c. are to
be marked in the map, according to their latitudes
and longitudes.

In filling up the map, all places representing land
are filled with such cities, towns, rivers, hills, &c.
as the countries contain; but the seas are left
white; the shores adjoining to them being shaded.
Large rivers are marked by strong or double lines,
drawn winding in the form of those they repre-
sent; and small rivers are expressed by small
lines. Different countries are best distinguished
by different colours; at least the borders of them
should be so distinguished. Forests are represented
by small trees; and mountains are shaded to make
them appear. Sands are denoted by numerous
small points; and rocks under water by small
crosses. The mariner's compass, with the 32
points representing the winds, is drawn in any
void space.

II. CONSTRUCTION OF PARTICULAR MAPS.
To draw a map of any particular country, its extent
must be known as to latitude and longitude: as,
Suppose Spain, lying between the N. latitudes 36°
and 44°, and extending from 10° to 23° of longitude.
So that its extent from N. to S. is 8° and from E.
to W. 13°.

1. Draw the line AB, fig. 7. plate CLXII, for a
meridian passing through the middle of the coun-
try; on this, set off 8° from B to A, taken from
any convenient scale; A being the north and B
the south point. Through A and B draw the per-
pendiculars CD, EF, for the extreme parallels
of latitude. Divide AB into 8 parts or degrees,
through which draw the other parallels of latitude,
parallel to the former.

For the meridians, divide any degree in AB in-
to 60 equal parts, or geographical miles. Then,
because the length of a degree in each parallel de-
creases towards the pole, (as appears from the
annexed TABLE,) take the number of miles an-
swering to the latitude of B, which is 48½ nearly,
and set it from B, 7 times to E, and 6 times to
F; so is EF divided into degrees. Again, from
the same table take the number of miles of a de-
gree in the latitude A, viz. 43½ nearly; which set
off, from A, seven times to C, and six times to D.
Then from the points of division in the line CD,
to the corresponding points in the line EF, draw
so many right lines for the meridians. Number
the degrees of latitude up both sides of the map,
and the degrees of longitude on the top and bot-
tom. Also in some vacant place make a scale of
miles; or of degrees, if the map represent a large
part of the earth; to serve for finding the distan-
ces of places upon the map.

Then make the proper divisions and subdivisions
of the country: and having the latitudes and lon-
gitudes of the principal places, it will be easy to
set them down in the map; for any town, &c.
must be placed, where the circles of its latitude
and longitude intersect. For instance, OIBAAI-
TAR, whose lat. is 36° 21' and lon. 12° 27' will
be at G; and MADRID, whose lat. is 40° 10' and
lon. 14° 44', will be at M. In like manner, the
mouth of a river must be set down; but to de-
scribe the whole river, the lat. and lon. of var-

ry turning must be marked down, and the towns and bridges by and under which it runs. And so for woods, forests, mountains, lakes, forts, &c. The boundaries will be described by setting down the most remarkable places on the sea coast, and drawing a continued dotted line through them all. This method is very proper for small countries.

TABLE, showing the NUMBER of MILES contained in a DEGREE of LONGITUDE, in each PARALLEL of LATITUDE from the EQUATOR.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.
1	59	96	31	51	45	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	93	33	50	33	63	27	14
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	91	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	41	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	90	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	18	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	70	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	52	06	60	30	00	90	00	00

2. Maps of particular places, being portions of the globe, may be drawn after the same manner as the whole: *i. e.* either by the orthographic or stereographic projection of the sphere. But in partial maps, an easier method may be taken; thus: having drawn the meridian AB, *fig. 7*, and divided it into equal parts, as in the last method, draw lines through all the points of division perpendicular to AB, for the parallels of latitude; CD, *fig. 7*, being the extreme parallels. Then, to divide these, set off the degrees in each parallel, diminished as directed for the two extreme parallels

P. in the last method; and through all the ^{dividing} points draw the meridians, which ^{are} *fig. 7*; and which were right lines in ^{the last method} because only the extreme paral-

lles were divided by the table. This method is proper for a large tract, as Europe, &c. in the parallels and meridians need only every 5 or 10 degrees. This method is used in drawing maps; as all the parts of their due magnitude, but a little towards the outside, from the obliquity of the meridians and parallels.

3. A 3d method may be adopted for a meridian: Divide it into 9 equal parts through the points of division, describe circles for the parallels of latitude, centre P, which represents the pole. *fig. 8*, the height of the map; then CE parallel passing through the greatest latitude EF will represent the equator. Divide EF into equal parts, of the same length in AB, both ways, beginning at B. All the parallels into the same number of parts, but lesser, in proportion to the for the several latitudes, as directed in the method for the rectilinear parallels. Through all the corresponding divisions, draw lines which will represent the meridians, the ones being EC and ED. Lastly number the degrees of lat. and lon., and place a scale of parts, either of miles or degrees for distances. This is a very good method for large maps, and is called the GLOBULAR METHOD; all the parts of the earth being nearly of their due magnitude, except the outside, are a little distorted on the outside.

When the place of which a map is to be drawn is but small, *e. g.* if a country were to be drawn, the meridians, as to sense, will be parallel, and the whole will differ very little from a plane. Such a map may be made more exact than by the preceding rules, merely by the distances in miles, and so laying it out in a plane rectangular map. But the map making belongs more properly to the ART, which see.

The USE OF MAPS is obvious from the construction. The degrees of the meridians shew the latitudes and longitude, and the scale of miles annexed, their distance from places, with regard to each other, as to the cardinal points, appearance; the top of the map being always the north, the bottom the south, the right the east, and the left the west, unless the compass, shew the contrary.

SECT. X. GENERAL DESCRIPTION. REPRESENTATION of the SPHERE.

HAVING discovered, by maps, one way, the true situation of the different parts of the earth with regard to each other, we know many other particulars relative to them, as, their distance from us, the hour of the season of the year, &c. at a particular place. As each of these problems would require a particular and tedious calculation, machines have been invented by which all the calculations may be made, and every problem in geography may be



GEOGRAPHY.

Fig. 1.
Terrestrial Globe.



Fig. 4.

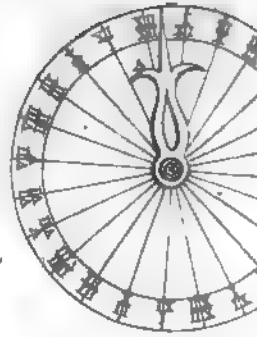


Fig. 5.

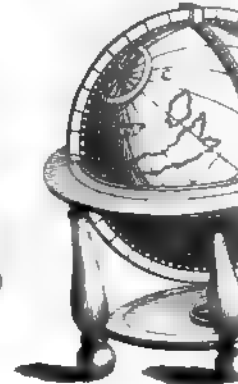
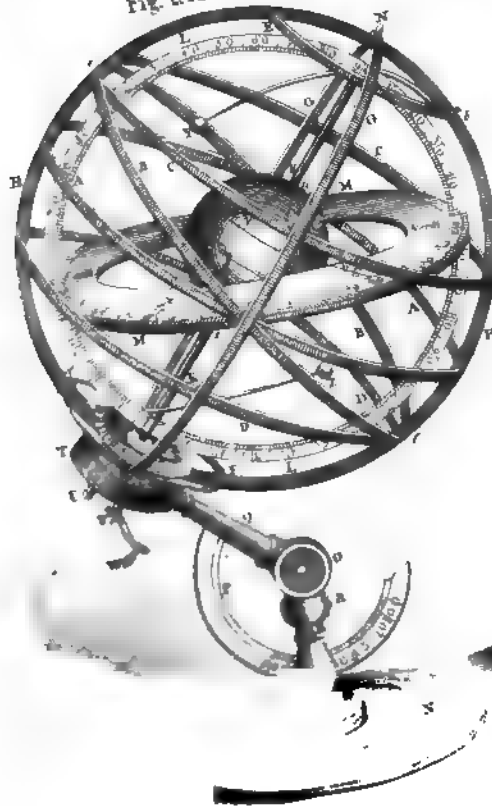


Fig. 3. Celestial Sphere.



Fig. 2. Armillary Sphere.



and in the most easy and expeditious these machines are the celestial and globes, and the armillary sphere; of which I now give a description, with the using them.

of the world be accurately delineated on a ball, the surface thereof will represent the surface of the earth: for the bulk of the ball is inconsiderable with respect to that of the globe: that they take off no more from its surface than grains of sand do from the round common globe: the diameter of the globe is 8000 miles, and no known hill upon the surface exceeds three miles in perpendicular height.

any observer placed any where in the indeterminate space where there is nothing to limit his view, remote objects would appear equally distant from him; and to be placed in a vast concave, of which his eye is the centre. The objects which are nearer to us than the sun; some are sometimes nearer and sometimes farther from us than the sun; others never come nearer to us as the sun always is: the remotest star system is beyond comparison nearer to us than any of the fixed stars are; and yet, all celestial objects appear equally distant from the eye, if we suppose a large hollow sphere to have as many bright studs fixed to its surface as there are stars visible in the heaven, and to be of different magnitudes, and at the same angular distances from each other as the stars are; the sphere will be a true representation of the starry heaven, to an eye situated in its centre, and viewing it all around, as if it were a small globe, with a map of the earth painted on its surface.

placed on an axis in the centre of this sphere, and the sphere be made to turn round this axis, it will represent the apparent motion of the heavens round the earth.

A circle be so drawn upon this sphere, as to divide it into two equal parts or hemispheres, and one of the circle be perpendicular to the axis of the sphere, this circle will represent the celestial equator, which divides the heaven into two parts, called the *northern* and the *southern* hemisphere; and every point of that circle will be distant from the POLES, or ends in the axis, in the same manner as the poles of the earth are.

That pole which is in the middle of the northern hemisphere will be called the *north pole* of the sphere, and that which is in the middle of the southern hemisphere the *south pole*.

Another great circle be drawn upon the sphere, in the same manner as to cut the equinoctial at an angle of 23½ degrees in two opposite points, it will represent the ECLIPHTIC, or circle of the sun's annual motion; one half of which is on the north side of the equinoctial, and the other half on the south.

The sun may be made to move eastward in this manner as to go quite round it, in the same manner as the sphere is turned round westward upon its axis, this stud will represent the sun, changing his place every day a 365th part of the ecliptic, and going round westward as the stars do; but with a motion slower than the motion of the stars, he will make 366 revolutions about the axis in the time that the sun makes only

365. During one half of these revolutions, the sun will be on the north side of the equinoctial; during the other half, on the south; and at the end of each half, in the equinoctial.

If we suppose the terrestrial globe in this machine to be about one inch in diameter, and the diameter of the starry sphere to be about 5 or 6 feet, a small insect on the globe would see a very little portion of its surface; but it would see one half of the starry sphere, the convexity of the globe hiding the other half from its view. If the sphere were turned westward round the globe, and the insect could judge of the appearances which arise from that motion, it would see some stars rising to its view in the eastern side of the sphere, whilst others were setting on the western; but as all the stars are fixed to the sphere, the same stars would always rise in the same points of view on the E. side, and set on the same points of view on the W. side. With the sun it would be otherwise; because the sun is not fixed to any point of the sphere, but moves slowly along an oblique circle in it. And if the insect should look towards the south, and call that point of the globe, where the equinoctial in the sphere seems to cut it on the left side, the east point; and where it cuts the globe on the right side, the west point; the little animal would see the sun rise north of the east, and set north of the west, for 182½ revolutions; after which, for as many more, the sun would rise south of the east, and set south of the west. And in the whole 365 revolutions, the sun would rise only twice in the east point, and set twice in the west.

All these appearances would be the same, if the starry sphere stood still (the sun only moving in the ecliptic), and the earthly globe were turned round the axis of the sphere eastward. For, as the insect would be carried round with the globe, he would be quite insensible of its motion, and the sun and stars would appear to move westward.

SECT. XI. DESCRIPTION of the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

THE equator, ecliptic, and tropics, polar circles, and meridians, are laid down upon the globe in the manner already described. The ecliptic is divided into 12 signs, and each sign into 30 degrees. Each tropic is 23½ degrees from the equator, and each polar circle is 23½ degrees from its respective pole. Circles are drawn parallel to the equator, at every 10 degrees distance from it on each side of the poles: these circles are called *parallels of latitude*. On large globes there are circles drawn perpendicularly thro' every 10th degree of the equator, intersecting each other at the poles; but on the globes of or under a foot diameter, they are only drawn through every 15th degree of the equator: these circles are generally called *meridians*, sometimes *circles of longitude*, and at other times *hour-circles*.

The globe is hung in a brass ring, A, fig. 1, plate CLXIII, called the *brazen meridian*, and turns upon a wire in each pole sunk half its thickness into one side of the meridian ring; by which means that side of the ring divides the globe into two equal parts, called *eastern* and *western* hemispheres.

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spheres; as the equator divides it into two equal parts, called the *northern* and *southern hemispheres*. The ring is divided into 360 equal parts or degrees, on the side wherein the axis of the globe turns. One half of these degrees are numbered, and reckoned from the equator to the poles, where they end at 90. Their use is to show the latitudes of places. The degrees on the other half of the meridian are numbered from the poles to the equator, where they end at 90: Their use is to show how to elevate either the north or south pole above the horizon, according to the latitude of any given place, as it is N. or S. of the equator.

The brazen meridian is let into two notches made in a broad flat ring called the *wooden horizon*, B, C.; the upper surface of which divides the globe into two equal parts, called the *upper* and *lower hemispheres*. One notch is in the north point of the horizon, and the other in the south. On this horizon are several concentric circles, which contain the months and days of the year, the signs and degrees answering to the sun's place for each month and day, the 32 points of the compass, and the circles of amplitude and azimuth. The graduated side of the brass meridian lies towards the east side of the horizon, and should be generally kept towards the person who works problems by the globes.

There is a small horary circle D, so fixed to the north part of the brazen meridian, that the wire in the north pole of the globe is in the centre of that circle; and on the wire is an index, which goes over all the 24 hours of the circle, as the globe is turned round its axis. Sometimes there are two horary circles, one between each pole of the globe and the brazen meridian.

There is a thin slip of brass, called the *QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE*, which is divided into 90 equal parts or degrees, answering exactly to 90 many degrees of the equator. It is occasionally fixed to the uppermost point of the brazen meridian by a nut and screw. The divisions end at the nut E, and the quadrant is turned round upon it.

There is also applied occasionally to the globe a magnetic needle, freely moving over a circle divided into four times 90 degrees; reckoning from the N. and S. points towards the E. and W. and also into the 32 points of the compass. As this needle makes nearly a certain constant angle with the meridian in every place, called the *variation*; therefore this compass, being added to the frame, will rectify the position of the meridian of the globe when the variation of the needle is known. Thus at London, the variation of the needle is at this time about 23 degrees northward; therefore, by moving the frame of the globe about till the needle settles itself over the 23d degree, reckoning westward from the north point or *fleur de lis*, we shall have the brass meridian coinciding with the true meridian. The compass is sometimes fixed between the legs underneath the globe.

SECT. XII. DESCRIPTION and USE of the ARMILLARY SPHERE.

THE exterior parts of this machine are, a compass of brass rings, (See Plate CLXIII. fig. 2.)

which represent the principal circles viz. 1. The equinoctial, AA, which to 360 degrees (beginning at its intersection in Aries), for showing his right ascension in degrees; and also into showing his right ascension in time. 2. The ecliptic, BB, which is divided into 12 signs into 30 degrees, and also into 12 days of the year; in such a manner, that the degree or point of the ecliptic in which on any given day, stands over that circle of months. 3. The tropic of Cancer touching the ecliptic at the beginning in ♋, and the tropic of Capricorn touching the ecliptic at the beginning of ♎ each 23½ degrees from the equinoctial. The arctic circle E, and the antarctic circle F, each 23½ degrees from its respective pole. 4. The equinoctial circle GG, touching the north and south poles of the globe, and passing through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, in the ecliptic. 5. The tropic of Cancer HH, passing through the poles of the ecliptic, and through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn in the ecliptic. Each quarter of these circles is divided into 90 degrees, from the equinoctial to the poles of the world, showing the declination of the sun, moon, and each quarter of the latter, from the equator to its poles, and the latitude of the stars.

In the north pole of the ecliptic, which is fixed one end of a quadrant to the other end a small sun Y, will revolve round the ecliptic BB, by turning in the south pole of the ecliptic, which is another quadrantal wire, upon which is a small moon Z upon it, which may be moved by the hand; but there is a particular contrivance for causing the moon to move in a circle which crosses the ecliptic at an angle of 5 degrees, two opposite points called the *moon's nodes*, also for shifting these points back and forth in the ecliptic, as the moon's nodes shift in.

Within these circular rings is a flat globe I, fixed on an axis KK, which has the north and south poles of the globe to those of the celestial sphere at L. This axis is fixed the flat celestial meridian which may be set directly over the place on the globe, and then turned round the globe, so as to keep still the L upon it. This flat meridian is graduated in degrees, as the brass meridian of a common globe; its use is much the same. To this is added the moveable horizon MM, so as to be fixed to two strong wires proceeding from its points to the globe, and entering the opposite point of its equator, where the moveable brass ring is let into the globe around its equator. The globe may be turned within this ring, so as to place the meridian upon it, directly under the ecliptic LL. The horizon is divided into degrees all around its outermost edge, and the points of the compass for the altitude of the sun and moon both in

celestial meridian I. J., passes through the north and south points of the a common globe; but here, if the globe is round, the horizon and meridian

At the south pole of the sphere is a wire, fixed to the rings: and on the wire which goes round that circle, if turned round its axis.

fabric is supported on a pedestal N, elevated or depressed upon the joint number of degrees from 0 to 90, by arc P, which is fixed in the strong and slides in the upright piece R, in order to fix it at any other proper

There are two wheels (as in Dr Long's two positions, whose axes come out either of which may be turned by wheel W. When the winch is put upon and turned backward, the terrestrial horizon and celestial meridian, and the whole sphere of circles turn about, by south, to west, carrying the moon Z, round the same way, hem to rise above and set below the it when the winch is put upon the turned forward, the sphere with the meridian keep at rest; and the earth, with its meridian, turn round from W. by S. to the same points of the horizon to the S, to which these bodies came when at rest and they were carried round but they rise and set in the same points as, and at the same time in the hour as the motion be in the earth or in

If the earthly globe be turned, the sphere round its hour circle; but if the wheel, the hour circle goes round backward. And thus, by this construction, is equally fitted to show either the of the earth or the apparent motion

the sphere for use, first slacken the upright stem R, and taking hold of move it up or down until the given latitude for any place be at the side of and then the axis of the sphere will be elevated so as to stand parallel to the world, if the machine be set north and south compass: This done, count the north pole, upon the celestial meridian towards the north notch of the set the horizon to that latitude; then until the sun Y comes to the given in the ecliptic, and the sun will be place for that day: find the place of ascending node, and also the place of an ephemeris, and set them right: lastly, turn the winch W, until it comes to the meridian I. J., or until comes to the sun (according as you here or earth to move), and set the XII, marked noon, and the whole be rectified. Then turn the winch, when the sun and moon rise and set, and the hour index will show the for the given day.

who understand the use of the globes

will be at no loss to work many other problems by this sphere, it is needless to enlarge any farther upon it.

SECT. XIII. DIRECTIONS for USING the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

In using globes, keep the east side of the horizon towards you (unless the problem requires to turn it), which side may be known by the word East upon the horizon; for then you have the graduated side of the meridian towards you, the quadrant of altitude before you, and the globe divided exactly into two equal parts, by the graduated side of the meridian.

In working some problems, it will be necessary to turn the whole globe and horizon about, that you may look on the west side thereof; which turning will be apt to jog the ball so, as to shift away that degree of the globe which was before set to the horizon or meridian to avoid which inconvenience, thrust in the leather end of a quill between the ball of the globe and the brazen meridian; which, without hurting the ball, will keep it from turning in the meridian, whilst you turn the west side of the horizon towards you.

PROB. I. To find the latitude and longitude of any given place upon the globe.—Turn the globe on its axis, until the given place comes exactly under that graduated side of the brazen meridian on which the degrees are numbered from the equator; and observe what degree of the meridian the place then lies under; which is its latitude, N. or S. as the place is N. or S. of the equator.

The globe remaining in this position, the degree of the equator, which is under the brazen meridian, is the longitude of the place, which is E. or W.; as the place lies on the E. or W. side of the first meridian of the globe.—All the Atlantic ocean and America, are on the W. side of the meridian of London; and the greatest part of Europe, and of Africa, together with all Asia, are on the E. side of the meridian of London, which is reckoned the first meridian of the globe by the British geographers and astronomers.

PROB. II. The longitude and latitude of a place being given, to find that place on the globe.—Look for the given longitude in the equator (counting it eastward or westward from the first meridian, as it is mentioned to be E. or W.); and bringing the point of longitude in the equator to the brazen meridian, on that side which is above the south point of the horizon; then count from the equator, on the brazen meridian, to the degree of the given latitude, towards the N. or S. pole, according as the latitude is N. or S.; and under that degree of latitude on the meridian you will have the place required.

PROB. III. To find the difference of longitude, or difference of latitude, between any two given places.—Bring each of these places to the brazen meridian, and see what its latitude is: the lesser latitude subtracted from the greater, if both places are on the same side of the equator, or both latitudes added together if they are on different sides of it, is the difference of latitude required. And the number of degrees contained between these places, reckoned on the equator, when they are brought

brought separately under the brazen meridian, is their difference of longitude, if it be less than 180; but if more, let it be subtracted from 360, and the remainder is the difference of longitude required. Or,

Having brought one of the places to the brazen meridian, and set the hour index to XII, turn the globe until the other place comes to the brazen meridian; and the number of hours and parts of an hour, passed over by the index, will give the longitude in time; which may be easily reduced to degrees, by allowing 15 degrees for every hour, and one degree for every four minutes.

N. B. When we speak of bringing any place to the brazen meridian, it is the graduated side of the meridian that is meant.

PROB. IV. *Any place being given, to find all those places that have the same longitude or latitude with it.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian; then all those places which lie under that side of the meridian, from pole to pole, have the same longitude with the given place. Turn the globe round its axis: and all those places, which pass under the same degree of the meridian that the given place does, have the same latitude with that place.

Since all latitudes are reckoned from the equator, and all longitudes are reckoned from the first meridian, it is evident, that the point of the equator which is cut by the first meridian, has neither latitude nor longitude.—The greatest latitude is 90 degrees, because no place is more than 90 degrees from the equator: and the greatest longitude is 180 degrees, because no place is more than 180 degrees from the first meridian.

PROB. V. *To find the antæci, peræci, and antipodes of any given place*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian; and having found its latitude, keep the globe in that situation, and count the same number of degrees of latitude from the equator towards the contrary pole; and where the reckoning ends, you have the *antæci* of the given place upon the globe. Those who live at the equator have no *antæci*.

The globe remaining in the same position, set the hour index to the upper XII on the horary circle, and turn the globe until the index comes to the lower XII; then the place which lies under the meridian, in the same latitude with the given place, is the *peræci* required. Those who live at the poles have no *peræci*.

As the globe now stands (with the index at the lower XII), the *antipodes* of the given place will be under the same point of the brazen meridian where its *antæci* stood before. Every place upon the globe has its *antipodes*.

PROB. VI. *To find the distance between any two places on the globe.*—Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and count the number of degrees intercepted between them on the quadrant; then multiply these degrees by 60, and the product will give the distance in geographical miles; but to find the distance in miles, multiply the degrees by 69½, and the product will be the number of miles required. Or, take the distance between any two places with a pair of compasses, and apply that extent to the equator; the number of degrees, intercepted be-

tween the points of the compasses, in degrees of a great circle: which extend either to geographical miles, miles, as above.

PROB. VII. *A place on the globe and its distance from any other place or places upon the globe, which is a distance from the given place.*—Bring the place to the brazen meridian, and draw of altitude to the meridian the place; then keeping the globe in turn the quadrant quite round up degree of the quadrant that touch the place will pass over all the other places equally distant with it from the given place, as if one foot of a pair were set in the given place, and the other end to the second place, which is known; for if the compasses be then the first place as a centre, the move over all those places which are at distance with the second from it.

PROB. VIII. *The hour of the day given, to find all those places where that time.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index to that time done, turn the globe until the index comes to the upper XII, and then all the places under the brazen meridian have that time.

N. B. The upper XII always stands for noon, and when the bringing of any place to the meridian is mentioned, the side of the globe on which the degrees are reckoned for is meant, unless the contrary side be expressed.

PROB. IX. *The hour of the day given, to find what o'clock it is at any other place.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index to that time; then turn the globe, until the place where the hour is required comes to the meridian; the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. X. *To find the sun's place, and his declination for any given day.*—Look on the horizon for the given day; against it you have the degree of the ecliptic where the sun is (or his place) on that day. Find the same degree of that sign on the ecliptic line upon the globe, and having brought it to the brazen meridian, observe what declination it stands over it; for that is the sun's declination reckoned from the equator.

PROB. XI. *The day of the month given, to find all those places of the earth, where the sun will pass vertically on that day.*—Bring the place in the ecliptic for the given day to the brazen meridian, and the point of the meridian is over it; then turn the globe round its axis, until the sun's place is over it; the globe round its axis, all those places which pass under that point of the meridian are required; for as their latitudes are in degrees and parts of a degree, to the hour, the sun must be directly over them at its respective noon.

PROB. XII. *A place being given, to find those two days of the year, when the sun shall be vertical to that place.*—Bring the place to the brazen meridian, and the point of the meridian is over it; then turn the globe round its axis, until the sun's place is over it; the globe round its axis, all those places which pass under that point of the meridian are required; for as their latitudes are in degrees and parts of a degree, to the hour, the sun must be directly over them at its respective noon.

then turn the globe round its axis, and bring the place to the upper part of the brazen meridian, as in the former problem: then, as the sun will be visible to all those parts of the globe which are above the horizon, the moon will be visible to all those parts which are below it, at the time of her greatest obscuration.

PROB. XVI. *To rectify the globe for the latitude, the zenith, and the sun's place.*—Find the latitude of the place (by Prob. I.), and if the place be in the northern hemisphere, raise the north pole above the north point of the horizon, as many degrees (counted from the pole upon the brazen meridian) as are equal to the latitude of the place. If the place be in the southern hemisphere, raise the south pole above the south point of the horizon as many degrees as are equal to the latitude. Then, turn the globe till the place comes under its latitude on the brazen meridian, and fasten the quadrant of altitude so, that the chamfered edge of its nut (which is even with the graduated edge) may be joined to the zenith, or point of latitude. This done, bring the sun's place in the ecliptic for the given day (found by Prob. X.) to the graduated side of the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to XII at noon, which is the uppermost XII on the hour-circle; and the globe will be rectified.

PROB. XVII. *The latitude of any place, not exceeding $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, and the day of the month, being given; to find the time of the sun's rising and setting, and consequently the length of the day and night.*—Having rectified the globe for the latitude, and for the sun's place on the given day (as directed in the preceding problem), bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern side of the horizon, and the hour index will show the time of sun-rising; then turn the globe on its axis, until the sun's place comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of sun-setting. The hour of sun-setting doubled, gives the length of the day; and the hour of sun-rising doubled, gives the length of the night.

PROB. XVIII. *The latitude of any place, and the day of the month, being given; to find when the morning twilight begins, and the evening twilight ends, at that place.*—This problem is often limited: for, when the sun does not go 18 degrees below the horizon, the twilight continues the whole night; and for several nights together in summer, between 49 and $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude; and the nearer to $66\frac{1}{2}$, the greater is the number of these nights. But when it does begin and end, the following method will show the time for any given day. Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern side of the horizon; then mark with chalk that point of the ecliptic which is in the western side of the horizon, it being the point opposite to the sun's place; this done, lay the quadrant of altitude over the said point, and turn the globe eastward, keeping the quadrant at the chalk mark, until it is just 18 degrees high on the quadrant; and the index will point out the time when the morning twilight begins: for the sun's place will then be 18 degrees below the eastern side of the horizon. To find the time when the evening twilight ends, bring the sun's place to the western side of the horizon,

and the point opposite to it, which was marked with the chalk, will be rising in the east; then bring the quadrant over that point, and keeping it thereon, turn the globe westward, until the said point be 18 degrees above the horizon on the quadrant, and the index will show the time when the evening twilight ends; the sun's place being then 18° below the western side of the horizon.

PROB. XIX. *To find on what day of the year the sun begins to shine constantly, on any given place on the north frigid zone; and how long he continues so to do.*—Rectify the globe to the latitude of the place, and turn it about until some point of the ecliptic, between Arctus and Cancer, coincides with the north point of the horizon where the brazen meridian cuts it; then find, on the wooden horizon, what day of the year the sun is in that point of the ecliptic; for that is the day on which the sun begins to shine constantly on the given place without setting. This done, turn the globe, until some point of the ecliptic, between Cancer and Libra, coincides with the north point of the horizon, where the brazen meridian cuts it; and find, on the wooden horizon, on what day the sun is in that point of the ecliptic; which is the day that the sun leaves off constantly shining on the said place, and rises and sets to it as to other places on the globe. The number of natural days, or complete revolutions of the sun about the earth, between the two days above found, is the time that the sun keeps constantly above the horizon without setting; for all that portion of the ecliptic, which lies between the two points which intersect the horizon in the very north, never sets below it; and there is just as much of the opposite part of the ecliptic that never rises; therefore the sun will keep as long constantly below the horizon in winter as above it in summer.

PROB. XX. *To find in what latitude the sun shines constantly, for any length of time less than 182½ of our days and nights.*—Find a point in the ecliptic half as many degrees from the beginning of Cancer (either toward Arctus or Libra) as there are natural days in the time given; and bring that point to the north side of the brazen meridian, on which the degrees are numbered from the pole towards the equator: then keep the globe from turning on its axis, and raise the meridian up or down, until the foresaid point of the ecliptic comes to the north point of the horizon, and then the elevation of the pole will be equal to the latitude required.

PROB. XXI. *The latitude of a place, not exceeding 66½ degrees, and the day of the month, being given; to find the sun's amplitude or point of the compass, on which he rises or sets.*—Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place to the eastern side of the horizon; then observe what point of the compass on the horizon stands right against the sun's place, for that is his amplitude at rising. This done, turn the globe westward, until the sun's place comes to the western side of the horizon, and it will cut the point of his amplitude at setting. Or, you may count the rising amplitude in degrees, from the east point of the horizon to that point where the sun's place cuts it; and the setting amplitude from the west point of the horizon to the sun's place at setting.

PROB. XXII. *The latitude, the sun's place, his altitude, being given; to find the time of day, and the sun's azimuth, or number of that he is distant from the meridian.*—Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place to the height upon the quadrant of altitude; on the eastern side of the horizon, if the time be in the noon; or the western side, if it be in the noon; then the index will show the hour, and the number of degrees in the horizon, intercepted between the quadrant of altitude and the point, will be the sun's true azimuth at that time.

PROB. XXIII. *The latitude, hour of the day, the sun's place, being given; to find the sun's altitude and azimuth.*—Rectify the globe, and turn the index points to the given hour; then the quadrant of altitude over the sun's place on the ecliptic, and the degree of the quadrant on the sun's place is his altitude at that time above the horizon; and the degree of the horizon on the quadrant is the sun's azimuth, reckoned from the meridian.

PROB. XXIV. *The latitude, the sun's place, and his azimuth, being given; to find out the ecliptic, the day of the month, and the time of day, though they had all been lost.*—Rectify the globe for the latitude and zenith, and set the quadrant of altitude to the given azimuth in the zone; keeping it there, turn the globe on its axis, until the ecliptic cuts the quadrant in the altitude: that point of the ecliptic which is on the quadrant there will be the sun's place; the day of the month answering thereto will be the day over the like place of the sun on the wooden horizon. Keep the quadrant of altitude in the same position; and, having brought the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and the hour index to noon, turn back the globe, until the sun cuts the quadrant of altitude again, and the index will show the hour.

Any two points of the ecliptic, which are distant from the beginning of Cancer or of Capricorn, will have the same altitude and azimuth at the same hour, though the months be different; and therefore it requires some care in the problem, not to mistake both the month and the day of the month; to avoid which, observe, that from the 21st of March to the 21st of June, the sun is between the beginning of Aries and beginning of Cancer; is to be used from the 21st of June to the 21st of September, between the beginning of Cancer and beginning of Libra; from the 21st of September to the 21st of December, between the beginning of Libra and beginning of Capricorn; and from the 21st of December to the 21st of March, between the beginning of Capricorn and beginning of Aries. As one can never be at a loss to know in what quarter of the year he takes the sun's altitude and azimuth, the above caution with regard to the quarters of the ecliptic will keep him right in the month and day thereof.

PROB. XXV. *To find the length of the day at any given place.*—If the place be on the side of the equator, find its latitude (by Prob. I.) and elevate the north pole to that latitude; bring the beginning of Cancer to the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to XII at noon. But if the given place be on the S. side of

elevate the south pole to its latitude, and the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian, and the hour-index to XII. This done, turn the globe westward, until the beginning of Capricorn (as the latitude is N. or S.) to the horizon; and the index will then show the time of sun-setting, for it will come over all the afternoon hours, between sun-rise and sun-set; which length of time being doubled, will give the whole length of the day from sun-rising to sun-setting. For, in all latitudes the sun rises as long before mid day as he sets after it.

XXVI. *To find in what latitude the length of any given length, less than 24 hours, is.* If the latitude be N. bring the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian, and elevate the south pole to about $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; but if the latitude be S. bring the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian, and elevate the south pole to about 66 degrees; because the longest day in N. latitude, when the sun is in the first point of Cancer, is equal to the shortest day in S. latitude, when he is in the first point of Capricorn. Then set the hour-index to noon, and turn the globe westward, until the hour-index points at half the number of hours given; which done, keep the globe from turning on its axis, and slide the meridian down in the ecliptic, until the aforesaid point of the ecliptic (Cancer or Capricorn) comes to the horizon; the elevation of the pole will be equal to the latitude required.

XXVII. *The latitude of any place, not above $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees, being given; to find in what latitude the place is.*—Find the length of the day at the given place, (by Prob. XXV.) and divide it by twelve, double that number, and the result will give the climate in which the place is.

XXVIII. *The latitude, and the day of the year being given; to find the hour of the day, when the sun shines.*—Set the wooden horizon level, and the brazen meridian due N. and S. as a mariner's compass; then, having rectified the globe, stick a small sewing needle into the surface of the globe, perpendicular to that of the surface of the globe; this done, turn the globe on its axis, until the needle comes to the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to noon; then turn the globe on its axis, until the needle points exactly towards the sun; it will do when it casts no shadow on the globe, and the index will show the hour.

XIV. DIRECTIONS for using the CELESTIAL GLOBE.

shall now proceed to the use of the celestial globe, premising, that as the equator, ecliptic, polar circles, horizon, and brazen meridian are exactly alike on both globes, all the problems concerning the sun are solved in the same way. The method also of rectifying the globe is the same. *N. B.* The sun's place for any day of the year stands directly over that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as on the terrestrial.

LATITUDE and LONGITUDE of the stars, and all other celestial phenomena, are reckoned from that of places on the earth; for

all terrestrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator; and longitudes from the meridian of some remarkable place; but all astronomers reckon the latitudes of the heavenly bodies from the ecliptic; and their longitudes from the equinoctial colure, in that semicircle of it which cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries; and thence eastward, quite round; so that stars between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and south latitude; those between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptic have south declination and north latitude; and all between the tropics and poles, have declinations and latitudes of the same denomination.

There are six great circles on the celestial globe, which cut the ecliptic perpendicularly, and meet in two opposite points in the polar circles; which points are each ninety degrees from the ecliptic, and are called its poles. These polar points divide those circles into 12 semicircles; which cut the ecliptic at the beginning of the twelve signs. They resemble so many meridians on the terrestrial globe; and as all places which lie under any particular meridian semicircle on that globe have the same longitude; so all those points of the heaven, through which any of the above semicircles are drawn, have the same longitude.—And as the greatest latitudes on the earth are at the north and south poles of the earth, so the greatest latitudes in the heaven are at the north and south poles of the ecliptic.

For the division of the stars into constellations, &c. see ASTRONOMY.

PROB. I. *To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star.*—Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian: then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the sun's *right ascension*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place is his *declination*. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that stands over it is its declination.

So that right ascension and declination, on the celestial globe, are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

PROB. II. *To find the latitude and longitude of any star.*—If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the 12 semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into the 12 signs; but if the star be on the S. side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptic: keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cuts the star: then the number of degrees in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the star, is its latitude; and the degree of the ecliptic cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

PROB. III. *To represent the face of the starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.*—Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place in every respect, as taught by the XVth

on for the terrestrial; and turn it about, the index points to the given hour; then the hemisphere of the globe will represent the half of the heaven for that time; all the stars on the globe being then in such situations as correspond to those in the heaven. And if the globe be placed duly north and south, every star in the globe will point toward the like star in the heaven; by which means the constellations and remarkable stars may be easily known; all those stars under the upper part of the brazen meridian, between the south point of the horizon and the north pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the latitude of the place be N. but if the latitude be S. those stars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the south pole, are at their greatest altitude.

PROB. IV. *The latitude of the place, and day of the month, being given; to find the time when any known star will rise, or be upon the meridian, or set.*—Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given star comes to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will show the time of the star's coming to meridian of your place; lastly, turn on, until the star comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's setting. *N. B.* In northern latitudes, those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the horizon never rise; and *vice versa* in southern latitudes.

PROB. V. *To find at what time of the year a given star will be upon the meridian at a given hour of the night.*—Bring the given star to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII at noon, and the upper semicircle of the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answering to the day of the year sought; which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun among the signs on the wooden horizon.

PROB. VI. *The latitude, day of the month, and azimuth of any known star being given; to find the hour of the night.*—Having rectified the globe for the latitude, month, and sun's place, lay the quadrant of altitude to the given degree of azimuth in the horizon; then turn the globe on its axis, until the star comes to the graduated edge of the quadrant; and when it does, the index will point out the hour of the night.

PROB. VII. *The latitude of the place, the day of the month, and altitude of any known star, being given; to find the hour of the night.*—Rectify the globe as in the former problem; and at the hour of the night, and turn the globe until the index points at the supposed hour; then lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over the known star; and if the degree of the star's height in the quadrant upon the globe answers exactly to the degree of the star's observed altitude in the heaven, you have guessed exactly: but if the star

on the globe is higher or lower than it is supposed to be in the heaven, turn the globe or forwards, keeping the edge of the quadrant upon the star, until its centre comes to the supposed altitude in the quadrant; and then will show the true time of the night.

PROB. VIII. *An easy method for finding the hour of the night by any two known stars, knowing either their altitude or azimuth of passing both their altitude and azimuth, thereby the true meridian.*—Tie one end to a common musket bullet; and having the globe as above, hold the other thread in your hand, and carry it slowly between your eye and the starry heaven, find it cuts any two known stars at one guessing at the hour of the night, turn until the index points to that time in the circle; which done, lay the graduated edge of the quadrant over any one of these stars in the globe, which the thread cut in. If the said edge of the quadrant cuts the other star also, you have guessed the time exactly; if it does not, turn the globe slowly backward, until the quadrant (kept upon the first star) cuts them both through their centres; the index will point out the exact time of the degree of the horizon cut by the thread, will be the true azimuth of both these stars; and the stars themselves will show their true altitudes in the quadrant. At present, if a common azimuth compass upon a floor or level pavement, that the heaven may have the same bearing upon it, for the variation of the true altitude has in the wall, and a thread extends over the top of the compass will cut the meridian; and if a line be drawn upon the floor or pavement, along the compass, the line an upright wire be placed at the end of the line, the shadow of the wire will cut that line, when the sun is on the meridian upon the pavement.

PROB. IX. *To find the place of the sun at any planet; and thereby find the time of its rising, and setting.*—Seek in an Ephemeris the geocentric place of a planet in the ecliptic, for the given month; and according to its longitude, and latitude, as shown by the ephemeris, mark with chalk upon the globe. Then, tilted the globe, turn it round its axis, and as the said mark comes to the edge of the horizon, to the brazen meridian, western side of the horizon, the index will point out the time the planet rises, comes to meridian, and sets, in the same manner do for a fixed star.

For an explanation of the foregoing globe, and the equation of time, see *ALGEBRA, INDEX.*

SECT. XV. DESCRIPTION OF THE IMPROVEMENTS APPLIED TO GLOBES.

GLOBES mounted in the common manner with their hour circles fixed on the axis, though instructive instruments for ex-

es of geography and the spherical astronomy, yet have several defects; prevent any elevation of the north and near to their axes, or the brass meridian quite moveable round in the horizon do not show how all the phenomena by them arise from the motion of the latter of consequence to beginners: and is adapted to the present age; consequently serve accurately the purposes of astronomy and history, which they might be, if the poles whereon they turn were to move in a circle round those of the horizon according to its present obliquity.

Mr John Senex, F. R. S. invented a method for remedying these defects, by fixing the axis of the diurnal motion to two shoulders of brass, at the distance of $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of the ecliptic. These shoulders are fastened at the other end to an iron rod, which passes through the poles of the ecliptic, and is made to move round with a very stiff spring.

That when it is adjusted to any point of the ecliptic which the equator is made to intersect, the diurnal motion of the globe on its axis is turned. When it is to be adjusted for the past or future, one of the brazen circles is brought under the meridian, and held with one hand, whilst the globe is turned with the other, so that the point of the ecliptic which the equator is to intersect, may pass under the degree of the brazen meridian; then turned to that point, and turning the globe, it will describe the equator according to the position at the time required; and transferred to $23\frac{1}{2}$ and $66\frac{1}{2}$ degrees on the ecliptic, the tropics and polar circles will be traced for the same time. By this contrivance the celestial globe may be so adjusted, as to represent not only the rising and setting of the sun and planets in all latitudes, but likewise all the phenomena that depend upon the motion of the diurnal axis round the annual axis.

These globes, especially the two great ones, which are 28 inches in diameter, have been made upon this principle; so that by means of a screw, the pole of the equator is made to revolve about the pole of the ecliptic. *Phil. Trans.* N^o 447. p. 201, 203. or *Martyn's Abr.* Vol. VIII. p. 217. and N^o 493. art. 18. in *ibid.* Vol. XLVI. p. 290.

To represent the above phenomena in the most easy manner, the late Mr B. Martin invented Mr Senex's contrivance a moveable ecliptic and solstitial colure, a moveable equator, and a moveable ecliptic; all so contrived as to represent those imaginary lines of the heavens for any age of the world.

Mr Harris, late essay-master of the mint, to remedy the former of the defects mentioned, by placing two horary circles on the meridian, one at each pole; these circles are fixed tight between two brass rollers placed on the axis, so that when the globe is turned, they revolve round with it, the meridian serving as an index to cut the horary divisions. The globe in this state serves universally and readily to solve all the problems in N. and S. latitudes, and

also in places near the equator; whereas in the common construction, the axis and horary circle prevent the brass meridian from being moveable quite round in the horizon. This globe is also adapted for showing how the vicissitudes of day and night, and the alteration of their lengths, are really occasioned by the motion of the earth: for this purpose, he divided the brass meridian at one of the poles into months and days, according to the sun's declination, reckoning from the pole. Therefore, by bringing the day of the month to the horizon, and rectifying the globe according to the time of the day, the horizon will represent the circle separating light and darkness; and the upper half of the globe, the illuminated hemisphere, the sun being in the zenith. *Phil. Trans.* N^o 456. p. 321. or *Martyn's Abr.* Vol. VIII. p. 352.

The late Mr George Adam, mathematical instrument-maker, made some additional improvements in the construction of the globes. His globes, like others, are suspended at their poles in a strong brass circle NZÆS (See *Plate CLXIII*, fig. 3, representing the celestial,) and turn therein upon two iron pins, which form the axis. They have each a thin brass semicircle NUIS moveable about these poles, with a small, thin, sliding circle II thereon; which semicircle is divided into two quadrants of 90 degrees each, from the equator to both the poles. On the terrestrial globe this semicircle is a moveable meridian, and its small sliding circle, which is divided into a few points of the compass, is the visible horizon of any particular place to which it is set. On the celestial globe this semicircle is a moveable circle of declination, and its small annexed circle an artificial sun or planet. Each globe has a brass wire TWY placed at the limits of the crepusculum or twilight; which, together with the globe, is mounted in a wooden frame, supported by a neat pillar and claw feet, with a magnetic needle in a compass-box, marked M in the figure. On the strong brass circle of the terrestrial globe, and about $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees on each side of the north pole, the days of each month are laid down according to the sun's declination; and this brass circle is so contrived, that the globe may be placed with the north and south poles in the plane of the horizon, and with the south pole elevated above it. The equator on the surface of either globe serves the purpose of the horary circle, by means of a semicircular wire placed in the plane of the equator, ÆF, carrying two indices, F; one on the east, the other on the west side of the strong brass circle; one of which is occasionally to be used to point out the time upon the equator. In these globes, therefore, the indices being set to the particular time on the equator, the globes are turned round, and the indices point out the time by remaining fixed; whereas in the globes as generally mounted, the indices move over the horary circles while the globe is moving, and thus point out the change of time. For farther particulars of these globes, and the method of using them, *Mr Adam's Treatise on their Construction and Use*, &c. 1772, may be consulted.

The additions and alterations above mentioned, made by Mr Adam, may save trouble to a practitioner.

moner in the performance of a few complex problems, and render the globes more elegant and costly; but to a young beginner, the more simple the construction of the globes, the better will they be adapted to initiate him into the *rationale* and practice of the problems in general; and as such, the globes, as improved by the late Mr B. Martin and Mr Wright, described below, appear to have considerably the advantage in simplicity, and to obviate several material defects that attend the construction of the other globes. The chief of the defects in the old globes is, that the horary circle being screwed on the meridian at the north pole, prevents the elevation of the south pole; which is necessary for the performance of problems for all latitudes. In Mr Adam's, the semicircular wire *AEF* preventing the equator being placed exactly in the horizon, or the poles in the zenith, the great distance of the strong brass circle *NZÆS* from the surface of the globe, on account of the brass semicircles, renders the solution of problems, which require the use of the strong circle, not very easy nor accurate.

An easy and expeditious method of elevating the south pole of the terrestrial globe, and by which means the new discoveries, tracks, &c. made of late years by Captain Cook and other eminent navigators in the south seas, may be clearly seen and traced by the eye over all the southern ocean, was made use of by Mr B. Martin in the construction of the following improvement.

There is a groove turned out on the back part of the brass meridian *A*, *fig. 1. Plate CLXIII*; and by unscrewing the nut of the hour circle *D* at the north pole, the circle is made to slide away to any other part of the meridian, as at *G*. The meridian is fixed or moveable at pleasure by a screw passing into the groove, through the piece or side of the notch in which it moves, on the bottom or nadir point: by properly loosening this screw, the meridian is free to move, and the globe with it, into any required position; but at the same time, it is confined within the notch of the brass piece, and thereby the globe is prevented from falling out of the frame in any position thereof whatsoever. The hour-circle being removed, both the north and south poles of the globe may be placed in the horizon, and thereby form a right sphere, which the usual mounting of the globes does not admit of.

By this construction also, the south pole may be elevated for all latitudes: for this purpose there is an hour-circle about the south pole between the meridian and the globe, which does not obstruct the sight of any land, none having been thereabouts discovered. Consequently the globe is thus equally useful for the solution of all common geographical problems in the southern as in the northern hemisphere, and more extensively so than heretofore.

In this method of mounting the globe, it may readily be converted into a *TELLURIAN*; for as the globe cannot fall out of the frame, the horizon of it may be placed in a perpendicular position: then the sun's place in the ecliptic being brought to the meridian, and its declination, the pole of the globe must be elevated to *eclination*; which may be done by means

of the degrees cut on the outer edge of the meridian for that purpose. If a lighted candle be placed at a considerable distance, the height of the centre of the globe, and with the meridian, the globe will exhibit the phenomena of our earth for that day; and the horizon of the globe become the horizon, and divides the whole into light and dark hemispheres: therefore, turning the globe about its axis from *W*, it clearly appears that all places emerging from the dark hemisphere into the luminous hemisphere, the western part of the horizon, will then be rising; when they arrive at the meridian, it will be their noon; and when they come to the dark hemisphere at the eastern horizon, they will see the sun as setting.

When any place is under the meridian, the hour index to *XII*, and revolve the globe, it will the natural motion and position of the sun be seen when at all hours of the day the sun rises or sets to it; the length of the day and nocturnal arches, or of day and night, what places the sun does not rise and time; and whence the vicissitudes of day and night throughout the year in all latitudes, &c. give this experiment the best effect, should be enclosed within a dark lac, its light issue through a hole or lens in the purpose.

On the outer part of the sliding hour-circle about the north pole, are usually engraved the degrees of the compass; so that by bringing the hour-circle centrally over any place on the globe, the place may be seen by inspection only upon what compass any other place bears from it, all over the globe.

This method of the sliding hour-circle is applicable to the celestial globe. Mr Martin of London has yet farther simplified the construction of the hour circles, and it is the less operose than Mr Martin's above. It consists of the following particulars: The hour circles are engraved on the globes two hour-circles at each of the poles; which are double set of 12 hours, as usual in the brass ones, except that the hours are round both to the right and left: See *CLXIII*. The hour hand or index, is in such a manner under the brass meridian, that it may be moveable at pleasure to any required position, and yet remain there during the revolution of the globe on its axis, entirely independent of the poles of the globe, in this manner by the motion of the globe on its axis, carrying the hour-circle, the hour-circle serves to point out the time, the same in the reverse way by Mr Martin's or other method.

There is an advantage by having the hour-circle figured both ways, as one hour serves for the other, as one hour serves for the other, and the rising and setting, and *vice versa*, may be seen at the same time on the hour circle. The problems generally to be performed, on the globe, the circle of reckoning, at one only the complement. *Fig. 5.* is a representation of the globe, with Mr Wright's hour-circle at *C*.



Primula



Stroud

Revised

William Jones, mathematical instrument maker, who mounts globes according to the improvements above mentioned of Messrs Wright, applies a compass of a portable part of the wooden horizon to both globes (see F, fig. 1.), by a dove-tail in the lid of the compass-box; which method is more convenient and ready in the use of problems, than when fixed under a frame at their feet; and as it occasions less room away from the globes, the compass is useful in other situations.

To perform the problems which relate to the altitudes and azimuths of celestial objects, Mr. F. R. S. has made the following instruments applicable to the celestial globe. In the first, a thin flexible slip of brass, which generally accompanies the globes, called the *quadrant*, Mr. Smeaton substitutes an arch of the same radius, breadth and substance, as the meridian, divided into degrees, &c. as the divisions of that circle, and which, by reason of its strength, is not liable to be bent out of the plane of a vertical circle, as is usual with the quadrant put to globes. That end of the arch, at which the divisions begin, is made square, being filed off square to fit and lay on it throughout its whole breadth; the upper end of the arch is firmly attached, by means of an arm, to a vertical socket, in such a manner that when the lower end of the arch is in the plane of the horizon, the lower end of this socket is in the plane of the upper edge of the brass meridian, directed to the zenith of the globe. This socket is fixed in the ground with a steel spindle of the same diameter, so that it will turn freely on it without friction; and the steel spindle has an apparatus attached to its lower end, by which it can be kept in a vertical position to the brass meridian, so that its centre directly over the zenith point may be. The spindle being fixed firmly in the ground, and the socket which is attached to the arch put on to it, and so adjusted that the lower end of the arch just rests on and fits the plane of the horizon; it is evident that the altitude of any object above the horizon will be the degree which it intersects on this arch, and its azimuth by that end of the arch which is on the horizon.

Mr. Smeaton also directs to place the index usually fixed on one end of the axis to the hour, in such a manner that its upper end may move in the plane of the hour circle, rather than above it, as it usually does. He directs to fix the end of this index to a circular arch, of the same radius with the inner edge of the hour circle, which it is to fit very exactly; and a line is drawn on its upper surface to determine the hour, instead of the tapering point which is usually used. By these means half minutes are distinguished, if the hour circle be 4 inches in diameter. Mr. Smeaton also describes a method for preventing the meridian from shifting, by being rectified for the latitude of the place, while the operator is engaged in adjusting the other parts of the apparatus. But as the method which this is intended to answer appears to be better performed, by the turned groove

on the meridian in Mr. Martin's contrivance described above, we shall omit the particular description; and for farther explanations and figures of Mr. Smeaton's improvements, refer the reader to the *Phil. Trans.* Vol. LXXIX, Part i.

Mr. FERGUSON made another improvement on the celestial globe. See *ASTRONOMY, Index*.

Most of the above problems may also be performed by accurate maps; but this requires a great deal of calculation, which is often very troublesome. The *ANALEMMA*, or Orthographic Projection, delineated on *Plate CLXIV*. will solve many of the most curious; and with the assistance of the maps will be almost equivalent to a terrestrial globe. The parallel lines drawn on this figure represent the degrees of the sun's declination from the equator, whether N. or S. amounting to $23\frac{1}{2}$ nearly. On these lines are marked the months and days which correspond to such and such declinations. The size of the figure does not admit of having every day of the year inserted; but by making allowance for the intermediate days, in proportion to the rest, the declination may be guessed at with tolerable exactness. The elliptical lines are designed to show the hours of sun-rising or sun-setting, before or after six o'clock. As 60 minutes make an hour of time, a fourth part of the space between each of the hour lines will represent 15 minutes; which the eye can readily guess at, and which is as great exactness as can be expected from any mechanical invention, or as is necessary to answer any common purpose. The circles drawn round the centre at the distance of $11\frac{1}{4}$ each, show the point of the compass on which the sun rises and sets, and on what point the twilight begins and ends. To make use of this analemma, it is only necessary to consider, that, when the latitude of the place and the sun's declination are both north or both south, the sun rises before six o'clock, between the east and the elevated pole; that is, towards the north, if the latitude and declination are north; or towards the south, if the latitude and declination are south. Let us now suppose it is required to find the time of the sun's rising and setting, the length of the days and nights, the time when the twilight begins and ends, and what point of the horizon the sun rises and sets on, for the Lizard point in England, Franckfort in Germany, or Abbeville in France, on the 30th of April. The latitude of these places by the maps will be found nearly 50° north. Place the moveable index so that its point may touch 50° on the quadrant of north latitude in the figure; then observe where its edge cuts the parallel line on which April 30th is wrote. From this reckon the hour-lines towards the centre, and you will find that the parallel line is cut by the index nearly at the distance of one hour and 15 minutes. So the sun rises at one hour 15 minutes before six, or 45 minutes after four in the morning, and sets 15 minutes after seven in the evening. The length of the day is 14 hours 30 minutes. Observe how far the intersections of the edge of the index with the parallel of April 30th is distant from any of the concentric circles; which you will find to be a little beyond that marked two points of the compass; and this shows, that on the 30th of April the sun rises two points and

G E O G R A P H Y.

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ro the east towards the north,
ne ward of ENE. and sets a
d of WNW. To find the
; and of twilight, take from the
ed arch C circle $17\frac{1}{2}$ degrees with a
compasses, move one foot of the compas-
d to this distance along the parallel for
April, till the other just touches the
index, which must still point at 50.
where the other foot rests on the paral-
l 30th, then denotes the number of
1 are six at which the twilight begins.

This is somewhat more than three hours
half; which shows, that the twilight
soon after two in the morning, and lik-
it begins to appear near five points from
towards the north. The uses of this
may be varied in a great number of
the example just now given will be for
the ingenious reader.—The small circle
same plate, marked *Island, Promontory*
added, to render the maps more intel-
showing how the different subjects are
delineated on them.

G E O

G E O

GEOLOGICAL, *adj.* belonging to **GEOL**OGY.

(1.) * **GEOLOGY**. *n. f.* [*γῆ* and *λόγος*.] The
doctrine of the earth; the knowledge of the state
and nature of the earth.

(2.) **GEOLOGY**, [from *γῆ*, earth, and *λόγος*, dis-
course,] properly signifies a discourse upon the
earth; but is generally used for a discourse on the
origin or theory of the earth. See **TERRAQUE-**
OUS GLOBE. M. Chaptal, in his *Elem. of Chem.*
vol. 2. introduces his III. Part, "concerning Me-
tallie Substances," with "General Views respec-
ting the decompositions and changes to which the
stony part of our Globe has been subjected," un-
der the title of "GEOLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS."
From these we shall here give a short extract:
"The slightest observation (says he) shews us,
that living beings are kept up and perpetuated
only by successive decompositions and combina-
tions. A slight view of the mineral kingdom ex-
hibits the same changes; and our globe, in all its
productions, presents continual modifications, and
a circle of *activity*, which might appear incom-
patible with the apparent *inertia* of lithologic pro-
ducts. In order to arrange our ideas with greater
regularity, we will consider this globe in two dif-
ferent states. We will first examine the primitive
rock which forms the central part. This appears
to contain no germ of life, includes no remains or
part of any living being, and from every circum-
stance appears to have been of primitive forma-
tion, anterior to the creation of animated or ve-
getating bodies. We shall pursue the various
changes, which are daily produced by the de-
structive action of such agents as alter or modify
this substance. We shall then proceed to examine
what stones have been successively placed upon
this, and what are the decompositions to which
these secondary rocks have been subjected. The
observations of naturalists all unite to prove, that
the central part of the globe consists of the stone
known by the name of **GRANITE**. The profound
excavations, which the art of man or currents of
water, have made in the surface of our planet,
have all uncovered this rock, and have been in-
capable of penetrating lower. We may therefore
consider this substance as the nucleus of the globe;
upon this substance it is that all matters of
formation rest. Granite exhibits many
in its form, composition, and disposition;
its general consists of an assemblage of cer-

tain siliceous stones; such as quartz, fl-
spar, mica, &c. and the more or less ex-
magnitude of these elements of granite,
it to be divided into coarse-grained g-
fine grained granite. It appears to me
rocks owe their arrangement to water;
may be permitted to recur to that
which, according to sacred and profane
the water and earth were confounded
confused mixture of all principles form-
we shall see that the laws of gravity in
matter must have carried it down, and
produced the arrangement which ob-
present exhibits to us. The water, a
heavy, must have purified itself, and an
surface by a filtration through the other
while the earthy principles must have pr-
and formed a mud, in which all the g-
stones were confounded. In this very
der of things, the general law of affinity
continually tends to bring together all
parts, must have exerted itself upon the
of this almost fluid paste; and the result
been a number of bodies of a more del-
in crystals more or less regular; and
muddy substance, in which the princ-
stones were confounded, that compose
a rock must have been produced, con-
elementary stones all in their distinct
characters. In this manner we obser-
very different kinds develop themselves
which hold them in solution, and crys-
and gypsum formed in cays which co-
component parts. It may easily be
that the laws of gravitation must have
the arrangement and disposition of the
The most gross heavy bodies must have
the lightest and most attenuated subst-
have arranged themselves on the surface
constitutes the primitive crust, the
rocks of mica, &c. which commonly re-
granite. The disposition of the fine-gr-
nite in strata or beds, appears to be
position, and the fineness or tenuity of
Being placed in immediate contact with
fluid must naturally have influenced the
ment which it presents to us; and the
this rock, being subjected to the effect
and the action of currents, must have for-
The rocks of granite being once estab-

our globe, we may, from the analysis of the various principles, and by attending to the various agents capable of altering the degradations to which it has been subjected. Water is the principal agent which we shall examine. This fluid, in the ocean, is carried by the winds to the most elevated mountains, where it is ated in rain, and forms torrents, which with various degrees of rapidity into the reservoir. This uninterrupted motion must gradually attenuate and wear away the rock, and carry their pulverulent substances more or less considerable. The air, and the varying temperatures of these rocks. Heat dries their surface, renders it more accessible and more penetrable, which succeeds; cold divides them, by the water which has entered into their texture itself affords the carbonic acid, which is limestone, and causes it to effloresce; the nites to the iron and calcines it; inasmuch as the concurrence of causes favours the dissolution; and consequently the action which clears the surface, carries away the acts of decomposition, and makes prior a succeeding process of the same nature. The first effect of the rain is therefore to be mountains. But the stones which them must resist in proportion to their and we observe peaks, which have destructive action of time, and still remain the primitive level of the mountains which appeared. The primitive rocks, alike in the injury of ages, as to the mountains which cover less elevated mountains with stones, may be considered as the origin of streams. The water, which falls on mountains, flows down in torrents by their faces. In its course, it wears away the which it incessantly acts. It hollows, of a depth proportioned to the rapidity of the rock over which it flows: at the same time that it carries along with it fragments of stones as it loosens in its course. led along by the water, strike together, and off their projecting angles; a process which quickly have afforded those rounded stones which form the pebbles of rivers. These are diminished in size in proportion to their distance from the mountain which affords them; so this cause that Mr Dorthes has referred to the proportionate magnitude of the pebbles, to our ancient worn stones, when compared with those of modern date: For the sea itself formerly much more inland, in the time of the Rhone, the stones which it received from the rivers, and threw back again upon it, had not run through so long a space as those which they at present pass us the remains of the Alps, carried along the Rhone, have successively covered the all comprised between the mountains of the Vivarais; and are carried into our deposit them in small pebbles on the pulverulent remains of mountains, (or

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the powder which results from the rounding of these flints,) are carried along with greater facility than the flints themselves: They float long in the water whose transparency they impair; and when these waters are less agitated, they are deposited in a fine and light paste, forming beds more or less thick, and of the same nature as that of the rocks to which they owe their origin. These strata gradually became drier, by the agglutination of their principles; they become consistent, acquire hardness, and form siliceous clay, flex, petrosilex, and all the numerous class of pebbles, which are found dispersed in strata, or in banks, in the ancient beds of rivers. Mr Pallas has observed the transition of clay to the state of flex, in the brook of Sunghir near Wolodimir. Mr J. W. Baumer has likewise observed it in Upper Hesse. The mud is much more frequently deposited in the interstices between the rounded flints themselves, which it fills, and there forms a true cement that becomes hard, and constitutes the compound stones known by the names of Pudding-stones, and Gait-stones: for these two kinds do not appear to differ, but in the coarseness of the grain which forms them, and the cement which connects them. We sometimes observe the granite spontaneously decomposed. The texture of the stones which form it has been destroyed; the component parts are dissolved, and gradually carried away by the waters. I have observed near Mende, towards Castelnouvel, the most beautiful kaolin on the surface of a granite, in a state of decomposition; and this same rock is decomposed in several other parts of our province. It appeared that the felspar was particularly subject to be altered first. Most siliceous stones, formed by the decomposition of fluviatile waters, and hardened by the lapse of time are easily subjected to a second decomposition. Iron is the principal agent in these secondary alterations; and its calcination, determined by air or water, produces a disunion of principles. Nature may be observed in this process by an attentive examination of such alterations as gun flints, variolites, porphyries, jaspers, and the like are subjected to. The decomposition of flints, calcedonies, agates, and generally all stones of this kind, which possess a certain degree of transparency, appears to me to be referable to the volatilization of the water, which forms one of their principles, and is the cause of their transparency. These stones may be considered as commencements of crystallization; and when the water is dissipated, they effloresce after the manner of certain neutral salts. Hence it arises, that the decomposition is announced by opacity, a white colour, loss of consistence and hardness; and terminates by forming a very attenuated powder, sometimes of extreme whiteness. It is this decomposition particularly, which forms clays. There are flints, whose alterations form effervescent marles. These do not appear to be of the nature of primitive rocks: They have the same origin as the calcareous stones, from which they differ only in consequence of a very considerable proportion of clay. The stones which we so abundantly find around us, among calcareous decompositions, may be considered as of this kind. Water, filtering through mountains of primitive

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rock.

rock, frequently carries along with it very minutely divided particles of quartz, and proceeds to form, by deposition, flint, opales, rock crystal, &c. These quartzose silicities, differently coloured, are of a formation considerably analogous to that of calcareous alabaster; and we perceive no other difference between them, than that of their constituent parts." M. Chaptal next proceeds to consider the decompositions and changes which appear to be produced by the elds of living or organized beings on our globe; such as "the remains of shell animals, of marine and terrestrial vegetables;" &c. for which, as room permits us not to quote the whole of his Geological Observations, we must refer the reader to his work.

* **GEOMANCER.** *n. f.* [*γην* and *μαντις*] A fortuneteller; a caster of figures; a cheat who pretends to foretell futurity by other means than the astrologer.—Fortunetellers, jugglers, *geomancers*, and the incantatory impostors, though commonly men of inferior rank, daily delude the vulgar. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

(1.) * **GEOMANCY.** *n. f.* [*γην* and *μαντις*; *geomance*, French.] The act of casting figures; the act of foretelling by figures what shall happen.—According to some there are four kinds of divination; hydromancy, pyromancy, aeromancy, and geomancy, *Ayliffe.*

(2.) **GEOMANCY,** } is performed by means of a
GEOMANTIA, } number little points, or dots, made on paper at random; and by forming from the various lines and figures which those points present, a pretended judgment of futurity, upon any question proposed. The word is derived from the Greek *γην*, earth, and *μαντις*, divination; it being the ancient custom to cast little pebbles on the earth, and thence to form their conjectures, instead of the points afterwards made use of. Polydore Virgil defines geomancy a kind of divination performed by means of clefts or chinks made in the ground; and supposes the Persian Magi to have been the inventors of it.

* **GEOMANTICK.** *adj.* [from *geomancy*.] Pertaining to the act of casting figures.—

Two *geomantick* figures were display'd
 Above his head, a warrior and a maid,
 One when direct; and one when retrograde. }
Dryden.

* **GEOMETER.** *n. f.* [*γην* and *μετρος*; *geometre*, Fr.] One skilled in geometry; a geometrician.—He became one of the chief *geometers* of his age. *Watts.*

* **GEOMETRAL.** *adj.* [*geometral*, Fr. from *geometry*.] Pertaining to geometry. *Dich.*

* **GEOMETRICAL.** **GEOMETRICK.** *adj.* [*γεωμετρικος*; *geometrique*, French; from *geometry*.]

1. Pertaining to geometry.—A *geometrical* scheme is let in by the eyes, but the demonstration is discerned by reason. *Mere against Atheism.*—This mathematical discipline, by the help of *geometrical* principles, doth teach to contrive several powers. *Wilkins.* 2. Pretended or laid down by geometry.—Must men take a measure of God just by the same *geometrical* proportions that he did, that gather'd the height and bigness of Hercules by his foot? *Stillingfleet.*—

Does not this wise philosopher assert,
 That the vast orb, which casts so far his beams,

Is such, or not much bigger than
 That the dimensions of his glorious

Two *geometrick* feet do scarce surp

3. Disputed according to geometry.
 Justly esteemeth of affinity with the *log*
 described by Boetius; but it is certa

of *logis eructio* is. *Green's Museum*
 (2.) **GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTION**
 STRUCTION OF EQUATIONS. See **ALGEBRA**
 CONSTRUCTION, § 1, *def.* 7.

(3.) **GEOMETRICAL CURVES.** See
Chap. II. § 5, 7.

(4.) **GEOMETRICAL LINE.** See **I**

(5.) **GEOMETRICAL METHOD.**

established the higher parts of their
 on the same principles as the elemen
 science, by demonstrations of the fan
 they did not suppose any thing done,
 vious previous, they had shewn that
 actually done by performing it. A
 they suppose any thing done *that ca*
med; such as a line or series to be a
 need to infer it, or a magnitude to b
 till it became infinitely less than whic
 elements into which they resolved
 were finite, and such as might be co
 real. Unbounded liberties have of
 troduced; by which geometry, whic
 be perfectly clear, is filled with *my*
rin's Fluxions Int. p. 19.

(6) **GEOMETRICAL PACE,** a measu

(7.) **GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION**
 sion in which the terms have all the
 same ratio; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. w
 mon ratio is 2.

(8) **GEOMETRICAL PROPORTION**
 tude or equality of ratio, called also
 PORTION.

(9) **GEOMETRICAL SERIES.** See
Chap. VII. § II.

(10) **GEOMETRICAL SOLUTION,** i
 blem is resolved according to the
 geometry, and by lines truly geom
 expression is used in contradistinctio
 metical, instrumental, or mechanica

* **GEOMETRICALLY.** *adv.* [*ge*
cal.] According to the laws of ge
 possible *geometrically* to contrive luc
 motion as shall be of greater swiftn
 volutions of the heavens. *Wilkins's.*

All the bones, muscles, and vessels
 are contrived most *geometrically*, acc
 stricted rules of mechanicks. *Ray on*

* **GEOMETRICIAN.** *n. f.* [*γην*
 skilled in geometry; a geometrician.—A

be a certain truth, *geometricians* want
 satisfaction without demonstration th
 —How easily does an expert *geor*
 one glance of his eye take in a compl
 mud up of many lines and circles!

GEOMETRICUS LOCUS. See

* **To GEOMETRIZE.** *v. a.* [*γεω*
 according to the laws of geometry.—
 good store of crystals, whose figur
 ing enough, though prettily shap
 had at once affected variety in t
 and yet confined herself to *geometri*

DEFINITIONS of the SCIENCE.

METRY is defined by Dr Johnson as follows:

METRY. *n. f.* [*γῆπιμα*; *geometrie*, Fr.] signifies the art of measuring the earth, distances or dimensions on or within it: now used for the science of quantity, extension or magnitude, abstractedly considered, in any regard to matter.—*Geometry* is usual-ly divided into speculative and practical; the former contemplates and treats of the pro-portion continued quantity abstractedly; and the latter applies these speculations and theo-ry to use and practice. *Harris*.—In the mus-ic there seems to be more *geometry* than in artificial engines in the world. *Ray*.—It is also for my censor I disdain,
thinks all science, as all virtue, vain;
counts *geometry* and numbers toys,
with his foot the sacred dust destroys.

Dryden's Pers.

The word **GEOMETRY** literally signifies *measuring the earth*, as it was the necessity of measur-land that first gave occasion to study the laws and rules of this science, which has since extended to numberless other speculations. It is the science of inquiring, inventing, demonstrating, all the affections of magnitude: it styles it the knowledge of magnitudes and their limitations; as also of their ratios, positions and motions of every kind. The word, *geometry*, together with *arithme-tics* forms the chief foundation of all the mathe-matics.

HISTORY of GEOMETRY.

The invention of geometry is generally ascribed to the EGYPTIANS. Herodotus, Diodorus, Strabo, Proclus, all agree that the annual inun-dation of the Nile gave rise to it, by carrying a-way the marks and boundaries of estates and covering the surface of the ground with mud, which effaced every trace of their for-mer divisions. Hence the Egyptians were obliged to distinguish and lay out their lands in consideration of their figure and quantity, so that every person might have his own property: and by repeated experience and practice, in measuring figures, lines, and schemes for this pur-pose, they gradually formed an art which, from its use in measuring of lands, the Greeks at-tributed to *Γῆπιμα*, *Geometry*. By farther con-sideration on the draughts of figures, their won-derful properties were more and more discovered, and continually gained ground and improved, till the discoveries of succeeding mathematicians. It appears to be the most probable origin of the science; though Josephus seems to ascribe the invention to the Hebrews; while others of the an-cient writers make Mercury the inventor. *Polyd. Virg.* *ecr.* l. i. c. 18.

It is said to have introduced this science into Greece; where it was greatly improved by himself, as well as by THALES, ANAXAGORAS of Clazomene, HIP-PARCHUS of Chios, and PLATO; who testified

his conviction of the necessity and importance of Geometry to the successful study of Philosophy, by inscribing over the door of his Academy, *Let no one ignorant of GEOMETRY enter here*. Plato thought the word *Geometry* too mean a name for this science; and substituted instead of it the more extensive name of **MENSURATION**; and after him others gave it the title of **PANTOMETRY**. But even these are now become too confined in their import, fully to comprehend its extent; for it not only inquires into, and demonstrates the quantities of magnitudes, but also their qualities, as the species, figures, ratios, positions, transformations, descriptions, divisions, the finding of their centres, diameters, tangents, asymptotes, curvatures, &c.

About 50 years after PLATO, EUCLID collected together all those theorems, which had been in-vented by his predecessors in Egypt and Greece, and digested them into 15 books, entitled *The Elements of Geometry*: demonstrating and arranging the whole in a very accurate and perfect manner.

The next to Euclid, of those ancient authors whose works are extant, is APOLLONIUS PER-GAËUS, who flourished in the reign of Ptolemy Eu-ergetes, about A. A. C. 230, and 100 years after Euclid. He was author of the first and principal work on Conic Sections; on account of which, and his other accurate and ingenious geometrical works, he acquired from his patron the emphati-cal appellation of the *Great Geometrician*.

Contemporary with Apollonius, or perhaps a few years before him, flourished ARCHIMEDES, celebrated for his extraordinary mechanical inven-tions during the siege of Syracuse, and no less so for his many ingenious geometrical compositions.

EUDOXUS of Cnidus, Archytas of Tarentum, Philolaus, Eratosthenes, Aristarchus of Samos, Dinostratus, the inventor of the quadratrix, Me-nechmus his brother, and the disciple of Plato, the two Aristæuses, Conon, Thracidius, Nicote-les, Leon, Theudius, Hermotimus, Hero, and Nicomedes, the inventor of the conchoid; besides many other ancient geometers, have contribu-ted to the improvement of geometry.

The Greeks continued their attention to it, even after they were subdued by the Romans; where-as the Romans themselves were so little acquaint-ed with it, even in the most flourishing time of their republic, that Tacitus informs us they gave the name of mathematicians to those who pursued the chimeras of divination and judicial astrology. Nor does it appear they were disposed to cultivate geometry during the decline, and after the fall of the Roman empire. But the case was different with the Greeks; among whom are found many excellent geometers since the commencement of the Christian era, and after the translation of the Roman empire. Ptolemy lived under Marcus Aurelius; and we have still extant the works of Pappus of Alexandria, who lived in the time of Theodosius; the commentary of Eutocius, the Ascalonite, who lived about A. D. 540, on Archi-medes's mensuration of the circle; and the com-mentary on Euclid, by Proclus, who lived under the empire of Anastasius.

The consequent inundation of ignorance and barbarism was unfavourable to geometry, as well

as to the other sciences; and the few who applied themselves to this science, were calumniated as magicians. However, in those times of European darkness, the Arabians were distinguished as the guardians and promoters of science; and from the 9th to the 14th century, they produced many astronomers, geometricians, geographers, &c.; from whom the mathematical sciences were again received into Spain, Italy, and the rest of Europe, somewhat before the year 1400.

Some of the earliest writers after this period, are Leonardus Pisanus, Lucas Pacioli or De Burgo, and others between 1400 and 1500. And after this appeared many editions of Euclid, or commentaries upon him: thus, Orontius Finæus, in 1570, published a commentary on the first 6 books; as did James Peletarius, in 1556; and about the same time Nicholas Tartaglia published a commentary on the whole 15 books. There have been also the editions, or commentaries, of Commandine, Clavius, Billingsly, Scheubelius, Herlinus, Dastypodius, Ramus, Herigon, Stevinus, Saville, Barrow, Taquet, Dechales, Fournier, Scarborough, Keill, Stone, and many others; but the completest edition of all the works of Euclid, is that of Dr Gregory, printed at Oxford in 1703, in Greek and Latin. The edition of Euclid, by Dr Robert Simson of Glasgow, containing the first 6 books, with the 11th and 12th, is much esteemed for its correctness.

The principal other elementary writers, besides the editors of Euclid, are Pardies, Marchetti, Wolfius, Simpf n, &c. And among those who have gone beyond Euclid in the nature of the elementary parts of geometry, may be chiefly reckoned, Apollonius, in his Conics, his Loci Plani, De Sectione Determinata, his Tangencies, Inclinations, Section of a Ratio, Section of a Space, &c.; Archimedes, in his treatises of the Sphere and Cylinder, the Dimension of the circle, of Conoids and Spheroids, or Spirals, and the quadrature of the Parabola; Theodosius, in his Spherics; Serenus, in his Sections of the Cone and Cylinder; Kepler's Nova Stereometria; Cavalieri's Geometria Indivisibilium; Torricelli's Opera Geometrica; Viviani in his Divisiones Geometricæ, Exercitatio Mathematica, De Locis Solidis, De Maximis & Minimis, &c.; Vietæ, in his Efectio Geometrica, Supplement. Geometricæ, Sectiones Angulares, Responsum ad Problemata; Apollonius Gallus, &c.; Gregory St Vincent's Quadratura Circuli; Fermat's Varia Opera Mathematica; Dr Barrow's Lectiones Geometricæ; Bulliald de Lineis Spiralibus; Cavalieri; Schooten and Gregory's Exercitationes Geometricæ, and Gregory's Pars Universalis, &c.; De Billy's treatise De Proportionibus Harmonicis; La Lovera's Geometria veterum promota; Similius's Meolabium, Problemata Solida, &c.; Wallis in his treatises De Cycloide, Cylindro, &c.; De Proportionibus, De Sectionibus Conicis, Arithmetica Infinitorum, De Centro Gravitatis, De Sectionibus Angularibus, De Angulo Contracto, Cono Cuneis, &c. &c.; Huygens De Omnicurva, in his Analysis Geometrica; Palaton on the Cycloid; Steph. Angeli's Problemata Geometrica; Alex. Anderson's Suppl. Reivertii, V. omnium Proportionalitatem, &c.; Baroni's Geomet. Proble. &c.; Gherardo Grandini Geometr. Demonstr. &c.; Gher-

taldi Apollonius Redivivus, &c.; La Coten or a Ceulen, de Circulo et Adjectis; Snell's Apollonius Batavus, Cyclometria; Herberstein's Diotomo Circulorum; Palcat. in Geometriam; Guidini Centro Baf several others equally eminent, of moderate date, as Dr Rob. Simson, Dr Mat. St Tho. Simpson, &c.

Since the introduction of the new geometry of curve lines; as exponential equations, in this part of geometry following names, among many others especially to be respected, viz. D Schooten, Newton, Maclaurin, Br Cramer, Cotes, Waring, &c. &c.

As to the subject of practical geometry chief writers are Beyer, Kepler, Ram Mallet, Tacquet, Ozanam, Wolfius, with innumerable others.

On the whole, the history of geometry divided into 4 grand æras: viz. 1. From its introduction into Greece by EUCLID: 2. From that period to its meridian by EUCLID: 3. From EUCLID and ARCHIMEDES, who, by applying algebraic elements of geometry, gave a new turn to it: and, 4. From Descartes to its present state, by Sir ISAAC NEWTON and M. LEIBNITZ, introduced still greater improvements by the application of FLUXIONS.

This science is generally divided into viz. 1. THEORETICAL GEOMETRY, the general principles of the science; 2. PRACTICAL GEOMETRY, or the application of these principles to the mensuration of solids, &c.

PART I.

THEORETICAL GEOMETRY

OR, GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE SCIENCE.
SECT. I. OF STRAIGHT LINES and ANGLES. See *Plates* CLXV, CLXVI.

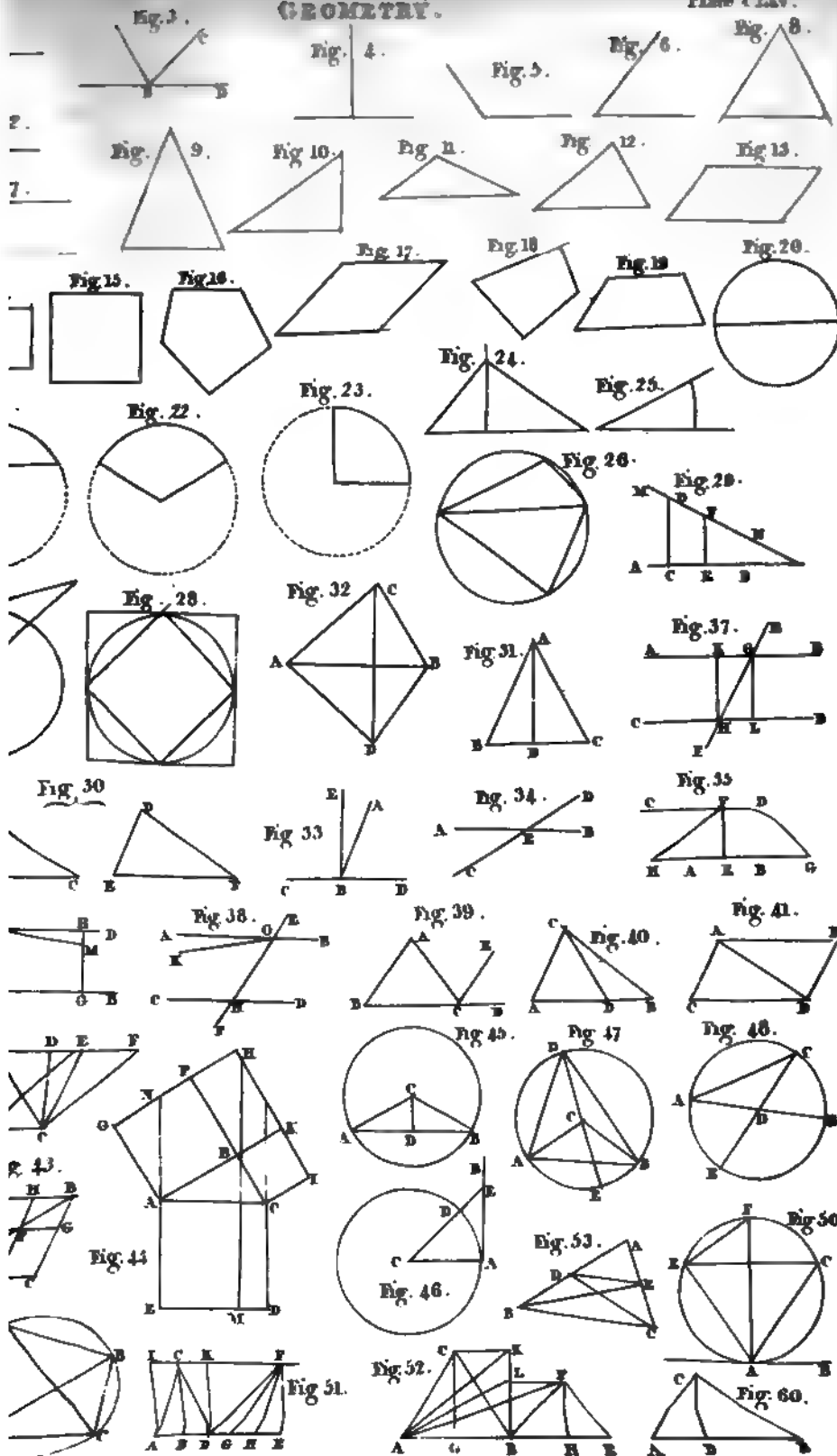
DEFINITIONS.

1. A POINT is that which has position without magnitude.
2. A LINE is length without breadth; the extremities of a line are there.
3. A RIGHT LINE, or STRAIGHT LINE, is that which lies evenly between its extremities. *Fig. 1. Plate CLXV.*
4. A SUPERFICIES is that which has length and breadth; the extremities of a superficies are therefore lines, and the intersections of two superficies with one another are also lines.
5. A PLANE SUPERFICIES is that in which two points being taken, the straight line which lies wholly in that superficies.
6. A PLANE RECTILINEAL ANGLE is the inclination of two straight lines to one another, which meet together, but are not in the same line. *Fig. 2.*

Note. When several angles are formed at the same point, as at B, *Fig. 3.* Each angle is denoted by three letters, which express the whole angular point, and the other

GEOMETRY.

PLATE CLIV.



form the angle, thus, CBD or DBC denoting the angle contained by the line CB and DB. If a straight line standing on another makes the adjacent angles equal to each other, each of the angles is called a RIGHT angle, and the straight line which stands on the other is called a PERPENDICULAR. *Fig. 4.*

AN OBTUSE ANGLE is that which is greater than a right angle. *Fig. 5.*

AN ACUTE ANGLE is that which is less than a right angle. *Fig. 6.*

PARALLEL STRAIGHT LINES are such as lie in the same plane, and which being produced both ways do not meet. *Fig. 7.*

A FIGURE is that which is enclosed by one or more boundaries.

RECTILINEAL FIGURES are those which are bounded by straight lines.

A TRIANGLE is a rectilinear figure bounded by three straight lines. The three sides are called the sides, that side upon which the triangle is conceived to stand is called the base, and the opposite angular point the vertex.

EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE is that which has three equal sides. *Fig. 8.*

ISOSCELES TRIANGLE is that which has two equal sides. *Fig. 9.*

SCALENE TRIANGLE is that which has three unequal sides. *Fig. 10.*

A RIGHT ANGLED TRIANGLE is that which has one right angle. *Fig. 11.*

AN OBTUSE ANGLED TRIANGLE is that which has one obtuse angle. *Fig. 12.*

AN ACUTE ANGLED TRIANGLE is that which has three acute angles. *Fig. 13.*

A QUADRILATERAL is a rectilinear figure bounded by four straight lines. The two opposite angles are called the opposite angles, and the line which joins the opposite angles is called a diagonal.

A PARALLELOGRAM is a quadrilateral of which the opposite sides are parallel. *Fig. 14.*

A RECTANGLE is a parallelogram which has four right angles. *Fig. 15.*

A SQUARE is a parallelogram which has four equal sides and all its angles right. *Fig. 16.*

A RHOMBUS is a parallelogram which has four equal sides. *Fig. 17.*

A TRAPEZIUM is a quadrilateral which has two opposite sides parallel. *Fig. 18.*

A TRAPEZOID is a quadrilateral which has two opposite sides parallel. *Fig. 19.*

FIGURES bounded by more than four sides are called POLYGONS. *Fig. 20.*

A PENTAGON is a polygon of five sides, a HEXAGON six sides; a HEPTAGON seven; an OCTAGON eight; a NONAGON nine; a DECAGON ten; an UNDÉCAGON eleven; and a DODECAGON twelve sides.

A REGULAR POLYGON hath all its sides equal, and all its angles equal; if they are not equal, it is called an IRREGULAR POLYGON.

A CIRCLE is a plane figure bounded by one line, the circumference, which is such that all the lines drawn to it from a certain point called the centre are equal; and these lines are called the radii of the circle. The circumference itself is also often called a circle.

31. The DIAMETER of a circle is a straight line passing through the centre, and terminated both ways by the circumference.

32. An ARC of a circle is any part of its circumference. *Fig. 21.*

33. A CHORD is a straight line joining the extremities of an arc. *Fig. 22.*

34. A SEGMENT is any part of a circle bounded by an arc and its chord. *Fig. 23.*

35. A SEMICIRCLE is half the circle, or a segment cut off by a diameter. The half circumference is also sometimes called a semicircle. *Fig. 24.*

36. A SECTOR is any part of a circle which is bounded by an arc, and two radii drawn to its circumference. *Fig. 25.*

37. A QUADRANT, or quarter of a circle, is a sector having a quarter of a circle for its arc, and its two radii are perpendicular to each other. A quarter of the circumference is also called a quadrant. *Fig. 26.*

38. The HEIGHT or ALTITUDE of a figure is a perpendicular let fall from an angle or its vertex to the opposite side or base. *Fig. 27.*

39. In a right angled triangle the side opposite the right angle is called the HYPOTHENUSE, and the other two sides are called the LEGS, or sometimes the base and perpendicular. *Fig. 28.*

40. The circumference of every circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts called DEGREES, and each degree into 60 MINUTES, each minute into 60 SECONDS, and so on. Hence a semicircle contains 180 degrees, and a quadrant 90 degrees.

41. The MEASURE of a RECTILINEAL ANGLE is an arc of any circle contained between the two lines which form that angle, the angular point being the centre, and it is estimated by the number of degrees in that arc. *Fig. 29.*

42. IDENTICAL FIGURES are such as have all the sides and all the angles of the one, respectively equal to all the sides and all the angles of the other, each to each, so that if the one figure were applied to, or laid upon the other, all the sides of the one would exactly fall upon and cover all the sides of the other, the two becoming as it were but one and the same figure.

43. The DISTANCE of a POINT from a LINE is the straight line drawn from that point perpendicular to, and terminating in that line.

44. An ANGLE in a SEGMENT of a CIRCLE is that which is contained by two lines drawn from any point in the arc of the segment to the extremities of that arc. *Fig. 30.*

45. An ANGLE on a SEGMENT, or an ARC, is that which is contained by two lines drawn from any point in the opposite, or supplemental part of the circumference, to the extremities of the arc, and containing the arc between them. *Fig. 31.*

46. An ANGLE at the CIRCUMFERENCE is that whose angular point is any where in the circumference, and an angle at the centre is that whose angular point is at the centre. *Fig. 32.*

47. A TANGENT to a CIRCLE is a straight line which meets the circle at one point, and every where else falls without it. *Fig. 33.*

48. A SECANT is a straight line that cuts the circle lying partly within and partly without it. *Fig. 34.*

49. A RIGHT LINED FIGURE is inscribed in a circle, or the circle circumscribes it when all the angular points of the figure are in the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 28.*

50. A RIGHT LINED FIGURE circumscribes a circle, or the circle is inscribed in it when all the sides of the figure touch the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 28.*

51. ONE RIGHT LINE FIGURE is inscribed in another, or the latter circumscribes the former when all the angular points of the former are placed in the sides of the latter. *Fig. 28.*

52. SIMILAR FIGURES are those that have all the angles of the one equal to all the angles of the other, each to each, and the sides about these angles proportional.

53. The PERIMETER of a FIGURE is the sum of all its sides taken together.

Note. When the word *line* occurs, without the addition of either *straight* or *curved*, a straight line is always meant; also the contractions (Def.) (Ax.) (Th.) are references to the definitions, axioms and theorems that have been before mentioned.

AXIOMS.

1. Things which are equal to the same thing are equal to one another.

2. When equals are added to equals, the wholes are equal.

3. When equals are taken from equals, the remainders are equal.

4. When equals are added to unequals, the wholes are unequal.

5. When equals are taken from unequals, the remainders are unequal.

6. Things which are doubles of the same thing are equal to one another.

7. Things which are halves of the same thing are equal.

8. The whole is equal to all its parts taken together.

9. Things which coincide, or fill the same space, are identical, or mutually equal in all their parts.

10. All right angles are equal to one another.

11. Angles that have equal measures, or arcs, are equal.

12. More than one straight line cannot be drawn from any given point to another given point. *Fig. 1.*

13. If two points D, F in a right line MN are situated at unequal distances DC, FE from another right line AB in the same plane; those two lines being indefinitely produced on the side of the least distance will meet one another. *Fig. 29.*

REMARKS. A PROPOSITION is something proposed to be done, and is either a Problem or Theorem.

A PROBLEM is something proposed to be done.

A THEOREM is something proposed to be demonstrated.

A LEMMA is something premised or demonstrated, in order to make what follows the more easy.

A COROLLARY is a consequent truth gained immediately from some preceding truth or demonstration.

A SCHOLIUM is a remark or observation made upon something going before.

THEOREM I. *fig. 30.* If two triangles have two

sides and the included angle of the two triangles will be identical, or equal.

In the two triangles ABC, DEF, of the one be equal to the side DE and the side AC equal to DF, also equal to the angle D, the triangles are equal, or equal in all respects. For triangle ABC, to be applied to, or the triangle DEF, so that the point A coincide with D, and the side AB with DE, then since the angles A and D are equal, AC shall also coincide with DF, or equal to DE, and AC is equal to DF; B and E shall coincide, as also the F; consequently the side BC will be the side EF; (Ax. 12.) therefore the triangles are identical (Ax. 9.) and have their corresponding parts equal.

THEOR. II. *fig. 30.* Triangles having two angles and the side which lies between them are identical, or have their other sides equal.

Let the two triangles ABC, DEF, have the angle B equal to the angle E, the angle C equal to the angle F, and the side BC equal to EF, then these triangles will be identical.

For conceive the triangle ABC applied to the triangle DEF, so that BC may fall exactly upon EF, since the angle B is equal to the angle E, BA will fall upon DE, and in like manner the angles C and F, are equal, the side AC will fall upon FD, thus the triangles will be identical and therefore (Ax. 9.) are identical.

THEOR. III. *fig. 31.* In an isosceles triangle the angles at the base are equal.

If the triangle ABC be isosceles, AB equal to a side AC; then will the angle at B be equal to the angle at C. For draw a line AD, bisecting the angle at A to be bisected, or dividing the angle into two equal parts by the line AD. The triangles BAD, CAD having two sides an angle of the one equal to two sides and the included angle of the other, namely AB, AD common to both, BAD equal to the angle CAD, are identical (Th. 1.) therefore the angle B is equal to the angle C.

COROLLARY 1. An equilateral triangle is equiangular.

COR. 2. A line that bisects the vertex angle of an isosceles triangle bisects also the base and is perpendicular to it.

THEOR. IV. *fig. 31.* If a triangle has its angles equal, the sides which subtend these angles are also equal.

Let ABC be a triangle, of which the angles B and C are equal, the side AB will be equal to the side AC. Suppose BC to be produced, and AD joined, dividing the triangle into the two triangles BAD, CAD; and the angle ABD to be turned over, so that it may fall upon DC, then the point B will coincide with the point C, and since the angles B and C are equal, the side AB will fall upon AC, and the extremity C will coincide with the extremity C because DC is common to both; the side AC is equal to the side BC.

hence every equiangular triangle is also

V. fig. 32. Triangles which have sides mutually equal, are identical, or their three angles equal each to each.

Triangles ABC, ADC have their 3 sides equal, viz. AC equal to AC, AB equal to AD and BC equal to DC, the angles opposite these shall be equal, namely BAC to DAC, CA, and ABC to ADC. Suppose the lines are joined by their longest equal sides, and then the angle ABD is equal to ADB, the angle CBD to the angle CDB (Th. 3.) the whole angle ABC is equal to the whole angle ADC (Ax. 2.) and since AB is equal to AD and BC to DC, the triangles ABC, ADC are equal (Th. 1.)

VI. fig. 33. The angles which one line makes with another upon one side of it are equal to two right angles.

If the line AB make with CD upon one side angles ABD, ABC, these are together equal to two right angles. If AB be perpendicular to CD, the angles ABC, ABD are evidently each equal to a right angle (def. 7.) But if AB be not perpendicular to CD, draw BE perpendicular to CD, dividing the greater angle ABC into the angles EBC, EBA, then the former EBC is equal to a right angle, and the remaining part EBA with the whole lesser angle ABD equal to a right angle, the whole of both the angles must necessarily be equal to two right angles. (Ax. 2.)

Hence also, conversely, if the two angles ABD on both sides of line AB make equal to two right angles then CB and BD form a straight line.

All the angles that can be made round a point by any number of lines are equal to two right angles.

VII. fig. 34. If two lines intersect each other, the opposite angles are equal.

If AB and CD intersect each other in E, the angle AEC is equal to BED, and AED to BEC; the angles AEC, AED are together equal to two right angles (Th. 6.) and in like manner BED, BEC are together equal to two right angles; therefore the angles AED are together equal to BED, (Th. 1.) and taking away the common angle AED from both, there remains AEC equal to BEC. (Th. 3.) In like manner it will appear that AED is equal to BEC.

VIII. fig. 35. Two straight lines perpendicular to one and the same straight line are parallel to each other.

Let AB and CD be perpendicular to EF, the lines AB and CD are parallel. For if they be not parallel they will meet at some point, as G, take EH perpendicular to EF, and join FH. The triangles EHF, EHG have EH equal to EH and EF common to both, and also the angles FEH, FEG equal in all respects, (Th. 1.) and so the triangles EHF, EHG being both right angles, the triangles are equal, as well as HEG, must be one continuous line; (Th. 6. Cor. 1.) which is therefore AB and CD are parallel.

IX. fig. 36. If two straight lines be perpendicular to the one terminated

by the other, are equal, and are also perpendicular to both the parallels.

Let AB and CD be parallel straight lines, and let EF, GH, be perpendiculars to CD one of them at E and C, meet the other at F and H; the lines EF and GH are equal between themselves, and also perpendicular to CD. It is evident that EF and GH are equal, for if they were not equal, AB would not be parallel to CD. (Ax. 13.) The line EF must also be perpendicular to CD, for if it be not, then draw FM perpendicular to FE, meeting GH in M; so shall FM be parallel to AB (Th. 8.) and therefore GM equal to EF, or to GH, which is impossible; therefore EF is perpendicular to CD, and by the same argument GH is perpendicular to CD.

THEOR. X. fig. 37. If a line intersect two parallel lines, it makes the alternate angles equal.

Let the line EF intersect the parallel lines AB, CD at G and H, the alternate angles AGH, GHD are equal. Let HK, GL be perpendicular to the parallel lines AB, CD, then these lines HK, GL are also parallel, (Th. 8.) now the triangles HKG, HGL having the side HK equal to GL and KG equal to HL (Th. 9.) also the angles at K and L equal, they being right angles, will have the angles KGH, LHG equal. (Th. 1.)

COR. If a line intersect two parallel lines it makes the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite on the same side, and also the two interior angles on the same side equal to two right angles. For the interior angle GHD is equal to AGH, that is, (Th. 7.) to the exterior angle EGB, to each of these add BGH, and the two interior angles BGH, GHD are together equal to BGH, BGE, that is to two right angles. (Th. 6.)

THEOR. XI. fig. 38. If a line intersecting two other lines makes the alternate angles equal, these lines are parallel.

Let EF intersect the lines AB, CD at G and H, and make the alternate angles AGH, GHD equal, the lines AB, CD are parallel. For if AB or AG be not parallel to CD, suppose KG parallel to CD, then the angle KGH will be equal to GHD, (Th. 10.) that is by hypothesis to AGH which is impossible, (Ax. 8.) therefore no other line than AB can be parallel to CD.

COR. If a line intersecting two other lines makes the exterior angle equal to the interior angle on the same side, or the two interior angles on the same side equal to two right angles, these lines are parallel.

THEOR. XII. fig. 39. If one side of a triangle be produced, the exterior angle is equal to both the interior and opposite angles, and the three interior angles are equal to two right angles.

Let BC a side of the triangle ABC be produced to D, the exterior angle ACD is equal to the two interior and opposite angles BAC, ABC, and the three interior angles ABC, BAC, BCA are equal to two right angles. Let CE be parallel to AB, then the angle ACE is equal CAB (Th. 10.) and the angle ABC to ECD, (Th. 10, Cor.) therefore the angle ACD is equal to the two angles CAB, CBA, to each of these equals add ACB, thus the angles ACB, ACD are equal to the three angles ABC, CBA, BAC, but ACB, ACD are equal to

two right angles (Th. 6.) therefore the three angles of the triangle are equal to two right angles.

COR. 1. The exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either of the interior opposite angles.

COR. 2. Any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

COR. 3. If two triangles have two angles of the one equal to two angles of the other, the remaining angle of the one is equal to the remaining angle of the other.

COR. 4. The two acute angles of a right angled triangle are together equal to a right angle.

THEOR. XIII. *fig. 40.* The greatest side of every triangle subtends the greatest angle.

Let ABC be a triangle of which the side AB is greater than AC, the angle ACB is greater than ABC. Take AD equal to AC and join DC, then the angle ACD is equal to ADC (Th. 3.), but ADC is greater than ABC (Th. 12. Cor. 1.) therefore ACD is greater than ABC, much more then is ACB greater than ABC.

COR. The greatest angle of every triangle is subtended by the greatest side.

THEOR. XIV. *fig. 41.* The opposite sides and opposite angles of a parallelogram are equal, and the diagonal divides the parallelogram into two equal parts.

Let ABCD be a parallelogram, AB is equal to CD, and AC to BD, also the angle CAB is equal to CDB, and ACD to ADB, and the triangle ACD is equal to ABD. For since AB is parallel to CD (def. 21.) the angles BAD, CDA are equal (Th. 10.) and since AC is parallel to BD, for the same reason, the angles CAD, BDA are equal, now AD is common to the triangles ABD, ACD therefore these triangles are identical, (Th. 2.) hence AB is equal to CD, AC to BD, the angle ACD to ABD, the angle CAD to ADB, and BAD to ADC, and consequently the whole angle CAB to the whole angle CDB.

THEOR. XV. *fig. 41.* The lines which join the extremities of equal and parallel lines towards the same parts are themselves equal and parallel.

Let AB be equal and parallel to CD, then AC and BD which join their extremities towards the same parts are also equal and parallel. Join AD, then the angles BAD, CDA are equal, (Th. 10.) and since AB is equal to CD and AD common to the triangles ABD, ACD, these triangles are equal in all respects (Th. 1.), therefore AC is equal to BD, and the angle CAD to ADB, hence AC is also parallel to BD. (Th. 11.)

THEOR. XVI. *fig. 42.* Parallelograms standing upon the same base and between the same parallels are equal.

Let ABCD, EBCF be parallelograms standing on the same base BC, and between the same parallels BC, AF, they are equal to one another. For since AD is equal to BC, that is to EF, (Th. 14.) therefore AE is equal to DF, now AB is equal to DC (Th. 14.) and the angle BAE to CDF, (Th. 10. Cor.) therefore the triangles BAE and CDF are equal. (Th. 1.) Now if from the whole figure BAFC there be taken away the angle CDF, there remains the parallelogram ABCD, and if from the same figure there be taken away the equal triangle BAE, there re-

mains the parallelogram EBCF, therefore parallelograms are equal to one another.

COR. 1. Hence triangles standing on the same base and between the same parallels are equal to one another.

For let BAC, BEC be two triangles on the same base BC and between the same parallels BC, AF, it is evident that they are the same as the parallelograms BADC, BEFC, and are equal.

COR. 2. Hence if a triangle and a parallelogram stand on the same base, the triangle is equal to half the parallelogram.

COR. 3. Therefore all parallelograms whatever whose bases and altitude are also equal among themselves.

THEOR. XVII. *fig. 43.* The complements of a parallelogram are equal.

Let BD the diagonal of a parallelogram ABCD be drawn, and let HK, EG parallels to the sides intersect each other at F a point in the diagonal, the whole parallelogram is thus divided into four parallelograms; two of these, viz. EK, FK are about the diameter, and the remaining two, viz. GK, FD are called the complements, and are proved equal. The whole triangle DKB is equal to the whole triangle DCB, (Th. 12.) for the same reason the parts DEF, FKB are respectively equal to the parts DKF, FKB, therefore the remaining parts HE, CK, are equal.

THEOR. XVIII. *fig. 44.* In a right angled triangle the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares upon the other two sides.

Let AD be a square upon the hypotenuse of a right angled triangle ABC and BG, a square upon its side AB, and BG, a square upon its side AC, AD is equal to the sum of BG and CG. Let MBH be parallel to AE produced in H, and let EA, produced in N. If from the equal angles CAB, angle NAB, common to both, be taken away the angle BAC, there remains NAG, equal to BAC, and the side AN is equal to BA, and the side AG is equal to AC, and the side AN is equal to AC (Th. 16.) and therefore the parallelograms AM, AN are equal (Th. 16. Cor. 3.) but AH is equal to BG (Th. 16.) therefore AM is equal to BG, in the same way it will appear that AN is equal to CG, therefore the whole AD is equal to the sum of the squares BG and CG.

THEOR. XIX. *fig. 45.* A perpendicular line drawn from the centre of a circle to a chord bisects the chord.

Let CD be drawn from the centre C perpendicular to AB a chord in the circle, AD, DB. Join CA, CB. Because AC is equal to BC (def. 3.) the angles CAB, CBA are equal, now ADC, BDC are equal, being in all respects equal, therefore the angles ACD, BCD are equal (Th. 12. Cor. 3.) therefore the triangles ADC, BDC are in all respects equal, (Th. 1.) and consequently AD equal to DB.

COR. A perpendicular bisecting a chord of a circle passes through the centre of the circle.

THEOR. XX. *fig. 46.* A straight line drawn through any point in the circumference of a circle, and perpendicular to the radius drawn to that point, is a tangent to the circle.

right angles to the radius terminating in \cdot , is a tangent to the circle.

be perpendicular to the radius AC, the a tangent to the circle at the point A, any line from the centre cutting the \cdot , and the line AB at E. Because \angle CAB angle, \angle CEA is less than a right angle, therefore CE is greater than CA, or, (Th. 13.) therefore the point E is without the circle, and the same may be shown of \cdot in AB, except A, therefore AB is a tangent to the circle. (def. 47.)

If a line be perpendicular to a tangent at its point of contact, that line passes through the

. XXI. fig. 47. An angle at the centre is double the angle at the circumference subtending upon the same arch.

B be the angle at the centre of a circle and angle at the circumference, the angle double ADB. Join DC which produce to angle ACE is equal to both the angles \angle CA, (Th. 12.) that is, since CD and equal to twice CAD; (Th. 4.) in like manner will appear that BCE is equal to twice CAD, therefore the whole angle ACB is double

All angles in the same segment of a circle are equal to each other.

In the same circle, or in circles of equal radii, if two angles at the circumference subtend equal arches, they are equal to one another and conversely.

. XXII. fig. 48. An angle in a semicircle is a right angle.

B be an angle in a semicircle, draw the chord DE. The angle ACE at the circumference is half of ADE at the centre, and in like manner CE is half of BDE; (Th. 21.) therefore angle ACB is half the sum of the angles \angle EDB, or is equal to a right angle.

. XXIII. fig. 49. The sum of any two opposite angles of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle is equal to two right angles.

CD be a quadrilateral in a circle, the angles \angle D, BCD, also the sum of \angle ADC, \angle ABC, is equal to two right angles. Join AC, BD. \angle BAC is equal to \angle BDC, also the angle \angle DAC is equal to \angle DBC (Th. 21. cor. 1.), therefore angle DAB is equal to the two angles \angle BAC and \angle DAC; and the sum of \angle DAB and \angle DCB is equal to three angles BDC, DBC and DCB, that is, equal to two right angles. (Th. 12.)

. XXIV. fig. 50. The angle formed by a tangent to a circle, and a chord drawn to the point of contact, is equal to the angle in the alternate segment of the circle.

be a tangent, and AC a chord, the angle \angle CEA is equal to any angle CEA in the alternate segment. Draw AF perpendicular to AB, \angle CEA is equal to \angle CEA in the alternate segment of the circle (Th. 20 Cor.) \angle CEA is a right angle (Th. 21.), and therefore \angle CEA, but FEC, FAC, parts of these angles, therefore the remainders CEA, FAC, are equal.

PART I.

SECT. II. OF RATIOS and PROPORTIONS.

In treating of proportion, the Algebraic notation is here adopted for the sake of brevity; it will therefore be proper to observe,

1. That the letters A, B, &c. are used to denote quantities of any kind, and the letters $m, p, q, \&c.$ to denote numbers only.

2. The sign $+$ (plus) written between the symbols of two quantities or numbers, signifies the sum of those quantities or numbers. Thus $A + B$ means the sum of the quantities denoted by A and B, &c.

3. The sign $-$ (minus) written between the symbols of two quantities, signifies the difference of these quantities. Thus $A - B$ means the difference between A and B.

4. When a letter denoting a number is written close to a letter denoting any quantity, it signifies that the quantity is multiplied by the number, thus mA means m times A, also qmB means that B is multiplied by the product of the numbers q and m .

5. The quotient arising from the division of any quantity A by another quantity B is written thus $\frac{A}{B}$.

6. The sign $=$ signifies the equality of quantities denoted by the letters that stand on the opposite sides of it. Thus $\frac{mA}{mB} = \frac{A}{B}$ denotes that the quotient arising from the division of m times A by m times B is the same as the quotient arising from the division of A by B.

7. It is likewise supposed that the following principle in the arithmetic of fractional quantities is already known, namely, that if both the numerator and denominator of a given fraction be divided by the same number, the resulting quotients are the numerator and denominator of a fraction of the same value as the given one. It is upon this principle that the fractional quantity $\frac{mA}{mB}$ is concluded to

be equal to $\frac{A}{B}$, viz. by dividing both numerator and denominator by m , and so of other quantities.

DEFINITIONS.

34. When one quantity contains another a certain number of times exactly, the former is said to be a MULTIPLE of the latter, and the latter a PART of the former; thus 20 is a multiple of 5, and 5 a part of 20; and in general, m being any number, and A any quantity, mA is a multiple of A, and A a part of mA .

35. When several quantities are multiples of as many others, and each contains its part the same number of times, the former are said to be EQUI-MULTIPLES of the latter, and the latter LIKE PARTS of the former; thus 20 and 30 are equimultiples of 2 and 3, and in general mA and mB are equi-multiples of A and B; also, A and B are like parts of mA and mB .

36. RATIO is the proportion which one magnitude has to another.

Y y

tude

tude bears to another magnitude of the same kind, with respect to quantity.

NOTE. The measure, or quantity of a ratio, is conceived by considering what part or parts the leading quantity called the antecedent is of the other called the consequent. So the ratio of a quantity expressed by the number 2 to a like quantity expressed by the number 6 is denoted by 6 divided by 2, or $\frac{6}{2}$ or 3; the number 2 being 3 times contained in 6, or the third of it, and in general the measure of the ratio of A to B is expressed by the quotient of B divided by A, or the fraction $\frac{B}{A}$.

57. PROPORTION is an equality of ratios, and three quantities are said to be PROPORTIONAL when the ratio of the first to the second is equal to the ratio of the second to the third. As of the three quantities A (2), B (4), C (8); where $\frac{4}{2} = \frac{8}{4} = 2$, the same ratio.

58. Four quantities are said to be PROPORTIONAL when the ratio of the first to the second is the same as the ratio of the third to the fourth. As of the four quantities A (2), B (4), C (5), D (10); where $\frac{4}{2} = \frac{10}{5} = 2$, the common ratio.

NOTE. To denote that four quantities A, B, C, D, are proportional, they are usually placed thus A : B :: C : D, and read thus, As A is to B, so is C to D; but when three quantities are proportional, the middle one is repeated, and they are written thus, A : B :: B : C.

59. Of three proportional quantities, the middle one is said to be a MEAN PROPORTIONAL between the other two, and the last a THIRD PROPORTIONAL to the first and second.

60. Of four proportional quantities, the last is said to be a FOURTH PROPORTIONAL to the other three taken in order.

61. Quantities are said to be CONTINUALLY proportional, or in CONTINUED proportion, when the ratio is the same between every two adjoining terms, thus, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. are in continued proportion.

62. In a series of quantities continually proportional, the ratio of the first and third is said to be DUPLICATE to that of the first and second; and the ratio of the first and fourth is said to be TRIPPLICATE to that of the first and second, and so on.

63. INVERSE ratio is, when the antecedent is made the consequent, and the consequent the antecedent; thus, if $1 : 2 :: 3 : 6$; then, inversely $2 : 1 :: 6 : 3$.

64. ALTERNATE proportion is, when antecedent is compared with antecedent, and consequent with consequent, as if $1 : 2 :: 3 : 6$; then by alternation or permutation $1 : 3 :: 2 : 6$.

65. COMPOUNDED ratio is, when the sum of the antecedent and consequent is compared, either with the antecedent or consequent, thus, if $1 : 2 :: 3 : 6$; then by composition $1 + 2 : 1 :: 3 + 6 : 3$, and $1 + 2 : 2 :: 3 + 6 : 6$.

66. DIVIDED ratio is, when the difference of the antecedent and consequent is compared either with the antecedent or consequent, thus, if $1 : 2 :: 3 : 6$; then by division $2 - 1 : 1 :: 6 - 3 : 3$; or $1 : 2 :: 6 - 3 : 3$.

4. XXV. Equimultiples of any two quantities have the same ratio as the quantities them-

selves. Let A and B be any two quantities, mA, mB any equimultiples of them, number whatever; then will mA be to the same ratio as A and B, or A : B :

For $\frac{mB}{mA} = \frac{B}{A}$, the same ratio.

COR. Hence, like parts of quantities have the same ratio as the wholes, because the equimultiples of the like parts, or like parts of mA and mB.

THEOR. XXVI. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will be also by alternation or permutation, the antecedents will have the same ratio as the

Let A : B :: mA : mB, then will A

For $\frac{mA}{A} = m$ and $\frac{mB}{B} = m$, both the same ratio.

THEOR. XXVII. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will be proportional also or inversely.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, then will B

For $\frac{mA}{mB} = \frac{A}{B}$, both the same ratio

THEOR. XXVIII. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will also be proportional, and by division.

Let A : B :: mA : mB.

Then will B + A : A :: mB + mA

or, B + A : B :: mB + mA

For $\frac{mA}{mB + mA} = \frac{A}{B + A}$ & $\frac{mB}{mB + mA} = \frac{B}{B + A}$

In like manner it will appear, that

B - A : A :: mB - mA : mA,

or, B - A : B :: mB - mA : mB.

For $\frac{mA}{mB - mA} = \frac{A}{B - A}$ & $\frac{mB}{mB - mA} = \frac{B}{B - A}$

THEOR. XXIX. If, of four proportions there be taken any equimultiples of the two antecedents, and any

whatever of the two consequents, the

resulting will still be proportional.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, and let pA

any equimultiples, of the two antec.

qB and qmB any equimultiples of the

consequents, then will pA : qB :: pmA : qmB

For $\frac{qmB}{pmA} = \frac{qB}{pA}$, the same ratio.

THEOR. XXX. If there be four

quantities, and the two consequents

added or diminished, by quantities

of the same ratio as the respective antec.

the results and the antecedents will still be

Let A : B :: mA : mB, and let pA

two quantities having the same ratio

antecedents; then will

A : B + pA :: mA : mB + pmA

Also A : B - pA :: mA : mB - pmA

For $\frac{mB + pmA}{mA} = \frac{B + pA}{A}$, the

THEOR. XXXI. If any number of

proportional, either of the antecedents

or consequents, as the sum of all the

to the sum of all the consequents.

GEOMETRY.

1

...ponding angles equal. Take DH equal to AC and DG equal to AB . Then $DG : DH :: DE : DF$, therefore GH is parallel to EF (Th. 36, Cor. 2); hence the triangles DGH, DEF are equiangular (Th. 10); wherefore $DG : GH :: DE : EF$ (Th. 38); $AB : BC$ (by hyp.); since therefore $DG : GH :: AB : BC$, and that DG is equal to AB , therefore GH is equal to BC . Thus the triangles DGH, ABC , having the three sides of the one respectively equal to the three sides of the other, are equiangular (Th. 5) therefore also the triangles ABC, DEF are equiangular.

THEOR. XL. fig. 55. Triangles which have one angle in the one equal to one angle in the other, and the sides about these angles proportional, are equiangular.

Let ABC, DEF be two triangles having the angles A and D equal, and $AB : AC :: DE : DF$; these triangles shall be equiangular. Make DG equal to AB , and DH to AC , and join GH : thus the triangles ABC, DGH are identical and equiangular (Th. 1.); therefore $HD : DG :: CA : AB :: FD : DE$ (by hyp.); therefore HG is parallel to FE , (Th. 36, Cor. 2.) and the triangles HDG, FDE , also CAB, FDE are equiangular.

THEOR. XLI. fig. 56. If four lines are proportional, the rectangle of the extremes will be equal to the rectangle of the means; and if the rectangle of the extremes be equal to the rectangle of the means, the four lines are proportional.

Let the four lines A, B, C, D be proportional, or $A : B :: C : D$, then will the rectangle of A and D be equal to the rectangle of B and C . Let the four lines be placed with their extremities meeting at a common point, and forming four right angles; and draw lines parallel to them to complete the rectangles P, Q, R ; where P is the rectangle of A , and D , Q the rectangle of B and C , and R the rectangle of B and D . Then the rectangles P and R will be to each other as A and B (Th. 35) and in like manner the rectangles Q and R will be to each other as C and D ; but the ratio of A to B is the same as the ratio of C to D ; therefore the ratio of P to R is the same as the ratio of Q to R , and consequently P and Q are equal.

Again, if the rectangle of A and D be equal to the rectangle of B and C , $A : B :: C : D$. For the rectangles being placed as before, it is evident that P and Q have each the same ratio to R ; but P is to R as A to B , and Q to R as C to D , therefore $A : B :: C : D$.

COR. If three lines are proportional, the rectangle of the extremes is equal to the square of the mean; and if the rectangle of the extremes be equal to the square of the mean, the three lines are proportional.

THEOR. XLII. fig. 57 and 58. If two lines meeting a circle cut each other, either within it, or without, the rectangle of the parts of the one will be equal to the rectangle of the parts of the other; the parts of each being measured from the point of meeting to the two intersections with the circumference.

Let the two chords, AB, CD , meet each other in E , the rectangle of AE, EB is equal to the rectangle of CE, ED . Join AD , and CB . The angles AED, CEB are equiangular, for the angles at D and B are equal (Th. 21. Cor. 1), and

the angles AED, CEB are opposite (fig. therefore equal (Th. 7.); or the angle common to both triangles (fig. 58), in either triangles are equiangular; therefore $DE : EB :: EC : ED$ (Th. 38), hence the rectangle EC is equal to the rectangle of AE, EB .

COR. If the line BAE , fig. 58.) be by revolving to come into the position AE , fig. 59, the distances BE, AE have become equal. Hence we have the $PROP.$ If from a point without a circle be drawn, one touching it, and the other secant, the rectangle of the distances of from the intersections of the cutting secant, is equal to the square of the tangent.

THEOR. XLIII. fig. 60. In a right angle, a perpendicular from the right angle is a mean proportional between the segments of the hypotenuse; and each of the sides about the right angle is a mean proportional between the segment, and the hypotenuse.

Let ABC be a right angled triangle, perpendicular upon the hypotenuse; $AB : DC :: DC : DB$, and $AB : AC :: AD$, and $AB : BC :: BC : BD$.

For the triangles ACB, ADC having angles at C and D equal, and the angle common, have their third angles equal, and equiangular; and in like manner it will be the triangles ACB, CDB are equiangular; these three triangles ACB, ADC, CDB equiangular, will have the sides about angles proportional; thus we get $AD : DC :: DC : DB$, and $AB : AC :: AC : AD$, $BC : AC :: AC : BD$. (Th. 18.)

THEOR. XLIV. fig. 61. Equiangular triangles are to each other as the square like sides.

Let ABC, DEF , be two equiangular triangles AB and DE being their homologous or and AL, DN squares on these sides. The triangle ABC is to the triangle DEF as the square AL to the square DN . Draw GG and HH parallel to AB and DE , and join BK and EH triangles ACG, DFH are equiangular (Cor. 3); therefore $AC : DF :: CG : FH$ but the triangles ABC, DEF being equiangular we have $AC : DF :: AB : DE$; therefore by equality of ratios, we have $CG : FH :: AB : DE$, and by alternation, $CG : A : DM$. Now $CG : AB ::$ triangle ABC : (Th. 35, Cor. 3); and in like manner $F : triangle DEF :: DME$, therefore tri. $ABC : tri. DEF :: tri. DMN$, and by alt. tri. $ABC : tri. DEF :: tri. ABK : tri. D$ the squares AL, DN being the doubles of the angles ABK, DFE , have the same ratio. Therefore the triangle ABC is to the triangle DEF as the square AL to the square DN .

THEOR. XLV. fig. 62. Similar rectilinear figures are to each other as the squares of their like sides.

Let $ABCDE, FGHIK$ be two similar figures the like sides being AB and FG, BC and GH on; the figure $ABCDE$ will be to the figure $FGHIK$ as the square of AB to the square of FG . Join BE, BD, GK, GI . Because the angles A and F are equal, and $BA : AE :: GF : FK$ triangles BAE, GFK are equiangular

EB : FK : KG, but AE : ED : FK
 73. therefore BE : ED : OK : KL
 74. angles AED, FKI are equal, and the an-
 FKG have been proved equal; there-
 75. fore BFD, GKI are equal; thus the
 76. ED, GKI are also equiangular, and in
 77. ay it may be shown that the triangles
 are equiangular. The triangle ABE
 78. as the square of BE to the square of
 79. E, as the triangle EBD to the triangle
 80. 14), and in like manner it will appear,
 81. as to KGI as DBC to IOH: Therefore
 82. figure ABCDE is to the figure FGIHK,
 83. as ABE to the triangle FOK (Th. 31);
 84. the square of AB to the square of FO

85. 111. From this proposition it may be
 86. ed, that circles are to one another as
 87. of their diameters. And in general,
 88. ilar plane figures whatever, are to one
 89. the squares of their like parts.
 90. BCDEF, GHKLMN, (fig. 63.) be any
 91. polygons, of the same number of sides,
 92. circles whose diameters are AD, GL.
 93. FO to the centre of the one polygon,
 94. GP to the centre of the other. The
 95. F, GPN, standing each upon the same
 96. whole circumference, are evidently e-
 97. consequently the isosceles triangles, AOF,
 98. imilar: Thus it appears that each of the
 99. made up of the same number of simi-
 100. 1; therefore the polygon, ABCDEF, is
 101. gon, GHKLMN, as the triangle AOF
 102. gle GPN; that is, as the square of AO
 103. re of GP, or as the square of the dia-
 104. to the square of the diameter GL. Now
 105. the number of the sides of the polygon,
 106. that their proportion to each other will
 107. namely, that of the squares of the dia-
 108. their circumscribing circles. By suppo-
 109. mber of the sides of the polygons con-
 110. cealed, it is evident that their areas will
 111. more and more to the areas of their cir-
 112. g circles, which may be considered as
 113. for it may be demonstrated, that a
 114. ay have its sides so numerous as to dif-
 115. fer area of its circumscribing circle by
 116. any assignable quantity. Hence we may
 117. that the area of the circles themselves
 118. to other the same proportion as their in-
 119. polygons; namely that of the squares of
 120. 121. 122.

III. Of Planes and Solids.

DEFINITIONS.

1. COMMON SECTION of two planes, is
 2. which they meet, or cut each other.
 3. straight line is PERPENDICULAR to a
 4. n it is perpendicular to every line which
 5. that plane.
 6. plane is PERPENDICULAR to another,
 7. right line in the one, which is perpen-
 8. their line of common section, is perpen-
 9. the other.
 10. INCLINATION of one plane to another,
 11. le they form between them, is the angle
 12. by two right lines, drawn from any

point in the common section, and at right angles
 to the same, one of these lines in each plane.

71. PARALLEL PLANES are such as being pro-
 duced ever so far both ways, will never meet, or
 72. which are every where at an equal perpendicular
 distance.

73. A SOLID is that which has length, breadth,
 and thickness.

74. A PRISM is a solid whose ends are parallel,
 equal, and like plane figures; and its sides con-
 75. necting those ends, are parallelograms. Fig. 64.

76. A PARALLELOPIPED, or PARALLELOPIPE-
 77. DON, is a solid bound by six parallelograms, every
 78. opposite two of which are equal, alike, and paral-
 79. lel. If the bounding planes are rectangles, it is a
 80. RECTANGULAR PARALLELOPIPEDON. Fig. 65.

81. A CUBE is a rectangular parallelopipe-
 82. don, whose six bounding sides are squares. Fig. 66.

83. A CYLINDER is a solid, conceived to be ge-
 84. nerated by the revolution of a rectangle about one
 85. of its sides, supposed to be at rest. The fixed line,
 86. about which it revolves, is called its AXIS. Fig. 67.

87. A PYRAMID is a solid, whose base is any
 88. right-lined figure, and its sides triangles, having
 89. all their vertices meeting at a point above the base,
 90. called the VERTEX of the pyramid. Fig. 68.

91. A CONE is a solid, conceived to be genera-
 92. ted by the revolution of a right angled triangle a-
 93. bout its perpendicular, which fixed line is called
 94. the AXIS of the cone. Fig. 69.

95. A SPHERE is a solid described by the revo-
 96. lution of a semicircle about its diameter; the fixed
 97. line, about which it revolves, is called the AXIS
 98. of the sphere. Fig. 114.

THEOR. XLVI, fig. 70. A PERPENDICULAR is
 the shortest line that can be drawn from any point
 to a plane.

Let AB be perpendicular to the plane DE, then
 any other line, as AC, drawn from the same point
 A to the plane, will be longer than AB. Join BC;
 then ABC is a right angle, hence BAC is less than
 a right angle, and consequently BA less than BC.
 (Th. 13.)

COR. A perpendicular measures the distance of
 any point from a plane.

THEOR. XLVII, fig. 71. The common section
 of two planes is a straight line.

Let ACBDA, AEBFA, be two planes cutting
 each other, and A, B two points in which the two
 planes meet; the straight line joining these points
 will be the common intersection of the planes.
 For, because the straight line AB touches both
 planes at the points A, B, it touches them in all
 other points (Def. 5.); this line is therefore com-
 100. mon to both planes, that is, their common inter-
 101. section is a straight line.

THEOR. XLVIII, fig. 72. If a straight line be
 perpendicular to two other straight lines, at their
 common intersection, it will be perpendicular to
 the plane of those straight lines.

Let the line AB make right angles with the lines
 AC, AD, it will be perpendicular to the plane
 CDE, which passes through these lines. For, if
 the line AB were not perpendicular to the plane
 CDE, another plane might pass through the
 point A, to which AB would be perpendicular;
 but this is impossible, for since the angles BAC,
 BAD,

$\angle A D$, are right angles, this other plane must pass through the points C, D . Hence this plane passing through the points A, C of the line AC , and also through the points A, D of the line AD , it will pass through both these lines, and therefore be the same plane with the former.

COR. If a straight line stand at right angles to each of three straight lines at the same point, these three lines are in one plane.

THEOR. XLIX. fig. 73. If two straight lines be perpendicular to the same plane, they will be parallel to each other.

Let AB and CD be both perpendicular to the plane EF ; these lines are parallel. Join the points B and D , and draw DG perpendicular to BD , in the plane EF ; make DG equal to BA , and join AD, AG . The triangles $B DG, DBA$, have the sides DG, BA , equal, and BD common to both; the angles $B DG, DBA$ are also equal, being right angles; therefore these triangles are identical, (Th. 1.) hence BG is equal to AD , and the triangles ABG, GDA have two sides AB, BG of the one, equal to two sides GD, DA of the other, each to each, and the side AG common to both; therefore these also are identical (Th. 5.) hence the angle ADG is equal to $B DG$, that is to a right angle. Hence it appears that DG is perpendicular to the lines BD, AD ; and it is also perpendicular to DC ; (Def. 68.) Therefore the lines BD, DA, DC are in the same plane (Th. 48, Cor.) Since it thus appears that AB, CD , lines in the same plane, are both perpendicular to a third line BD , the lines AB, CD are parallel. (Th. 8.)

COR. If two lines be parallel, and one of them perpendicular to any plane, the other will also be perpendicular to the same plane.

THEOR. L. fig. 74. If two planes cut each other at right angles, and a straight line be drawn in one of the planes, perpendicular to their common intersection, it will be perpendicular to the other plane.

Let the planes $ACBD, AEBF$, cut each other at right angles, and the line CG be perpendicular to their common section AB ; then will CG be perpendicular to the plane $AEBF$. For, let EG be perpendicular to AB , thus the angle CGE is the angle of inclination of the planes (Def. 70.), and is therefore a right angle; since therefore the line CG is perpendicular to the two lines AG, GE , it is perpendicular to the plane $AEBF$, in which these lines are drawn (Th. 48.)

THEOR. LI. fig. 75. Planes, which are perpendicular to the same straight line, are parallel to one another.

Let the planes EF, GH , be perpendicular to the same line AB ; these planes are parallel. For, draw any straight line CD parallel to AB , meeting the planes in C and D , join AC, BD . Then CD as well as AB is perpendicular to both planes (Th. 49. Cor.); thus $ABCD$ will be a rectangle, and consequently AB equal to CD , and in the same way it may be shewn, that all other perpendiculars terminated by both planes are equal; therefore the planes are parallel (Def. 71.)

COR. Hence straight lines perpendicular to one of two parallel planes are also perpendicular to the other plane.

THEOR. LII. fig. 76. If two straight lines be parallel to a third line, though not in the same plane with it, they will be parallel to each other.

Let AB, CD , be each parallel to the line EF , though not in the same plane with it; these lines shall be parallel to each other. For, let GH be perpendicular to EF , in the plane AF the parallels; then shall GF be perpendicular to the plane passing by HGI (Th. 48.); and will also be perpendicular to the same plane (Th. 49. Cor.), and therefore parallel. (Th. 8.)

THEOR. LIII. fig. 77. If two lines that are parallel to each other, be parallel to two other lines each other, though not in the same plane, the angles contained by these lines will be equal.

Let the lines AB, AC , be parallel to the lines DE, DF , then will the angles BAC, EDF be equal. For, take AB, AC, DE, DF , equal, and join EB, EC, BC, EF . Then the lines DE, BE being equal and parallel, the line EF will also be equal and parallel, (Th. 15.) the same reason AD, CF , are equal and therefore CF is parallel to BE , (Th. 5.) equal to it; hence BC is equal to EF . The triangles ABC, DEF , are in all respects equal (Th. 5.); and therefore the angles BAC, EDF are equal.

THEOR. LIV. fig. 78. The sections of a plane cutting two parallel planes are parallel to each other.

Let the parallel planes AB, CD , be cut by the plane $EFGH$, in the lines EF, GH . These lines are parallel. For, suppose EG, FH , to be parallel to each other in the plane $EFGH$; let EL, FK , be perpendicular to the line EF , and let IG, KH , be joined: Then EG, FH , are parallel, and EL, FK , being both perpendicular to the line EF , are also perpendicular to the plane CD , are also parallel to each other (Th. 49.) therefore the angle HEK is equal to the angle GEL (Th. 53.); but the angles ELG, EKH are equal, being right angles; therefore the triangles ELG, EKH , are equiangular, (Th. 1.) and the sides FK, EL , being equal, it follows, that the sides FH, EG , are equal (Th. 2.); but these two lines are parallel as well as equal; therefore also EF and GH join their extremities are parallel. (Th. 15.)

We have now given the most methodical demonstrations, of the most important propositions, of the first book of geometry, as far as relates to PLANE and to the positions and intersections of planes. As to what relates to SOLIDS, such as the proportion of similar solids, &c., the proportion of *Pyramids to Prisms*, the proportion of *Cone to the Cylinder*, and of the *Sphere to the Cylinder*, &c.; it can hardly be expected that we can find room for to part of geometry in so diffuse and rigorous as they are treated of in books professing upon the subject. We shall therefore proceed to such as with to acquire the true geometric reasoning, as are perpetual of Euclid and Archimedes; particularly of his sphere and cylinder, and of spheroids. In the 11th and 12th books and in Archimedes's works, we may find that very refined mode of geometrical

Method of Exhaustions, applied to determine relations which solids bear to each other bounded by plane or curve surfaces. This however, relating to the mensuration of solid bodies, may be more concisely, and more fully investigated by the methods of *moments*. See *FLUXIONS*. What has already demonstrated in this treatise will be found for connecting GEOMETRY with ALGEBRA, MECHANIC SECTIONS, PERSPECTIVE, NAVIGATION, TRIGONOMETRY, PLANE and SPHERICAL GEOMETRY, concisely state the principles and rules by which geometry is to be applied to the mensuration of all the figures, superficial or solid, that commonly occur in the ordinary affairs of life.

PART II.

PRACTICAL GEOMETRY,

APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES.

BOOK I. GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS.

LEM I. *fig. 79.* To divide a given line AB into equal parts.—1. From the points A and B, with any distance greater than half AB, describe arcs cutting each other in *m* and *n*. 2. Through these points draw the line *mn*, and where it cuts AB, will be the middle point required.

II. *fig. 80.* To divide a given angle ABC, into equal parts.—1. From the point, B, with any radius, describe the arc AC. 2. And from any point on the arc, with the same, or any other radius, describe an arc cutting each other in *n*. 3. Through the point *n* draw *nB*, and it will bisect the angle ABC, as required.

III. *fig. 81, 82.* From a given point C, to draw a straight line AB, to erect a perpendicular. I. When the point is near the middle of the line. *Fig. 81.*—1. On each side of the point C, set off two equal distances C*n*, C*m*. 2. From the points *n* and *m*, with any radius greater than C*n* or C*m*, describe arcs cutting each other in *s*. 3. Through the point *s* draw the line *SC*, and it will be the perpendicular required.

II. When the point is at or near the end of the line. *Fig. 82.*—1. Take any point *o*, and with any radius or distance *oC*, describe the arc cutting the line AB in *n*. 2. From the point *n* draw the line *nC*, and it will be the perpendicular required.

IV. *fig. 83, 84.* From a given point C, to draw a given line AB, to let fall a perpendicular. I. When the point is nearly opposite to the middle of the line. *Fig. 83.*—1. From the point C, with any radius, describe the arc *mn*, cutting the line AB in *n* and *m*. 2. From the points *n* and *m*, with the same or any other radius, describe two arcs cutting each other in *s*. 3. Through the point *s* draw the line *CG*, and CG will be the perpendicular required.

CASE II. When the point is nearly opposite to the end of the line. *Fig. 84.*—1. To any point *m* in the line AB draw the line C*m*. 2. Bisect the line C*m*, or divide it into two equal parts, in the point *n*. 3. From *n*, with the radius *nm*, or *nG*, describe the arc CG, cutting AB in G. 4. Through the point C, draw the line CG, and it will be the perpendicular required.

PROB. V. *fig. 85.* At a given point D, to make an angle equal to a given angle, ABC.—1. From the point B with any radius describe the arc *mn*, cutting the legs BA, BC, in the points *m*, *n*. 2. Draw the line DE, and from the point D, with the same radius as before, describe the arc *rs*. 3. Take the distance *mn* on the former arc, and apply it to the arc *rs*, from *r* to *s*. 4. Through the points *Ds* draw the line DF, and the angle EDF will be equal to the angle ABC, as was required.

PROB. VI. To draw a line parallel to a given line AB. *Fig. 86, 87.*

CASE I. When the parallel line is to pass through a given point C. *Fig. 86.*—1. To AB from the point C, draw any straight line C*m*. 2. From the point *m*, with the radius *mC*, describe the arc C*n* cutting AB in *n*. 3. And with the same radius, from the point C, describe the arc *mr*. 4. Take the distance C*n*, and apply it to the arc *mr* from *m* to *r*. 5. Through the points C*r*, draw the line CG, and it will be parallel to AB, as required.

CASE II. When the parallel line is to be at a given distance from AB. *Fig. 87.*—1. From any two points *r*, *s*, in the line AB, with a radius equal to the given distance, describe the arcs *n*, *m*. 2. Draw the line DG, to touch those arcs without cutting them, and it will be parallel to AB, as was required. *Note.* The former case of this problem, as well as several other operations of practical geometry, may be more easily effected by a mathematical instrument known by the name of a *parallel ruler*.

PROB. VII. *fig. 88.* To divide a given line AB, into any proposed number of equal parts.—1. From one end of the line A, draw A*m*, making any angle with AB; and from B the other end, draw B*n*, making an equal angle AB*n*. 2. In each of the lines A*m*, B*n*, beginning at A and B, set off as many equal parts, of any length, as AB is to be divided into. 3. Join the parts A*s*, *14*, *23*, &c. and AB will be divided as required. *Note.* B*n* may be drawn parallel to A*m* by means of a parallel ruler.

PROB. VIII. *fig. 89.* To find the centre of a given circle, or one already described.—1. Draw any chord AB, and bisect it with the perpendicular CD. 2. Bisect CD in like manner with the chord EF, and their intersection O will be the centre required. *Note.* The centre of a given circle, or any arch of it, may be found as in the next problem by taking three points in the circumference.

PROB. IX. *fig. 90.* To describe the circumference of a circle thro' three given points A, B, C.—1. From the middle point draw the lines or chords, BA and BC. 2. Bisect these chords perpendicularly with lines meeting each other in O. 3. From the point of intersection O, with the dis-

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OA, OB, or OC describe the circle ABC, and it will be that required.

PROB. X. *fig. 91, 92.* To draw a tangent to a given circle that shall pass thro' a given point A.

CASE I. When the point A is in the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 91.*—1. From the given point A, to the centre of the circle, draw the radius OA. 2. Through the point A draw CD perpendicular to OA, and it will be the tangent required.

CASE II. When the point A is without the circle. *Fig. 92.*—1. To the point A from the centre O draw the line OA and bisect it in *n*. 2. From the point *n* with the radius *nA* or *nO* describe the semicircle ABO, cutting the given circle in B. 3. Through the points A, B, draw the line BA, and it will be the tangent required.

PROB. XI. *fig. 93.* To find a third proportional to two given lines A, B.—1. From the point C, draw two right lines, making any angle FCG. 2. In these lines take CE equal to the first term A, and CG, CD, each equal to the second term B. 3. Join ED, and draw GF parallel to it, and CF will be the third proportional required: That is, $CE(A) : CG(B) :: CD(B) : CF$.

PROB. XII. *fig. 94.* To find a fourth proportional to three given right lines A, B, C.—1. From the point D, draw two right lines, making any angle GDH. 2. In these lines, take DF, equal to the first term A, DE, equal to the second term B, and DH, equal to the third term C. 3. Join FE, and draw HG parallel to it, and DG will be the fourth proportional required: That is, $DF(A) : DE(B) :: DH(C) : DG$.

PROB. XIII. *fig. 95.* To find a mean proportional between two given right lines A, B.—1. Draw any right line in which take CE equal to A, and ED equal to B. 2. Bisect CD in O, and with OD, or OC, as radius, describe the semicircle CFD. 3. From the given point E, draw EF perpendicular to CD, and it will be the mean proportional required. That is, $CE(A) : EF :: EF : ED(B)$.

PROB. XIV. *fig. 96.* To divide a given line AB, in the same proportion with which another given line C is divided.—1. From the point A draw AD equal to the given line C, and making any angle with AB. 2. To AD apply the several divisions of C, and join DB. 3. Draw the several lines *aa*, *bb*, &c. each parallel to DB, and the line AB will be divided as required:—That is, the parts A 1, 12, 23, 34, 4 B, on the line AB, will be proportional to the parts *oa*, *12*, *23*, *34*, *4b* on the line C.

PROB. XV. *fig. 97.* To make a triangle whose three sides shall be respectively equal to three given lines A, B, C.—1. Draw a line DE equal to one of the given lines C. 2. On the point D, with a radius equal to B, describe an arc. 3. And on the point E, with a radius equal to A, describe another arc, cutting the former in F. 4. Draw the lines DF, EF, and DFE will be the triangle required.

COR. Hence it is evident in what way an equilateral triangle may be described upon a given straight line.

Note. The three given lines must be of such a

length that any two of them must be greater than the third.

PROB. XVI. *fig. 98.* Upon a given line describe a square.—1. From the point B perpendicular, and equal to AB, and C, with the radius AB, describe two arcs cutting each other in D. 3. Draw the line AD, and the figure ABCD will be the square required.

PROB. XVII. *fig. 99.* To describe, whose length and breadth shall be equal to two given lines AB and C.—1. At the point B, in the line AB, erect the perpendicular BD it equal to C. 2. From the points B, D, with the radii AB and C, describe two arcs cutting each other in E. 3. Join EA and ED, and it will be the rectangle required.

PROB. XVIII. *fig. 100.* In a given triangle to inscribe a circle.—1. Bisect the angles A and B by the straight lines AO and BO. 2. The point of intersection O, let fall the perpendicular ON, and it will be the radius of the circle required.

PROB. XIX. *fig. 101.* About a given triangle ABC, to circumscribe a circle.—1. Bisect the sides AB, BC, by the perpendiculars *oa*, *ob*. 2. From the point of intersection *o*, with the same radius OA, OB, or OC, describe the circle, and it will be that required.

PROB. XX. *fig. 102.* To make a figure similar to a given figure ABCDE.—1. Take A the side of the figure required, and from A draw the diagonals AC, AD. 2. On the points *b*, *c*, *d*, draw *bc*, *cd*, *de*, parallel to *AC*, *CD*, *DE*, and *A bcde* will be similar to *ABCDE*. The same thing may also be done by the angles *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, respectively equal to the angles *B*, *C*, *D*, *E*.

PROB. XXI. *fig. 103.* To construct chords to any given radius, AB.—1. Draw a perpendicular to AB, and on A as a centre, with the given radius AB, describe the arc BC, which will be a quadrant. 2. On B, as a centre, with the given radius AB describe an arc cutting the first arc at D, then BD will be an arc of 30 degrees. 3. Take an arc DE equal to the arc BD, and the quadrant BC will be divided into 3 equal parts each containing 30°. 4. Let each of the arcs ED, DC, be divided into 3 equal parts, and the quadrant must be divided into 9 equal parts, for it cannot be done by any direct geometrical method, and the quadrant will be divided into 90°. 5. And on B, as a centre, with the distance between B and each of the divisions as radius, describe arcs to meet BC, as in the figure, and the distance between B and any one of the divisions of the scale BC, will be equal to the corresponding arc of the quadrant.

PROB. XXII. *fig. 104.* To make a figure similar to a given figure ABCDE.—1. First 60 degrees from the scale of chords, take the point A, with this radius describe an arc *am*. 2. Take the chord of the proposed angle from the same scale, as from *n* to *m*. 3. From the point A draw *An* and *Am*, and they will form the triangle required. 4. If the given angle be greater than 60 degrees, it may be taken at twice.

XXIII. *fig. 104.* An angle, BAC , being found the number of degrees it contains — at the angular point A with the chord of 100 — describe the arc nm cutting the legs in ns and m . Take the distance nm lay it to the scale of chords, and it will be degrees required. 3. When the distance is greater than 90° , it must be taken at Nm . Both this and the last problem are performed by means of a protractor, and graduated are designed for the purpose. *fig. 105.*

XXIV. *fig. 106.* In a given circle, to describe a polygon of any proposed number of sides — 1. Divide 360° by the number of sides, and make be AOB , at the centre, whose measure be equal to the degrees in the quotient. 2. From points A, B , and apply the chord AB , to the circumference the given number of times, and draw the polygon required.

XXV. *fig. 106.* On a given line AB to describe a regular polygon of any proposed number — 1. Divide 360° by the number of sides, subtract the quotient from 180 degrees. 2. The angles ABO and BAC each equal to the difference last found. 3. From the point A with the distance OA , or OB , describe a circle. 4. Apply a chord, AD , to the circumference the proposed number of times, and draw the polygon required. *NOTE.* By this the circumference of a circle may be divided into any number of equal parts.

I. Of the MENSURATION of LINES and ANGLES, as applied to the DETERMINATION of HEIGHTS and DISTANCES.

Any magnitude is measured by a magnitude of the kind, called the *measuring unit*. Thus, a line is measured by a line, an angle by an angle, a surface by a surface, and a solid by a solid. Magnitudes being given, that is, their measures being determined by an actual application of the measuring unit, it is the business of mensuration to shew how the measures of others, depending on these, may be obtained. The part of mensuration that treats of lines and angles of a plane triangle, is called PLANE TRIGONOMETRY, which, as treated of, as a distinct science, is a part of our work, to which our present management necessarily refers it, is yet to be considered as forming a part of the general science of mensuration. By the mensuration and protraction of lines and angles, the lengths, heights, depths, distances, of objects are determined. ACCESSIBLE LINES are measured by applying to them, a certain measure a number of times, as an inch, or yard; but INACCESSIBLE LINES must be measured by a measurement of angles and distances, by means of proper instruments, and application of methods to be derived from the principles of geometry.

INSTRUMENTS commonly used for measuring heights and distances are, a *Chain*, a *Square*, and a *Theodolite*.

The *Chain* is used for measuring those distances, which are to be given sides of triangles.

C. PART II.

The English chain is in length 4 poles or 66 feet. It consists of 100 equal links, made of iron, each link, therefore, should be 7.92 inches long. Every ten links, from one end to the middle of the chain, is distinguished by a mark made of brass.

A *Square* is used for determining vertical angles; it is made of brass or wood, the radius being of any convenient length; the circumference is divided into 90 equal parts, and these parts subdivided as far as the dimensions of the quadrant will admit. Also a plummet is suspended by a thread from the centre, and two sights fixed on each of the radii. See *fig. 107.*

A *Square* is used for finding the proportion of the sides of a right angled triangle. It is made of the same materials. Two of its sides are divided each into 100 equal parts. This instrument is commonly called a *Geometrical Square*. See *fig. 109.*

A *Theodolite* is used for measuring horizontal, as well as vertical angles. It is a circle of brass divided into degrees, &c. having an index moveable above its centre, and is furnished with sights. The manner of applying these instruments will be explained in the following Problems.

PROBLEM I. To find the height of an accessible object standing upon level ground. *fig. 110, 111.*

I. By the *QUADRANT*, *fig. 110.* Let any convenient distance, BA , be measured by the chain, in a direct line from the foot of the perpendicular, BC , that falls from the top of the object. Then standing at the point A , let the quadrant be held as represented in the figure, so that the eye at D may see the top of the object C , along the side of the quadrant, DE . Now if the plummet hang freely, the line, FP , will be perpendicular to the horizon, and therefore parallel to BC ; hence the angles DPP , DCE , are equal, and their complements GPP , CDE , also equal. Thus GN , the arch of the quadrant that is remote from the eye, will shew the number of degrees in the angle of elevation CDE . Whence, in the right angled triangle CED , the side DE ($=AB$), and the angle CDE being given, we may find CE by this proportion; as radius to the tangent of CDE so is DE to EC to which DA , the height of the eye above the ground, being added, we get the whole height of the object. If the angle of elevation be 45° , then $DE = EC$; that is, the distance measured is equal to the height of the object above the eye.

II. By the *SQUARE*, *fig. 111.* Having measured AB as before, hold the square to the eye at D , as in the figure. Then, the plummet hanging freely, the line FP cuts off from the square a small triangle similar to CDE . Therefore we shall have the proportion of DE to EC ; and the former being given, the latter may be found by the rule of proportion. Let n represent the number of equal parts which the plummet cuts off from the side DH or HG , towards the end D or G . Then,

1. When the plummet cuts the side GH remote from the eye, it is as $100 : n :: DE : EC$. Hence, if in this case, $DE = 100$, then $EC = n$.

2. When it passes through the opposite angle H , we have a ratio of equality, $DE = EC$.

3. When it cuts the side DH contiguous to the eye, it is as $n : 100 :: D'E : EC$.

PROB.

PROB. II. To find the height of an inaccessible object. *Fig. 112.*

I. By the QUADRANT. From any convenient station B, measure the distance BA in a direct line with the foot of the object, and at both stations A, B, take the angles of elevation DAC, DBC. The difference of these angles will give the angle ADB. Then in the triangle ABD, from the principles of trigonometry we have this proportion; as sine of ADB to sine of DAB so is AB to DB; Next, in the triangle BDC, as radius to sine of B so is BD to DC; the height of the object as required.

II. By the SQUARE. At the station A, find by the square the proportion of AC to CD, and at the station B find the ratio of CD to CB; hence the ratio of AC to CB will be given, and consequently that of AB to BC, from which BC, and consequently CD may be found. Let $AB = d$, and $AC : CD :: m : n$ and $BC : CD :: p : q$, then

$$CD = \frac{n q d}{m q - n p}.$$

If at both stations the plummet cut the side of the square remote from the eye, $CD = \frac{n q}{q - n} \times \frac{d}{100}$. If the side contiguous to the

eye, $CD = \frac{100 d}{m - p}$. If the plummet cut the opposite angles of the square at the first station B, then $CD = \frac{n d}{100 - n}$.

PROB. III. To find the distance of a given place from an inaccessible object. *Fig. 113.*

Let A be the inaccessible object, it is required to find its distance from the given station B. Measure any convenient distance BC, as the base of a triangle, whose vertex is at A. Then, the theodolite being placed at B, let the diameter be directed towards the station C, and the moveable index towards the object A, and the intercepted arch shows the number of degrees in the angle ABC. In like manner let the angle BCA be measured, and the angle at A will be known by subtracting their sum from 180° . Then in the triangle CAB, BA may be found by the following proportion. As sine of A to sine of C, so is BC to BA.

PROB. IV. To find the distance between two inaccessible objects. *Fig. 114.*

Let a proper distance, CD, be measured as the base of two triangles whose vertices are at the objects A, B. Then the angles at C and D being measured by the theodolite, we find as in the last problem the sides AD, DB; and as the included angle ADB is given, the other angles of the triangle DBA may be found by the following proportion. As the sum of AD and BD, to their difference, so is the tangent of half the sum of the angles DBA, DAB, to the tangent of half their difference. Then $\frac{1}{2}$ the difference of these angles added to $\frac{1}{2}$ the sum gives the greater; and $\frac{1}{2}$ the difference subtracted from half the sum leaves the lesser. In the triangle BDA we now know all the angles; also two of the sides; hence we may find AB by either of these proportions. As sine of DAB to sine of ADB so is DB to BA; or, as sine of ABD to sine of ADB so is DA to AB.

The methods here pointed out for measuring heights and distances are generally applicable. But it will not be difficult for a person acquainted with the principles of geometry, who may be provided with instruments, to fall upon other methods of determining the angles, or the position of known lines to such as are to be measured. Thus if the height of an object be required, the length of its shadow can be found, 'tis easy to see that by measuring at the same time the shadow of an object whose height is known, we shall get the height required by the rule of proportion. For, from the nature of similar triangles, as the length of the shadow of either object to its height so is the length of the shadow of the other object to its height.

SECT. III. Of the MENSURATION of FIGURES.

THE AREA of any plane figure is the measure of the space contained within its extremes or without any regard to thickness. This is estimated by the content of the plane figure, is estimated by the number of little squares that may be contained in it; the side of those little measuring squares being an inch, a foot, a yard, or any other fixity. And hence the area is said to be measured in square inches, square feet, or square yards. Thus if the figure to be measured be the rectangle ABCD, *fig. 115*, and the little square whose side is one inch, be the measuring unit, then, as often as the said little square is contained in the rectangle, so many square inches the rectangle is said to contain, which in the present figure is 12. The least superficial measure is the square inch, other measures being derived from it, as is in the table given in ARITHMETIC, p. 64.

PROB. I. To find the area of any parallelogram, whether it be a square, a rectangle, a rhombus, or a rhomboid. *Fig. 13, 14, 15, 17.*

RULE I. Multiply the length by the perpendicular breadth, or height, and the product will be the area.

If two sides and an included angle of a parallelogram are given to find the area, then use the following rule.

RULE II. As radius to the sine of the included angle, so is the product of the two sides to the area.

PROB. II. To find the area of a triangle. RULE I. When the base and perpendicular height are given, Multiply the base by the perpendicular height, and half the product is the area.

RULE II. When two sides and the included angle are given, Multiply the two sides, and take half their product: Then say, as the sine of the given angle, so is that product to the area.

RULE III. When the three sides are given, Add together the three sides, and take half the sum. Next subtract each side severally from half the sum, thus obtaining three remainders; multiply the half sum and those three remainders all together, and extract the square root of the product for the area of the triangle.

PROB. III. To find the area of a trapezium. *Fig. 19.* Add together the two parallel sides, and multiply the sum by the perpendicular distance between them, and the product will be the area.

multiply their half sum by the perpendicular
lth or distance between them, and half the
uct will be the area.

os. IV. To find the area of any trapezium,
3. Divide the trapezium into two triangles
diagonal; then find the areas of these triangles
dd them together.

else let two perpendiculars be drawn to the
nal, from the opposite angles, the sum of
being multiplied by the diagonal; half the
ct shall be the area required.

os. V. To find the area of any irregular po-
. Fig. 116.

ow diagonals dividing the proposed polygon
rapeziums and triangles. Then find the areas
their separately, and add them together for
ntent of the whole polygon.

os. VI. To find the area of any regular po-
. Fig. 116.

LE I. Multiply the perimeter of the polygon,
m of its sides, by the perpendicular drawn
its centre on one of its sides, and take half
roduct for the area.

LE II. Square the side of the polygon; then
ply that square by the area, or multiplier, set
k its name in the following table, and the
ct will be the area.

° of deg.	Names.	Areas, or Multipliers.
3	Trigon or Triangle,	0.433013
4	Tetragon or Square,	1.000000
5	Pentagon,	1.720477
6	Hexagon,	2.598076
7	Heptagon,	3.639112
8	Octagon,	4.828427
9	Nonagon,	6.181824
10	Decagon,	7.694209
11	Undecagon,	9.365640
12	Dodecagon,	11.196152

. The numbers in the above table express
as of the regular polygons, when the linear
unity.

B. VII. To find the diameter and circumfe-
of a circle, the one for the other. Fig. 20.

to 22, so is the diameter to the circumfe-
Or, as 1 to 3.1416 so is the diameter to
umference.

2. VIII. To find the length of any arc of a

E. Multiply the degrees in the given arc by
ins of the circle, and the product again by
imal .01745 for the length of the arc.

B. IX. To find the area of a circle.

E I. Multiply half the circumference by
diameter. Or multiply the whole circum-
by the whole diameter and take $\frac{1}{2}$ of the
t for the area.

E II. Square the diameter and multiply that
by the decimal .7854, for the area.

1. X. To find the area of a circular ring.

2. Take the difference between the areas
ircles, as found by the last problem. Or,
s the same thing, subtract the square of the
meter from the square of the greater, and
r their difference by .7854.

PROB. XI. To find the area of the sector of a
circle. Fig. 22.

RULE I. Multiply the radius, or half diameter,
by half the arc of the sector, for the area. Or,
multiply the whole diameter by the whole arc of
the sector, and take $\frac{1}{4}$ of the product.

RULE II. As 360 is to the degrees in the arc of
the sector, so is the area of the whole circle to the
area of the sector. This is evident, because the
sector is proportional to the length of the arc, or
to the degrees contained in it.

PROB. XII. To find the area of a segment of a
circle. Fig. 21.

RULE. Find the area of the sector, having the
same arc with the segment, by the last problem.

Find also the area of the triangle, formed by
the chord of the segment and the two radii of the
sector.

Then take the sum of these two for the answer,
when the segment is greater than a semicircle: or
take their difference for the answer, when it is less
than a semicircle: As is evident by inspection.

PROB. XIII. To find the area of an ellipse.

RULE. Multiply the product of the transverse
and conjugate axes by the decimal .7854, the re-
sult will be the area.

PROB. XIV. To find the area of a parabola, its
base and height being given.

RULE. Multiply the base by the height, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of
the product is the area. •

SECT. IV. • Of LAND-SURVEYING.

THE most useful instruments for surveying are
the CHAIN, and PLANE TABLE. A statute acre
of land being 160 square poles, the chain is made
4 poles, or 66 feet in length, that 10 square chains,
or 100,000 square links, may make a square acre.
A chain of that length is commonly called Gunter's
chain, but in Scotland land is measured with a
chain 24 Scots ells, or 74 feet in length. Hence
it follows that the Scots acre is to the English in
the proportion of 1369 to 1089, or nearly as 5 to 4.
The plane table is used for drawing a plan of the
field, and taking such angles as are necessary to
calculate its area. It is of a rectangular form, and
surrounded with a moveable frame, by means of
which, a sheet of paper may be fixed to its sur-
face. It is furnished with an index, by which a
line may be drawn upon the paper in the direction
of any object in the field; and with scales of equal
parts; by which such lines may be made propor-
tional to the distances of the objects from the
plane table, when measured by the chain; and its
frame is divided into degrees for observing angles.

PROB. I. To measure a field with the chain.

Let $A \wedge BCD \eta$ (fig. 117.) represent the field to
be measured. Let it be resolved into the triangles
 $A \wedge B$, ABD , BCD , $A \eta D$. Let all the sides of the
large triangles ABD , BCD , and the perpendicu-
lars of the small ones, $A \wedge B$, $A \eta D$, from their ver-
tices m , η , be measured by the chain, and the areas
calculated: their amount is the area of the whole.

But if, on account of the curvature of its
sides, the field cannot be wholly resolved into tri-
angles, then either a straight line may be drawn
over the curve side, so that the parts cut off from
the field, and those added to it may be nearly e-

qual; or, without going beyond the bounds of the field, the curvilinear spaces may be taken so small, that they may be considered as a number of trapezoids and measured accordingly.

PROB. II. To measure a field with the plane table.

Let ABCDE (*fig. 118.*) be the field, and let the plane table be fixed about the middle of it, as at F, and its distances FA, FB, FC, &c. from the several corners of the field be measured with the chain. Let the index be directed from any point assumed on the paper, to the points A, B, C, &c. successively; and the lines Fa, Fb, Fc, &c. drawn in these directions. Let the angles which these lines contain be observed, and the lines themselves be made proportional to the distances measured, by means of a scale of equal parts, such as that represented by *fig. 107.* Then their extremities being joined, there will be formed a figure *abcde*, similar to that of the field; and the area of the field may be found, by calculating the areas of the several triangles of which it consists.

PROB. III. To plan a field from a given base line. *Fig. 119.*

Let two stations A, B, be taken within the field, but not in the same straight line with any of its corners, and let their distance be measured. Then the plane table being fixed at A, and the point *a* assumed on its surface directly above A; let its index be directed to B, and the straight line *ab* drawn along the side of it, to represent AB; also let the index be directed from *a* to an object at the corner C, and an indefinite line drawn in that direction; and so of every other corner successively.

Next let the plane table be set at B, so that *b* may be directly over B; and *ba* in the same direction with BA; and let a straight line be drawn from *b*, in the direction BC; then *c* the intersection of that line with the former, it is evident, will determine the position of the point C, and the triangle *abc*, on the paper, will be similar to ABC in the field. In this manner are all the other angular points to be determined; and these being joined, there will be formed a representation of the field.

If the angles at both stations were observed, as the distance between them is given, the area of the field might be calculated from these data; but the operation is too tedious for practice. It is usual, therefore, to measure such lines in the figure that has been constructed, as will render the calculation easy.

SECT. V. Of the MENSURATION of SOLIDS.

By the mensuration of solids are determined the spaces included by contiguous surfaces, and the sum of the measures of these including surfaces, is the whole surface or superficies of the body.

The measure of a solid, is called its solidity, capacity, or contents.

Solids are measured by cubes, whose sides are inches, or feet, or yards, &c.; and hence the solidity of a body is said to be so many cubic inches, feet, yards, &c. as will fill its capacity, or space, or another of equal magnitude. The least solid measure is the cubic inch, other cubes being taken from it, according to the proportion in the following TABLE.

1728	cubic inches, make	1 cubic foot
27	cubic feet,	1 cubic yard
166 $\frac{2}{3}$	cubic yards,	1 cubic furlong
64000	cubic poles,	1 cubic mile
512	cubic furlongs,	1 cubic league

PROB. I. To find the superficies of *Fig. 64.*

RULE. Multiply the perimeter of one of the length or height of the solid, and it will be the surface of all the sides. To

also the areas of the two ends when required. *Note.* The cube and parallelopiped to be understood as coming under the denomination of a prism, agreeably to Definition.

PROB. II. To find the surface of a pyramid. *Fig. 62, 69.*

RULE. Multiply the perimeter of the base by the height, or length of the side, and the product will be the surface of the sides. To which add the area of the end, required.

PROB. III. To find the surface of the frustum of a pyramid or cone, being the lower part of the top is cut off by a plane parallel to the base.

RULE. Add together the perimeters of the two ends, and multiply their sum by the slant height, taking half the product for the answer.

PROB. IV. To find the solid content of a prism or cylinder. *Fig. 64, 65, 66, 67.*

RULE. Find the area of the base, whatever the figure may be; and multiply it by the length of the prism or cylinder, for the content.

Note. The cube and parallelopiped may be considered as prisms, as in Prob. I.

PROB. V. To find the content of the frustum of a cone. *Fig. 68, 69.*

RULE. Find the area of the base, and multiply that area by the perpendicular height, and take $\frac{1}{3}$ of the product for the content.

PROB. VI. To find the solidity of the frustum of a cone or pyramid.

RULE. Add into one sum, the areas of the two ends, and the mean proportional between them, that is the square root of their sum; and multiply the sum by the perpendicular height, and take $\frac{1}{3}$ of the product for the content.

PROB. VII. To find the surface of a sphere. *Fig. 120.*

RULE I. Multiply the circumference of the sphere by its diameter, and the product will be the whole surface of it.

RULE II. Multiply the square of the diameter by $\frac{1}{2} \pi$, and the product will be the surface of the sphere.

If the surface of a segment or frustum of a sphere be required. Multiply the whole circumference by the height of the part required.

PROB. VIII. To find the solidity of a sphere. *Fig. 120.*

RULE I. Multiply the surface by the diameter, and take $\frac{1}{6}$ of the product for the content.

RULE II. Multiply the cube of the diameter by $\frac{\pi}{6}$ for the content.

PROB. IX. To find the solid content of a spherical segment. *Fig. 120.*

From three times the diameter of the segment, take double the height of the segment; multiply the remainder by the square of the diameter, and the product by the number .5236 for the content.

To three times the square of the radius of the segment's base, add the square of its height, and multiply the sum by the height, and the product by .5236 for the content.

To find the solid content of a spheroid.

A spheroid is a solid formed by the revolution of a semiellipse about either of its axes.

Multiply the square of the revolving radius by the fixed axis, and the product again by the height, and the result is the solidity required.

To find the solid content of the frustum of a spheroid, the ends being similar, or parallel to the revolving axis.

To twice the square of the middle diameter, add the square of the diameter of either of the ends, and this sum multiplied by the length of the frustum, and the product again by .2618 will give the solidity; where note, that .2618 is $\frac{1}{4}$ of π .

To find the solid content of a paraboloid, or paraboloid. Fig. 122.

A parabolic conoid is a solid formed by the revolution of a semiparabola about the axis, and the diameter.

Multiply the area of the base by half the height, and the product will be the content.

To find the solid content of the frustum of a paraboloid, when its ends are perpendicular to the axis of the solid. Fig. 122.

Multiply the sum of the squares of the radii of the two ends, by the height of the frustum, and the product again by .3927, and it will give the solidity; where it may be observed that .3927 is $\frac{1}{2}$ of π .

To find the solid content of a parabolic spindle. Fig. 123.

A parabolic spindle is a solid generated by the revolution of a parabola about its base or axis.

Multiply the area of the middle section by the length, and $\frac{8}{15}$ of the product is the solidity required.

To find the solid content of the frustum of a parabolic spindle. Fig. 123.

Add into one sum 8 times the square of the middle diameter, 3 times the square of the radius of the larger end, and 4 times the product of the radii of the two end diameters; multiply the sum by the height, and by the number .05236, and the result will be the solidity required.

SECT. VI. Of GAUGING.

GAUGING is commonly understood the art

of measuring the capacities of all kinds of vessels, and determining the quantities of fluids, or other matters contained in them. These are principally pipes, tuns, barrels, &c. also hacks, coolers, vats, &c. The solid contents of vessels of the most common figures may be found from the preceding rules in feet, or inches, &c. and thence their contents in liquid measure may be found, by considering that 231 cubic inches make a wine gallon, and 252 inches an ale gallon.

In ascertaining the contents of vessels it may also be useful to know that the Winchester bushel contains 2150 cubic inches; the barley firiot contains 31 Scots pints, and the wheat firiot 21 pints and 1 mutchkin. Concerning the capacity of the Scots pint, however there is some uncertainty, for although the standard jug which is kept by the borough of Stirling, was supposed to contain 105 cubic inches, yet, after several careful trials, it was found to contain only about 103 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The pint *stoups* however, are still regulated to contain 105 inches, and the customary ale measures are about $\frac{1}{8}$ above that standard.

It has been usual to divide casks into four varieties of forms, denominated as follows from the supposed resemblance they bear to the frustums of solids of the same names: viz.

1. The middle frustum of a spheroid.
2. The middle frustum of a parabolic spindle.
3. The two equal frustums of a paraboloid.
4. The two equal frustums of a cone.

The contents of casks of these different forms, may be found from the rules already given, for the mensuration of the figures which the casks are supposed to resemble the most; and thence their content in gallons, or pints, by dividing the content in cubic inches by the number of cubic inches contained in the respective measures.

The form that may be assigned to a cask, it is evident, is altogether hypothetical; and therefore it seldom happens, that the content, as found by experiment, agrees exactly with that found by calculation.

The calculations are also very troublesome and inconvenient, and for this reason excise officers generally determine the contents of casks by means of scales constructed for the purpose.

Dr Hutton, in his mensuration, gives the following general rule, which he says applies to all casks commonly to be met with; and at the same time is quite easy and very accurate, as having been often verified and proved by filling the casks with a true gallon measure.

RULE. Add into one sum, 39 times the square of the bung diameter, 24 times the square of the head diameter, and 26 times the product of these diameters; multiply the sum by the length of the cask, and the product by .00034, and this last product divided by 9 will give the content of the cask in wine gallons, and by 11 will give the content in ale gallons.

G E O

ORI. See EUPATRIDÆ.

ONICAL. *adj.* [*γῆ* and *οἶκος*; *geophos*

G E O

nique, French.] Relating to agriculture; relating to the cultivation of the ground.—Such expressions are

are frequent in authors *geoponical*, or such as have treated *de re rustica*. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

* **GEOPONICKS**. *n. f.* [$\gamma\eta$ and $\tau\alpha\gamma\eta$.] The science of cultivating the ground; the doctrine of agriculture.

(1.) **GEORGE I.** king of Great Britain, the son of Ernest Augustus, D. of Brunswick Lunenburgh, and elector of Hanover, by Sophia, daughter of Frederick Elector Palatine, and grand daughter of K. James I. He succeeded to the British throne, in 1714, in virtue of an act of parliament, passed in the reign of K. William III. limiting the succession, after the demise of that monarch, and Q. Anne, without issue, to the princess Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants. He was born in 1660, created D. of Cambridge, in 1706, and died June 11th. 1727, aged 67. See **ENGLAND** § 76—78.

(2.) **GEORGE II.** the only son of K. George I. succeeded him in 1727, and enjoyed a long and glorious reign; dying amidst the most rapid and extensive conquests, in the 77th year of his age. See **ENGLAND**, § 79—82. He was succeeded by his grandson George III. our present sovereign, on the 25th Oct. 1760; leaving the character of a brave warrior, and an impartial lover of justice. It is recorded to his honour, that he never once pardoned murder, during the whole course of his long reign, though strongly importuned in some cases; particularly in that of Earl Ferrers, who was hanged for murdering his servant, and though a peer, could obtain no other mitigation of his sentence, than that of being hanged in a silken rope.

(3.) **GEORGE**, despot of Serviá. See **SERVIA**.

(4.) **GEORGE**, David, the founder of the sect of the **DAVIDISTS**. See **DAVIDIST**.

(5.) * **GEORGE**. *n. f.* [*Georgius*, Latin.] 1. A figure of St George on horseback, worn by the knights of the garter.—

Look on my *george*, I am a gentleman;

Rate me at what thou wilt. *Shak. Henry VI.*
2. A brown loaf. Of this sense I know not the original.—

Cubb'd in a cabin, on a mattress laid,

On a brown *george*, with lowly twobbers, fed.

Dryd. Pers.

(6.) **GEORGE FORT**, a strong and regular fortress of Scotland, in Inverness-shire. It has several handsome streets of barracks, and is seated on the point of Arderier, a peninsula running into the firth of Murray. It completely commands the entrance into the harbour of Inverness, and lies opposite to Fortrose, 15 miles N.W. of Inverness.

(7.) **GEORGE FORT**, a fort on New York at the S. end of LAKE GEORGE, (Nº 10.) 42 miles N. of Albany.

(8.) **GEORGE**, **PORT ST.** a town and fort of Asia, in the peninsula of India, belonging to Britain; called also *Mahamadabadpatam*. See **MADRAS**.

(9.) **GEORGE LAKE**, a lake of E. Florida, called also **GREAT LAKE**. It is 15 miles broad, and 20 feet deep. It is a debouché of the river St John, which runs through it.

(10.) **GEORGE LAKE**, a lake of New York, S.W. of Lake Champlain, 25 miles long from N.E. to S.W. and 10 to 15 miles broad. Its waters are 100 feet higher than those of Lake Champlain, into

which they run by a channel 1½ mil. is said to contain 365 isles.

(11.) **GEORGE ST.** or **GEORGE DOCIA**, a saint or hero, after whom se both military and religious, &c denor is famous throughout all the East, by the Greeks *Μεγαλομαχης*, i. e. the g. On some medals of the emperors Jo nuel Comneni, we have the figure o armed, holding a sword or javelin i and in the other a buckler, with this

an O, and therein a little A, and GE-

king O **ΑΓΙΟΣ ΓΕΩΡΓΙΟΣ**, *O holy George* rally represented on horseback, as bei to have frequently engaged in com manner. He is highly venerated thr menia, Muscovy, and all the countri here to the Greek rite; from the Gr ship has long ago been received int church; England and Portugal have him for their patron saint. Great dif been raised about this saint or her existence has been called in question. who wrote first and most about him with giving him entirely up, and se only a symbolical device; and Dr I turned him into a mere Basilidian sy toly. Mr Pegg, in a paper in the (Vol. I. 1.) has attempted to restore finally, Mr Gibbon, has sunk him in bishop, under Constantius and Julian

(12.) **GEORGE ST.** or **GEORGE DOCIAN**, was so surnamed, according bon, from his parents or education; a at Epiphania, in Cilicia, in a fuller's s this obscure and servile origin, he n by the talents of a paralytic; and the pa he assiduously flattered, procured for less dependent, a lucrative commiss tract, to supply the army with bac ployment was mean: he rendered He accumulated wealth by the b fraud and corruption; but his malice so notorious, that George was cor sence from the pursuits of justice. A grace, in which he appears to have a tune at the expence of his honour, b with real or affected zeal, the prest nism. From the love, or the ostentat ing, he collected a valuable library of tome, philosophy, and theology; an of the prevailing faction promoted G pation to the throne of Athanasius. dact in this faction is represented by as polluted by cruelty and avarice, a considered as a just punishment for of his life, among which Mr Geseo rthently ranks his *enmity to the G*; no modern ecclesiastic can *justify* avarice of the abominations and barb lous mythology and superstition. of his death, however, as narrated l cal writers, will not add anything to There was in Alexandria, a place presented to offer human sacrifices. Constantine gave to the church of Al

bishop ordered it to be cleared, toistian church on it. In doing this, red an immense subterraneous cavern, heathen mysteries had been performed were many human skulls. These, ings which they found in the place, e brought out and exposed to public he heathens, provoked at this exhibi- rms and rushing upon the Christians, of them. On this the Christians pro- rther in clearing the temple; but the using their advantage, seized the ie church, and put him in prison. y they dispatched him; and then fast- dy to a camel, dragged it about the y, and in the evening they burnt it d together. This late, Sozomen says, wed in part to his haughtiness while our with Constantius; and some say of Athanasius were concerned in this ut he ascribes it chiefly to the invete- heathens, whose superstitions he had ive in abolishing. His George, the A- of Alexandria, was a man of letters and aluable library, which Julian ordered for his own use; and in his orders t, he says that many of the books were hical and rhetorical subjects, though n related to the doctrine of the im- ans; (as he always affected to call the ' These books (says he) I could wish rly destroyed; but least books of va- e destroyed along with them, let these fully sought for.' But Mr Gibbon erent turn to the affair of George's vell as relates it with different circum- The Pagans (says he) excited his de- ; and the rich temples of Alexandria pillaged or insulted by the haughty, exclaimed, in a loud and threatening ' long will these sepulchres be permit- ?' Under the reign of Constantius, he l by the fury, or rather by the justice e; and it was not without a violent at the civil and military powers of the restore his authority, and gratify his he messenger who proclaimed at A- the accession of Julian, announced the the archbishop. George, with two of ous ministers, count Diodorus, and master of the mint, was ignominiously chains to the public prison. At the ays, the prison was forced open by a superstitious multitude, impatient of forms of judicial proceedings. The sds and men expired under their cruel lifeless bodies of the archbishop and s were carried in triumph through the ie back of a camel; and the inactivity rian party was esteemed a shining ex- vangelical patience. The remains of wretches were thrown into the sea; and leaders of the tumult declared their re- jappoint the devotion of the Christians, ept the future honours of these martyrs een punished, like their predecessors, ies of their religion. The fears of the e just, and their precautions ineffectu-

al. The meritorious death of the archbishop ob- literated the memory of his life. The rival of Athanasius was dear and sacred to the Arians, and the seeming conversion of these sectaries introdu- ced his worship into the bosom of the Catholic church. The odious stranger, disguising every circumstance of time and place, assumed the mask of a martyr, a saint, and a Christian hero; and the infamous George of Cappadocia has been trans- formed into the renowned St George of England, the patron of arms, of chivalry, and of the garter." *Hist. Vol. II. p. 404.*

(13.) GEORGE, ST, in geography, one of the AZORES. It has about 5000 inhabitants, who cul- tivate wheat in great quantities. Lon. 28. 0. W. Lat. 38. 39. N.

(14.) GEORGE, ST, an island of the United States, in the Strait of St Mary, which runs be- tween lake Superior and Lake Huron.

(15.) GEORGE, ST, in Italy. See GIORGIO, ST.

(16.) GEORGE, ST, CROSS OF, a red cross in a field argent, which makes part of the British standard.

(17.) GEORGE, ST, DEL MINA, a fort on the Gold Coast of Guinea, the principal settlement of the Dutch in those parts, who took it from the Portuguese in 1630. The fort is the best on the coast. Under it is the town called by the natives ODDENA, which is very long, and pretty broad. The houses are built of stone, though in all the neighbouring places they are composed only of clay and wood. It was once very populous, but the inhabitants were greatly reduced by the small pox. It is about 12 miles W. of Cape Coast Castle. Lon. 0. 21. W. Lat. 5. 0. N.

(18.) GEORGE, ST, KNIGHTS OF. See GAR- TER. There have been various orders under this denomination, most of which are now extinct; particularly one founded by the emperor Frederick III. in 1470, to guard the frontiers of Bohemia and Hungary against the Turks; another called *St George of Aragon*, founded by the kings of Ara- gon; a 3d and 4th in Austria and Carinthia; and a 5th, in the republic of Genoa, &c.

(19.) GEORGE, ST, RELIGIOUS OF. Of these there are divers orders and congregations; parti- cularly canons regular of St George in Alga, at Venice, founded by Bartholomew Colonna, in 1396, and established by Pope Boniface IX. in 1404. Pope Pius V. in 1570, gave these canons precedence of all other religious. There is an- other congregation in Sicily.

(20.) GEORGE THE 3d's ISLAND, KING, the name given by Capt. Cook to OTAHEITE.

(21.) GEORGE TOWN. See GEORGETOWN. GEORGEHAM, a town on the coast of De- vonshire, SW. of Ilfracomb.

GEORGENBERG, a town of Silesia, in the county of Oppeln, 9 miles N. of Beuthen.

GEORGENBURG, a town of Prussian Lithua- nia, 2 miles S. of Insterburg.

GEORGENTHAL, a town of Upper Saxony, in the county of Gotha, 6 miles S. of Gotha.

GEORGE'S BANE, ST, a fishing bank of Mas- sachusets, on the Atlantic, E. of Cape Cod; ex- tending between Lon. 67. 50. and 68. 40. W. and from Lat. 41. 15. to 42. 22. N.

GEORGE'S CAPE, ST, a cape of St George's Island, 18 miles E. of Cape Blaise. Lat. 29. 38. N. GEORGE'S

CHANNEL, ST. the channel between the coast of England and the SE. of Ireland.

GEORGE'S ISLAND, ST. an island of England, in Cornwall, opposite to E. and W. Loc.

GEORGE'S ISLANDS, KING. See KING.

GEORGE'S ISLANDS, ST. islands in the Gulf of Mexico, on the coast of E. Florida, situated opposite to the mouth of the Apalachicola. Lon. 84. 50. W. Lat. 29. 30. N.

GEORGE'S KEY, ST. a small island of North America, off the coast of Honduras. It is likewise called *Cape* or *Cayo Caimo*. By a convention, in 1786, the English logwood-cutters in the bay of Honduras were permitted, under certain restrictions, to occupy this island.

(1.) **GEORGE'S RIVER, ST.** a river of the United States, in the district of Maine, which becomes an arm of the sea, a league SW. of Penobscot Bay.

(2.) **GEORGE'S RIVER, ST.** a very broad but short river of Maryland, in St Mary's county.

(3.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** the largest of the Bermuda Islands, lying 500 miles E. of the continent of N. America. Lon. 63. 30. W. Lat. 32. 45. N.

(4.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** the capital of the island of Grenada, formerly called *Fort Royal*, from its fort. It is seated on the W. side of the island, on a spacious bay, and has one of the best harbours in the British W. Indies. It was lately fortified.

(5.) **GEORGE'S ST.** a small island of Maritime Austria, in the gulf of Venice, lying to the S. of Venice. In it there is a Benedictine monastery, whose church is one of the finest in Italy.

(6.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** a village of the State of Delaware, in Newcastle county, 45 miles SW. of Philadelphia.

(7, 8.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** two English villages: 1. in Gloucestershire; and, 2. in Somersetshire; both near Bristol.

GEORGETOWN, the name of a district and 7 towns, in the United States, viz.

1. **GEORGETOWN,** a large maritime district of S. Carolina, bounded on the NE. by N. Carolina, SE. by the Atlantic, SW. by the Santee and N. W. by Camden and Cheraws districts. It is 112 miles long from N. to S. and 63 broad; and contains 4 counties, viz. Liberty, Winyaw, Kingston, and Williamsburg. Its population in 1790, (which is said to have been under-rated) was 8991 citizens, and 13,131 slaves. It produces rice, Indian corn, cotton, indigo, wood, &c.

2. **GEORGETOWN,** the capital of the above district, situated near the junction of the Pedee and the Sampitt, 45 miles N. by E. of Charlestown. Lon. 79. 30. W. Lat. 33. 20. N.

3. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Delaware, capital of Suffex county, 16 miles WSW. of Lewistown, and 103 S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 38. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 46. N.

4. **GEORGETOWN,** a flourishing town of Georgia, on the NE. side of the Ogeechee, 55 miles from Augusta, and 801 from Philadelphia.

5. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Kentucky, capital of Scott county, on the S. side of the Elkhorn, 11 NNW. of Lexington, and 20 E. by N. fort. Lon. 10. 8. W. of Philadelphia. 0. N.

6. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Maryland, county, on the S. side of the Sassafras, W. of Warwick, and 61 SW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 46. W. of that city. Lat. 39. 20. N.

7. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Maryland, Montgomery county, on the NE. side of the Potomac. It has an academy founded by Protestants and Roman Catholics, on liberal principles, carries on trade with Europe and the W. Indies, and lies 8 miles N. of Alexandria, and 141 Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 3. W. of that city. 55. N.

8. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Pennsylvania, Fayette county, on the SE. side of the Schuylkill, 16 miles SW. of Union.

(1.) **GEORGIA,** a country of Asia, bounded the N. by Circassia, on the E. by Daghestan, on the S. by Armenia, and on the W. by the Black Sea; comprehending the part of the ancient Colchis, Iberia, and Abasgia. About the etymology of the name, author the most probable opinion is, that it is a corruption by softening of KURKIA, from the whence also it is supposed that the name was called by the Persians indifferently *Gorgia* and *Guria*; and the country KURKISTAN and GURISTAN.

(2.) **GEORGIA, DIVISIONS OF.** Georgia is divided by a ridge of mountains into eastern and western; the former of which is again divided into the kingdoms of Kakheti, Cartli, and Guria; and the latter into the kingdoms of Abasgia, Mircia or Imeritia, and Guria. The other division is into Georgia Proper, and Mingrelia. A 3d division, and the most correct, is into 9 provinces; 5 of which (or were lately) subject to the famous patriarchus, forming what is commonly called the kingdom of Georgia, of which TIFLIS is the capital, and 4 are under the dominion of David, king the kingdom of Imeritia. See IBERIA.

(3.) **GEORGIA, GENERAL APPEARANCE, DUCE AND CLIMATE OF.** This whole country is so extremely beautiful, that some travellers have imagined they had here found the original garden of Eden. The mountains are covered with forests of oak, ash, beech, nut, walnuts, and elms, encircled with growing perfectly wild, but producing varieties of grapes. From these is annually produced much wine as is necessary for the yearly consumption; the remainder are left to rot on the vine. The wine is so rich, that the Persian monarch always has it at his table. The whole country is fertile, and abounds with cattle and wild beasts of various kinds. The bread is excellent, and the fruits, apples, pears, pomegranates, &c. of exquisite flavour. Cotton grows spontaneously well as the finest European fruit trees, wheat, millet, hemp, and flax, are raised in the plains, almost without culture. The valleys afford the finest pasturage: the rivers are full of fish; the mountains abound in minerals, and the climate is delicious; so that nature appears to have lavished on this favoured country every blessing that can contribute to the happiness of its inhabitants.

(4.) **GEORGIA, GOVERNMENT OF.** The government is

t of Georgia is despotic; but, were it the assistance of the Russian troops, the could frequently be unable to carry his into execution. The punishments in crimes are shockingly cruel; fortunately they frequent, because it is easy to escape into the neighbouring countries, and because he is more enriched by confiscating the of the criminal, than by putting him to death. Judicial combats are considered as a badge of nobility, and take place when the extremely intricate, or when the power of two claimants are so equal, that an force a decision of the court in his favour. This mode of trial is called *an appeal to the sword of God*.

GEORGIA, HISTORY OF. This country abounded with great cities, as appears from the ruins of many of them still visible, now that they must have been very large, and magnificently built. These were all destroyed by the northern barbarians from mount Caucasus, as the Alans, Huns, Suevi, and others, noted in history for their strength, courage, and conquests. In the 15th century, a king of Georgia divided among his 5 sons the provinces of Carduel and Caket, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and Abcassia. These petty princes were unable to unite for their common defence, and weak singly to resist a foreign enemy, or to check the incroachments of their great neighbours, who soon became independent. By forming a league among these nobles, the Turks gained possession of all the western provinces while the Persians occupied the government of Carduel and Caket. Since that period the unsuccessful attempts of the Georgians to recover their liberty have repeatedly produced the devastation of their country. Abbas the Great did to have carried off in one expedition the provinces of Carduel and Caket no less than 100 families; a number which, probably, was the whole actual population of those provinces. The most horrible cruelties were again done to the unhappy people, at the beginning of the 18th century, by the merciless Nadir; whose small evils, compared with those done in the internal dissensions of the great kingdom. This numerous body of men, idle, and proud and ferocious, possessed of an unlimited power over the lives and properties of their vassals, had no employment but that of arms, and no other grandizing themselves but by the plunder of their rivals, were constantly in a state of war, and as their success was various, and the spoils of the vanquished were constantly divided, and sold to the Turks or Persians, every day increased the depopulation of the country, in length they invited the neighbouring powers, by the hopes of plunder, to take part in their quarrels; and these dangerous allies, acquainted with the country, and being sensible of the weakness of its inhabitants, soon increased its desolation. A few squalid wretches, half starved, and driven to despair by the excessive exactions of their landlords, are scattered over the most beautiful provinces of the country.

2. The revolutions of Persia, and the

PART II.

weakness of the Turkish government, have indeed enabled the princes of the country to recover their independence; but the smallness of their revenue has hitherto disabled them from repressing effectually the tyranny of the nobles, and relieving the burdens of the peasants. Of all the Georgian princes, who of late have rendered themselves famous, by shaking off the Ottoman yoke, the most eminent is prince Heraclius. Of this prince, we have the following account by the late professor Guldenstadt when he travelled into these parts in 1770. "Heraclius, or, as he is called, the czar *Irakli*, is above 60 years old, of a middle size, with a long countenance, a dark complexion, large eyes, and a small beard. He passed his youth at the court and in the army of the celebrated Nadir Shah, where he contracted a fondness for Persian customs and manners, which he has introduced into his kingdom. He has 7 sons and 6 daughters. He is much revered and dreaded by the Persian khans his neighbours; and is usually chosen to mediate between them in their disputes with each other. When they are at war, he supports one of the parties with a few troops, who diffuse a spirit of courage among the rest, because the Georgian soldiers are esteemed the bravest of those parts; and prince Heraclius himself is renowned for his courage and military skill. When on horseback he has always a pair of loaded pistols at his girdle, and, if the enemy is near, a musket slung over his shoulder. In all engagements he is the foremost to give examples of personal bravery; and frequently charges the enemy at the head of his troops with the sabre in his hand. He loves pomp and expence; he has adopted the dress of Persia; and regulates his court after the manner of that country. From the example of the Russian troops, who were quartered in Georgia during the last Turkish war, he has learnt the use of plates, knives, and forks, dishes and household furniture, &c."

(6.) **GEORGIA, INHABITANTS OF.** "The inhabitants, (says Sir George Chardin,) are robust, valiant, and of a jovial temper; great lovers of wine, and esteemed very true and faithful; endowed with good natural parts, but, for want of education, very vicious. The women are generally so fair and comely, that the wives and concubines of the king of Persia and his court are for the most part Georgian women. Nature has adorned them with graces no where else to be met with: it is impossible to see them without loving them; they are of a good size, clean-limbed, and well shaped." Another traveller, however, of no mean character, thus expresses himself with respect to these women: "As to the Georgian women, they did not at all surprise us; for we expected to find them perfect beauties. They are, indeed, no way disagreeable; and may be counted beauties, if compared with the Curdes. They have an air of health that is pleasing enough; but, after all, they are neither so handsome nor so well shaped as is reported. Those who live in the towns have nothing extraordinary more than the others; so that I may, I think, venture to contradict the accounts that have been given of them by most travellers." The other inhabitants of Georgia are Tartars, Osli, and Armenians, called in the

Georgian language *Somakhi*. These last are found all over Georgia, sometimes mixed with the natives, and sometimes in villages of their own. They speak among themselves their own language, but all understand and can talk the Georgian. They remain partly the Armenian, and partly the Roman Catholic. They are the most respected of the old inhabitants, but are still distinguished by their distinctive monitory which every where characterizes their names. Besides these, there are in Georgia considerable numbers of Jews, called, in the language of the country, *Urm*. Some have villages of their own; and others are mixed with the Georgian, Armenian, and Tatar inhabitants, but mixed with the Jews. They pay a small tribute above that of the natives.

(7.) **GEORGIANS, MANNERS AND CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE &c.** The Georgians are Christians of the Greek communion. Their dress nearly resembles that of the Cossacks; but men of rank frequently wear the habit of Persia. They usually dye their hair, beard, and nails with red. The Georgian women employ the same colour to stain the palms of their hands. On their heads they wear a cap or fillet, under which the black hair falls on the forehead; behind, it is braided into several tresses. Their eye-brows are painted with black, so as to form one entire line, and their faces are perfectly coated with white and red. Their robe is open to the girdle, so that they are reduced to conceal the breasts with their hands. Their air and manner are extremely voluptuous. Being generally educated in convents, they can all read and write; a qualification which is very unusual among the men, even of the highest rank. Girls are betrothed as soon as possible, often at 3 or 4 years of age. In the streets the women of rank are always veiled, and then it is indecent in any man to accost them. It is likewise uncivil in conversation to inquire after the wives of any of the company. These, however, are not ancient customs, but consequences of the violence committed by the Persians, under Shah Nadir. Travellers accuse the Georgians of drunkenness, superstition, cruelty, sloth, avarice, and cowardice; vices which are everywhere common to slaves and tyrants, and are by no means peculiar to the natives of this country. The descendants of the colonists, carried off by Shah Abbas, and settled at Perzia, near Ispahan, and in Masanderan, have changed their character with their government; and the Georgian troops, employed in Persia against the Afghans, were advantageously distinguished by their docility, their discipline, and their courage.

(3.) **GEORGIA, POPULATION &c.** The subjects of Heraklius have been estimated at about 60,000 families; but this, notwithstanding the present devastated state of the country, is probably an undervaluation. The peasants belonging to the queen, and those of the patriarch, pay no tax to the prince, and therefore do not appear on the books of the revenue officers. Many similar exemptions have likewise been granted by the prince to his favourites. Besides, as the impost on the peasants is not a poll tax, but a tax on hearths, the inhabitants of a village, on the approach of the collectors, frequently carry the furniture of several huts into one, and destroy the

remainder, which are afterwards very high. It is probable, therefore, that the elevation of Georgia does not fall into the fourth.

10. **GEORGIA, REVENUES.** There are
be estimated at about 1,000,000 rubles, or
1,500,000 roubles. 1. The custom, 1,500,000.
2. Rent paid by the farmers of
the fields, 1,500,000. The tribute paid
by the Khan of Erevan and Gushik, 1,500,000.
The money levied on the peasants, 1,500,000.
The common coin, here
about 1,500,000, and a fine
coin, stamped with the fruit of the
tree, a large quantity of gold and silver
is brought into the country from Persia
to exchange for money, butter, &c.
but little.

(TO) GEORGIA, TRADE OF. The
State, being fed by many rivers, exports
all fishes either in rapid or on shoals
at places of migration: the Black Sea
commerce and navigation might be in-
creased. There has been till very lately
exclusive possession of the Turks; the trade
is by land & recently obstructed by
monopolies of Circassians; and this ob-
stacle is removed by the removal of predatory
war with the Circassians in 1864.

(Hill) Guatemala, the most farther United States of America, bounded on the Atlantic Ocean, on the S. by E. and Africa, on the W. by the Mississippi, and NE. and N. by S. Carolina and Tennessee, 664 miles long and 162 broad, lying between 91° Lon. W.; and 16° 17' and 35°

(h.) GEORGIA, CLIMATE, SOIL AND
OF. The winters in Georgia are very
pleasant. Snow is seldom or never
seen. The soil and its fertility are various, ac-
cording to the situation and improvements. By culti-
vating rice, indigo, cotton, silk, Indian
corn, oranges, figs, &c. negroes, &c.
present is the staple commodity; but
attention is also paid to the raising of tobacco.

(III.) GEORGIA, COUNTIES AND CHIEF TOWNS. Georgia, before the revolution, was divided into parishes; afterwards into 3 divisions into two, called the *Upper and Lower*, are subdivided into 24 counties; 9 in the *Lower*, viz. Camden, Glynn, Liberty, Bryan, McIntosh, Effingham, Scriven, and 15 in the *Upper*, viz. Montgomery, Wilkes, Wilcox, Lincoln, Warren, Jackson, Bullock, Columbia, and 1. The chief towns are SAVANNAH, the capital of the state, AUGUSTA, the late seat of government, LOUISVILLE, the present seat. (See these articles;) Sunbury, Buena Vista, Washington, St. Patricks, Goldsboro, &c.

(iv.) **GEORGIA, GENERAL APPEARANCE.** The E. part of the state between the river and the ocean, and the Savannah and St. Marys rivers, is an entirely level tract of 120 miles N. to S. and from 40 to 50 broad, single hill or none. About 45 miles fr

lands begin to be uneven, ridges gra-
into hills, and these into mountains,
minate in the Allegany and Appala-
hians in New York.

GEORGIA, GOVERNMENT AND CONSTITUTION. By the constitution established, May
the legislative power is vested in a series
of representatives, both elected by the
large, and fitted the *General Assembly*.
consists of 24 members, one from each
of the 12 counties. A senator must be 28
years of age, 3 years a citizen of Georgia and 9
in the United States: He must also possess
at least 250 acres of land, and 2500 l. of
property. A member of the house of representa-
tives must be 21 years of age, two years a citizen
of Georgia, and 7 in the United States; he must
possess 100 acres of land, or property worth
1000 l. Five years residence entitles a citizen to
be a senator. There are only two judges in the superior
court, one presides in each district, and decides
all important causes: But there is an in-
ferior court of common pleas in each
district, with 3 judges who sit twice a-year. The
process is simple and the causes soon de-

GEORGIA HISTORY OF. The settlement of
between the Savannah and Altamaha was
first made in England in 1732, for the accom-
modation of poor people in Great Britain and
for the farther security of Carolina.
The passion and public spirit conspired to
the benevolent design. Humane and
enlightened suggested a plan of transporting a
number of indigent families to this part of Ameri-
ca. For this purpose they applied
to George II. and obtained from him
a charter, dated June 9, 1732, for legally carry-
ing out what they had generously pro-
posed. They called the new province *Georgia*,
in honour of the king who encouraged the plan.
The first ship, consisting of 21 persons, was con-
ducted by the name of, *The Trustees for settling
the colony of Georgia*. In Nov.
1732, the settlers embarked for Georgia, to be
entirely free of expence, furnished with
all requisite for building and for cultivat-
ing. Mr James Oglethorpe, one of the
most active promoters of the settlement,
was the head and director of these settlers.
They arrived at Charlestown early in 1733. Mr
Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, shortly
after his arrival, visited Georgia; and after
examining the country, marked the spot on which
the new town should stand, as the fittest to begin their

Here they accordingly began and
built a fort; and a number of huts for their
accommodation. Such of the settlers
able to bear arms were embodied, and
furnished with officers, arms, and ammunition.
A friendship was concluded between the
English and their neighbours the Creek Indians,
who wore the aspect of peace and
prosperity. But the first English settlers
did not fulfilment of these expectations, it
was found that a hardy and bold race of men,
accustomed to arduous labour and fatigue, would be bet-
ter both to cultivate and defend the in-

stant province. Accordingly 570 adventurers, a-
mong whom were 130 Highlanders, and 170 Ger-
mans, were prevailed on to emigrate to Georgia
within 3 years after. But the fundamental regu-
lations established by the trustees of Georgia were
ill adapted to the circumstances and situation of
the poor settlers, and of pernicious consequences
to the prosperity of the province. Yet although
the trustees were greatly mistaken with respect to
their plan of settlement, it must be acknowledged
their views were generous. Like other distant le-
gislators, who framed their regulations upon prin-
ciples of speculation, they were liable to many er-
rors and mistakes; and however good their design,
their rules were found improper and impracticable.
These injudicious regulations and restrictions, the
wars in which they were involved with the Spani-
ards and Indians, and the frequent insurrections
among themselves, threw the colony into a state
of confusion and wretchedness too great for human
nature long to endure. Their oppressed situation
was represented to the trustees by repeated com-
plaints; till at length finding that the province
languished under their care, and weary with the
complaints of the people, they in 1752, surren-
dered their charter to the king, and it was made a
royal government. John Reynolds, Esq. was ap-
pointed governor, and a legislature similar to that
of the other provinces was established.—In 1740,
the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan-
house academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from
Savannah. From the time that Georgia became a
royal government in 1752, till the peace of Paris
in 1763, the colony struggled under many difficul-
ties arising from the want of credit, and the fre-
quent molestations of enemies. The good effects
of the peace were sensibly felt. From this time it
began to flourish under the care of gov. Wright;
and within 10 years only, from 1763 to 1773 its
exports arose from 27,021 l. to 121,676 l. Sterling.
During the American war, Georgia was over-run
by the British troops, and the inhabitants were
obliged to flee into the neighbouring states for
safety. Since the peace, the population, agricul-
ture, commerce and arts, have increased with
astonishing rapidity, though these have been a
good deal retarded within these few years by the
hostile incursions of the CREEK or MUSKOGULGE
Indians, who inhabit the middle parts of the state.
See MUSKOGULGE. In 1789, the constitution
was new-modelled upon a plan similar to that of
the other states. In 1790, a treaty of peace be-
ing concluded between the United States and the
Indians, the state of Georgia has been ever since
increasing in wealth and population.

(vii.) **GEORGIA, INDIAN NATIONS IN.** The
middle parts of this state are inhabited by the
CREEK or MUSKOGULGE Indians, the most nu-
merous nation of Aboriginal Americans within the
United States, consisting of about 20 different tribes
united. Their country is fertile, though hilly, and
extends from the Mobile to the Atlantic. The
CHACKTAW, CHICKASAW, and CHEROKEE,
have settlements in the N. and W. parts of the
state. See these articles.

(viii.) **GEORGIA, INHABITANTS OF.** In the
grand convention at Philadelphia in 1787, the in-
habitants of this state were reckoned at 90,000,

including 20,000 negroes. At present (1800) the total population is estimated at 100,000 including 30,000 slaves; so that the only increase seems to be in the number of that unfortunate race. The number of Indians in Georgia is estimated at about 32,000. No general character will apply to the citizens of this state. Collected from different parts of the world, as interest, necessity, or inclination led them, their character and manners must of course partake of all the varieties which distinguish the several states and kingdoms from whence they came. There is so little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An aversion to labour seems predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of necessity to excite industry. An open and friendly hospitality, however, particularly to strangers, is an ornamental characteristic of a great part of this people. As to religion the upper counties are supplied pretty generally by baptist and methodist ministers; but the greater part of the state is without ministers of any denomination.

(ix.) GEORGIA, ISLANDS OF. The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Skiddaway, Wassaw, Oflabaw, St Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl and Cumberland.

(x.) GEORGIA, NATURAL CURIOSITIES OF. Near Augusta, there is a bank of oyster shells 90 miles from the sea: and in Wilkes county, near Washington, there is a remarkable spring which rises from a hollow tree, 5 feet long. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of matter an inch thick, and the leaves around the spring are encrusted with a peculiar substance as white as snow. The water is said to be an effectual remedy for the scurvy, scrofula, gout, rheumatism and consumption.

(xi.) GEORGIA, RIVERS OF. The chief rivers in this state are the Savannah, Turtle river, Little and Great Satilla, Crooked river, and St Mary's which forms a part of the southern boundary of the United States. The rivers in the middle and western parts are the Apalachicola, formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Pascagoula, and Pearl rivers. All these run southward into the Gulf of Mexico.

(xii.) GEORGIA, TRADE OF. The commerce of this state has greatly increased of late. The articles chiefly exported are cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo, sago, lumber, naval stores, leather, deer skins, inkerooot, myrtle, bees wax, corn, and live stock; of which last, the farmers raise from 1000 to 1500 head annually. The exports in 1795 amounted to 695,985 dollars: and in 1799 to 1,396,759. The chief imports are West India goods, tea, wine, cloths, dry goods, fish; cheese, cyder, shoes, &c. Silk, indigo, and sago, are the chief manufactures.

(xiii.) GEORGIA, UNIVERSITY OF. A charter was passed in 1785, for erecting a college, with ample and liberal endowments, at Louisville, in a high and healthy part of the country, near the centre of the state. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county of the state, to be supported from the same funds, and consisting of pupils and members of the same institution, under the general superintendence and

direction of a president and board of trustees pointed for their literary accomplishments in the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. This institution thus composed is denominated *University of Georgia*. The funds for the support of this institution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and is very valuable. There are also nearly 600000 dollars lying in bonds, houses and town lots in the city of Augusta. Other public property to the amount of 1000 l. in each county has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing the respective academies. The funds originally appropriated for the support of the orphan-house are now applied to the support of the same institution, and to the support of the orphan-house are now applied to the support of the same institution, and to the support of the orphan-house are now applied to the support of the same institution.

(xiv.) GEORGIA, WESTERN TERRITORY. This country extends from the Mississippi W. to the Flint and Apalachicola on the E. It is intersected by many rivers. Great part of it belongs to the Indians. (See § vii.) Millions of acres of it were sold a few years ago by the state of Georgia to several companies withstanding a very violent opposition occasioned a general ferment.

(III.) GEORGIA, a township of Vermont, Franklin county, on lake Champlain.

(IV.) GEORGIA, SOUTH, an island in the Pacific Ocean, discovered and named by James Cook in 1775. See COOK, N° III, § 9. It is 10 leagues long, and its greatest breadth is 5 leagues. It seems to abound with bays and harbours. The vast quantities of ice render inaccessible the greatest part of the year. Two rocky islands are situated at the N. end; one named *Hill Island* from the person who discovered it. *Bird Island*, from the innumerable flock of all sorts that were seen near it, from albatrosses down to the least petrels. porpoises and seals were likewise observed. There are perpendicular ice-cliffs, of considerable height, like those at Spitzbergen. Pieces were observed breaking off, and floating out to sea. Between 33. 13. and 35. 34. W. Lat. 5. 54. 57. S.

(V.) GEORGIA, WEST. See N° II, GEORGIANS, the people of Georgia.

(1.) * GEORGICK. *an. f.* [Georgic; a poem; Fr.] Relating to the doctrine of agriculture.

Here I peruse the Ma. Juan's georgic
And learn the labours of Italian swain.

(2.) * GEORGICK. *n. f.* Some part of husbandry put into a pleasing context set off with all the beauties and embellishments of poetry. *Addition.*

(3.) GEORGICS are poetical compositions on husbandry. Hesiod and Virgil are the best masters in Georgics. The moderns have produced nothing in this kind, except Rapin's of Gardening; and the celebrated poem of Cyder, by Mr Philips, who, if he has the advantage of Virgil's language, was never second to Virgil in a much nearer approach to the subject.

GEORGIEV, a town of Russia, in the government of Caucasus, 32 miles WNW. of Jekaterinburg.

G, ST. See **GIORGIO**, ST.

Z, a town of Walachia, 18 miles north, and 24 SE. of Tergovisto.

IM SIDUS, or the **GEORGIAN PLANET**, *Index*. The late Prof. W. Jersey, in his *Researches into the Planets*, says, "The encouragement of the arts, by his beneficence and example, certainly entitles him to the name of a living sovereign to the home. But it is not very probable it will. The satellites of Jupiter were first discovered, Galileo, *Pianeti Medicei* of his patrons, the Medici. This name was discontinued. Had Mr Hersey given the name of some of the ancient planets, it would have been universally among that number, *Minerva* descending from its beauty and brilliant planet Mars has been so called from the goddess of war. The new planet, being a telescope, is said to denote the modesty of the discoverer." Foreign astronomers have named this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its discoverer.

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PY, *n. f.* [from *πῦρ*, earth, and *σκοπεῖν*, observation of the different qualities] *Bailey*.

CK, *adj.* [from *γῆ*.] Belonging to the earth. *Diſt.*

G, in ancient geography, according to Procopius, were a Gothic people, some of whom, in the 5th century, settled in an island at the mouth of the Vistula, which they called *Geoponia*, from their own name, which denotes lazy people. Others in Dacia, calling their settlement *GEOPONIA*.

G, an imperial town of Wirtemberg, near Stuttgart. Lon. 9. 45. E. Lat. 48. 30. N.

G, town of Saxony in Misnia, on the river Elbe, 11 miles SSW. of Leipzig, and 68 W. of Berlin. Lon. 11. 56. S. Lat. 50. 50. N.

G, [גֶּרָה, Heb.] the smallest silver coin among the Jews, in value 7½d sterling.

GER, a town of Norway, in the diocese of Trondheim, 22 miles SSW. of Romſdal.

GER, in natural history, an appellation given to such of the semipellucid gems as are of a spot resembling a crane's eye.

GERANIUM, **CRANE'S BILL**, in botany, a geeraniaceae order, belonging to the monochlamydeae class of plants; and in the natural method under the 14th order, *Gruinales*. There are these: the flower has a permanent, composed of 5 small oval leaves, or heartshaped petals, spreading open, in some species equal, and in others are much larger than the 5 lower. The calyx is permanent, alternately longer than each other, than the petals, and terminated by oblong lobes. In the bottom of the flower is situated the germen, which is permanent. The ovary is succeeded by 5 seeds, each being wrapped in a fleshy husk of the beak, where they are gathered together at the point, so as to form the

resemblance of a stork's beak. There are above 80 species. The common wild sorts, and those which are brought from the colder climates, are hardy enough, and require little care; but the African species, and the others from hot countries which make so very beautiful a figure in our green-houses, require great care in their culture and propagation. These may be propagated by seed, which should be sown toward the end of March in beds of light earth, carefully shading them from the sun, and giving them frequent but gentle waterings, till they are well rooted. The mats with which these beds are covered are to be taken off in gentle showers, and always in the hot weather at nights, that the plants may have the benefit of the dew. They should remain about two months in this bed, by which time they will have taken root. Some pots of about 7 inches wide should then be filled with light earth, and the plants taken up with as much as possible of their own earth about them, and planted severally in the middle of these pots; when they are to be set in a shady place, and watered at times till they have taken root. When well rooted, they should be set in a more exposed place to harden them, and should stand out till the middle of October; but when the mornings begin to grow frosty, they must be removed into the green-house, and then placed as near the windows as possible, and the windows should be opened upon them till the weather is very cold. During the winter they must be often watered a little at a time, and their dead leaves should be pulled off. They must not stand under the shade of other plants, nor near any artificial heat. Those who wish that their plants should be large and flower soon, sow the seeds on a moderate hot-bed in the spring; when they are come up, they should not be drawn weak, and the pots into which they are transplanted should be plunged into another moderate hot-bed; shading them from the sun till they have taken root, and gradually inuring them to the open air, into which they should be removed in the beginning of June, and placed in a sheltered situation with other exotic plants. The shrubby African geraniums are commonly propagated by cuttings, which planted in a shady border, in June or July, will take good root in 5 or 6 weeks; and they may then be taken up and planted in separate pots, placing them in the shade till they have taken new root; after which they may be removed into a sheltered situation, and treated as the seedling plants. Geranium is recommended as one of the greatest vulneraries and abstersgents of the vegetable world, and is highly extolled for its power of stopping profluvia of the menses, and hæmorrhagies of all kinds. Experience confirms this, especially among the poor people in the country; and it were to be wished, that the plant could be brought into more esteem in the shops, where at present it is disregarded.

GERANZAGO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Tessino, and late principality of Pavia.

GERAR, or **GERARA**, in ancient geography, the south boundary of Canaan near Berseba; situated between Cades and Zur; two deserts, the one facing Egypt and the other Arabia Petrea.

(1.) **GER**

(1.) GERARD, Alexander, D. D. professor of divinity in King's college, Aberdeen, and one of his majesty's chaplains for Scotland. He was eldest son of the rev. Gilbert Gerard, minister of Chapel of Garioch, and was born the 22d Feb. 1728. He received the rudiments of his education at Forveran, in Aberdeenshire; but his father dying when he was only ten years old, his mother and the family removed to Aberdeen, where he made such progress at the grammar school, that in two years he was deemed fit for the university. He accordingly entered student at Marischal college, and in 4 years afterwards was admitted A. M.: after which he studied theology at the universities of Aberdeen and Edinburgh. Having been licensed to preach in 1748, he was chosen assistant to prof. D. Fordyce, in 1750, and was afterwards appointed his successor, upon his untimely death, in 1752. See FORDYCE. In 1754, a material alteration being made in the order of teaching philosophy in the university, prof. Gerard was appointed to lay before the public the reasons which had influenced them to deviate from the former practice; which he accordingly did in a small pamphlet, that gave universal satisfaction; wherein he pointed out the inconveniences of the old, and the advantages of the new plan; which was at this time adopted by both colleges. About this time too he was an active member of a respectable literary society, which met once a fortnight at Aberdeen, and of which Drs Blackwell, Beattie, Gregory, Reid, Campbell, and other eminent literary gentlemen were members. On the 5th of Sept. 1759, he was ordained a minister of the church of Scotland; on the 11th of June, 1760, he was appointed professor of divinity in the Marischal college, and minister of the Gray-friars church at Aberdeen; and about the same time he was created D. D. On the 18th June 1771, he resigned both these offices, and was appointed professor of divinity in king's college; in which station he continued equally esteemed by his colleagues, and revered by his pupils, till his birthday 1795, when having just entered his 68th year, he died in consequence of a schirrous tumour, which had begun to appear in his face in 1794; and gradually impaired his constitution. Dr Gerard's character in private life was amiable and exemplary. Kindness to his relations, affability with his dependants, steadiness and warmth in his attachments to his friends, and hospitality to strangers without extravagance or ostentation, were conspicuous in his general conduct. His public discourses, as a minister and professor, were equally marked by distinctness of arrangement, accuracy of composition, and justness of reasoning. His friend, Dr Beattie, (who himself stands high in the republic of letters) assures us, that "he had improved his memory to such a degree, that, in little more than an hour, he could get by heart any sermon of ordinary length; though far from availing himself of this talent, as many would have done, he composed with care all the sermons that he preached." He was author of, 1. An Essay on Taste: 8vo. 1759. 2. Dissertations on subjects relating to the genius and evidences of Christianity: 8vo. 1766. 3. An Essay on Genius: 8vo. 1774. 4. Several Sermons on various subjects, published

from 1760 to 1782; and 5. A part of a gical course, entitled *The Pastoral Office*, published in 1799, by his son, Dr Gilbert who succeeded him in his professorship. Lay on Taste gained the gold prize medal of the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh.

(2.) GERARD, John, a learned Lutheran professor of divinity, and rector of the of Jena, his birth-place. He wrote, 1. *mony of the Eastern Languages*; 2. *A the Coptic Church*; and other works esteemed. He died in 1668.

(3.) GERARD, Tung, or Tom, founder Grand Master of the Knights hospital John, or Knights of Malta, was born in Italy, in the 11th century. In A. D. assumed a religious habit, with a white the breast, and, with many others, e vows of chastity, poverty, and to relieve tians in distress, &c. He died in 1120 succeeded as grand master by Raymon See MALTA.

GERARDE, John, surgeon in London, greatest botanist of his time, and many gardener to Lord Burleigh; who was great lover of plants, and had the best in the kingdom, among which were introduced by Geraide. In 1597, he his *Herbal*, which was printed at the J. Norton, who procured the figures for fort. In 1663, Thomas Johnson, an publisher an improved edition of Gerard which met with such approbation by the ty of Oxford, that they conferred upon degree of M. D. and it is still much The descriptions in the herbal are plain liar; and are calculated to make the derstand the characters of the plants.

GERARDI, Christopher, an eminent of landscapes, grotesque and historical born at Florence in 1500. He died in

GERARDIA, in botany; a genus of ospermia order, belonging to the didym of plants: and in the natural method under the 40th order, *Ferjonatæ*. The cal quefid, the corolla bilabiate; the under tite; the side lobes emarginated, and t one bipartite; the capsule bilocular and

GERARDMER, a town of France in of Vosges, 10 miles SE. of Bruyeres, of Remiremont.

GERARDS, Mark, a famous painter born in 1561, who came to England and was appointed painter to Q. Elizabeth was eminent in history portraits and landscape and died in 1635.

GERARDSTOWN, a town of Virginia, ley county, 10 miles from Martinsburg from Philadelphia.

GERASA. See GADARENORUM AC GERASTORFF, a town of German ria; 7 miles E. of Korn Neuburg.

(1.) GERAU, or } a country of Germany
(1.) GERAW, } Hesse Darmstadt
conflux of the Maine and the Rhine.

(2.) GERAW, or GERAU, Gross, Hesse Darmstadt, 8 miles WNW. of J and 10 SE. of Mentz. It is the capital

according to Dr Brookes, but Mr es Darmstadt the capital. Lon. 8. 45. N.

See JERBA.

US, Nicolas, an eminent lawyer, born in the 15th century. He published, 1. Description of Greece, in Latin; 2. *Vita F. Cypriani*; and 3. a curious *synaptismum ortu & progressu*. Strasbourg, much respected and very

ON, Gabriel, a French priest and artist, born in 1620. He taught theology, till Lewis XIV. having ordered him on account of the freedom of his bed to Holland. He died at St. 1. His chief work is his History of vols 11mo, Amst. 1703.

UY, a town of France, in the dep. of province of Isle of France. It was c 9th century; taken by the English, 1437; but in 1449, the garrison were by the Picards. It is 6 miles NE. of NW. of Beauvais, and 50 N. of Paris. Lat. 49. 32. N.

or ZERBI. See ZERBI.

LLERS, a town of France, in the time, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, seated on the Agen, 6 miles S. of d 16 E. of Fezelize.

, Sir Balthazar, a painter of Antwerp, who distinguished himself by paintings in distemper. K. Charles I. was th his performances, that he invited , where he grew into great favour. hted, and sent to Brussels, where he as agent for that monarch. †

ON, John Francis, one of the most ie Jesuit missionaries in China, was . He was in great favour with the whom he composed 2 books on geod at Pekin in the Chinese and Targes. He wrote also Historical Obsereat Tartary, and an Account of some s, inserted in Du Halde's History of died at Pekin, superior general of all n China.

ADT, a town of Saxony, in the counid, 30 miles SW. of Dessau, and 36 S. E.

AN, a town of Prussia, in the prov. , built in 1325, and defended by two d on the Omet, 30 miles SE. of Ko-

, a town of Germany, in the bishopom, 2 miles SE. of Dringenberg.

, a town of Russia, in the government the Colva, 152 miles N. of Perm.

CHANSKOL, a fort of Siberia.

VT. *adj.* [*gerens*, Latin.] Carrying; 7.

DORF, a town of Austria, 3 miles ns.

D, a town of Negropont.

FALCON. *n. f.* A bird of prey, in a vulture and a hawk, and of the 9th next to the eagle. *Bailey*.

ALCON. See FALCO, N^o 22 and 31.

GERGAR, a town of Spain, in Granada.

GERGEFALVA, a town of Transylvania.

GERGENTI. See GIRGENTI.

GERGESA, in ancient geography, a Transjordan town, 10 otherwise known than by the *Ger- gesenes* of St Matthew, GERGESÆI of Moses; sup- posed to have stood in the neighbourhood of Ga- dara, and near the sea of Tiberias. See GADAR- ENORUM AGER.

GERGESÆI, or } one of the 7 ancient nations
GERGESENES, } of Canaan, less frequently mentioned than the rest. They appear to have been less considerable and more obscure: their name is from *Girgasi*, one of Canaan's sons. See GIRGASHITES.

GERGINSWALDE, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Leipzig, 4 miles NE. of Rochlitz.

GERHARDSBRON, a town of Germany, in Anspach; 28 miles W. of Anspach.

GERISIM, } or GARIZIM, in ancient geo-
GERIZIM, } graphy, a mountain of Samaria, at the foot of which stood Shechem; so near, that Jotham could be heard by the Shechemites from its top; (*Judges ix. 7.*) famous for the temple built on it by Sanballat, in favour of his son-in law Ma- nasseh, by the permission of Alexander the Great; and destroyed 200 years after, by John Hyrcanus, son of Simon the 4th in succession of the Asmone- ans. *Josephus*.

GERLA, a village of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of the Benaco.

GERLATZKOL, a fort of Russian Siberia.

GERM. See GERME, and GERMEN.

(1.) GERMAIN. or ST GERMAIN, a town of France, in the department of Seine and Oise, and ci-devant province of the Isle of France. It has a magnificent palace, embellished by Lewis XIV, who was born in it, with a fine forest and elegant gardens, &c. long the asylum of K. James II. It is seated on the Seine, 10 miles NW. of Paris. Lon. 2. 15. E. Lat. 48. 52. N.

(2.) GERMAIN LAVAL, ST, a town of France, in the dept. of Rhone and Loire, and late province of Forez; 18 miles S. of Roanne, and 225 SE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 2. E. Lat. 45. 50. N.

GERMAINS, ST, a borough of England, in Corn- wall, formerly the largest town in the county, and a bishop's see. Part of the old cathedral is used as the parish church, and the priory is still stand- ing. It is 10 miles W. of Plymouth, and 224 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 24. W. Lat. 50. 22. N.

(1.) GERMAN, or GERMANIC, *adj.* belonging to Germany.

(2.) * GERMAN. *adj.* [*germanus*, Lat.] Related. Obsolete.—Not he alone shall suffer what wit can make heavy, and vengeance bitter; but those that are *german* to him, though removed fifty times, shall come under the hangman. *Shakspeare*.

(3.) * GERMAN. *n. f.* [*germain*, Fr. *germanus*, Lat.] Brother; one approaching to a brother in proximity of blood: thus the children of brothers or sisters are called cousins *german*, the only sense in which the word is now used.—They knew it was their cousin *german*, the famous Amphialus. *Sidonius*.—

And to him said, go now, proud miscreant,
Thyself thy message do to *german* dear. *F. Q.*
—Wert thou a bear, thou wouldst be kill'd by the
horde;

horse; wert thou a horse, thou wouldst be seiz'd by the leopard; wert thou a leopard, thou wert german to the lion, and the spots of thy kindred were juries on thy life. *Shak. Timon.*—You'll have your nephews neigh to you; you'll have coursers for cousins, and genets for *germans.* *Othello.*

(4.) GERMAN, in genealogy, signifies whole, entire, or own. *Germani, quasi eadem stirpe geniti. Fossus.* Hence, BROTHER GERMAN, denotes a brother both by the father's and mother's side, in contradistinction to uterine brothers, &c. who are only so by the mother's side. And COUSINS GERMAN, are those in the first degree, the children of brothers or sisters. See CONSANGUINITY, and COUSIN, § 1, 2.

(5.) GERMAN, in geography, a township of Pennsylvania, in Fayette county.

(6.) GERMAN FLATS, a town and township of New York, the capital of Herkemer county, containing 4194 citizens in 1790, of whom 684 were electors: seated on the Mohawk opposite Herkemer; 60 miles W. of Schenectady, 80 NW. by W. of Albany, and 340 N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0, 5. E. of that city. Lat. 42. 58. N.

(1.) * GERMANDER. *n. f.* [*germandrée, Fr. chamaedrys, Lat.*] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) GERMANDER, in botany. See TEUCRIUM.

(3.) GERMANDER, ROCK. See VERONICA.

GERMANICUS CÆSAR, Claudius, the son of Drusus, and nephew to the emperor Tiberius, who adopted him. By his mother Antonia, daughter of Mark Antony and Octavia, he was grand-nephew to Augustus. He was much renowned as a general, but still more for his virtues. He took the title of *Germanicus* from his conquests in Germany; but though he refused the empire offered to him by his army, Tiberius, jealous of his success and popularity, caused him to be poisoned, A. D. 29, aged 34. He was a protector of learning; and composed some Greek comedies and Latin poems, some of which are still extant.

GERMANO, ST, a town of Naples, at the foot of Mount Cassano, with an abbey on the top of it. Lon. 13. 59. Lat. 41. 13. N.

(1.) GERMAN, the people of GERMANY.

(2.) GERMAN, CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE ANCIENT. The ancient Germans are described by the Greek and Roman writers as resembling the Gauls; and differing from other nations by their tall stature, ruddy complexion, blue eyes, yellow bushy hair, haughty and threatening looks, strong constitutions, and being proof against hunger, cold, and all kinds of hardships. Their native disposition appeared chiefly in their martial genius, and in their singular fidelity. The former they indeed carried to such an excess as came little short of downright ferocity: and as to the latter, they not only valued themselves, but were greatly esteemed by other nations for it; inasmuch that Augustus, and several of his successors, committed the guard of their persons to them, and other nations either courted their alliance, or hired them as auxiliaries: though it must be owned, that their extreme love of liberty, and their hatred of tyranny and oppression, often hurried them to treachery and murder, especially when they thought themselves ill used by those who hired them; for in such cases they were easily provoked,

and extremely vindictive. In other cases tells us, they were noble, magnanimous, beneficent, without ambition to aggrandize their dominions, or invade those from whom they had received no injury; rather choosing to increase their strength and valour defensively than to preserve their own than to ravage their neighbours. Their friendship and integrity rather a compound of honest blunt simplicity, than of wit, humour, or gallantry; and strangers were sure to meet with a kindness from them to the utmost of their ability: those who were not in a capacity to defend themselves, reckoned it a duty to introduce those who could; and nothing was held more testable, than to refuse them either the one or the other. They do not seem, indeed, to have had a taste for elegant entertainments; they were content with every thing, in their houses, furniture, and dress, rather plainness and simplicity, than richness and luxury. If they learned of the Greeks and Gauls the use of money, it was because they found it more convenient than the ancient way of bartering one commodity for another; and then they preferred those coins which had been stamped during the time of Roman liberty, especially such as were stamped with the image of a free man, because they could so easily cheat in them as in some others which were frequently nothing but copper or lead over with silver. This last metal they preferred before gold, as more convenient and as they became more feared by them, as they learned how to draw enough of it to supply their whole country, besides what was imported from other nations. As to marriage, the German man was contented with one wife, except a few of their nobles, who kept a plurality of wives for shew than pleasure; and both parties were faithful to each other, and chaste, truly interested, in their conjugal affection, they preferred their manners in this respect to those of the Romans. The men sought not to seduce their wives, but bestowed them upon their youth, in those cold climes, did not begin to feel the warmth of love as those in hot climates; it was common with them not to marry until they were old, and those were most esteemed who were longest in celibacy, because they reckoned the most effectual means to make them grow tall and strong. To marry, or be concerned with a woman when they were full 20 years old, was accounted a dishonourful wantonness. The women shared with their husbands not only the care of their families, but the education of their children, but even in times of war. They attended them in the field, cooked their victuals, dressed their wounds, and cited their courage to fight against their enemies, and sometimes by their own bravery secured victory when it was upon the point of being lost. In a word, they looked upon such attendance on them, not as a servitude, like that of man and woman, but as a duty and an honour. What appears to have been still an harder task for the ancient German ladies was, that they excluded all those who were not of their race, *Odin*, or *Woden*, excluded all those who were not of their race, *valhalla*, or paradise, who did not, by their valour, merit death, follow their deceased husbands.

GERMANS, FUNERALS AND FEASTS OF THE ANCIENT. There is scarcely any thing in Germany, though nearly allied in most her customs to the Gauls, were more different than in their funerals. Those of the former were performed with great pomp and those of the latter with the same simplicity which they observed in their religious rites. The only grandeur they affected was, to burn the bodies of their great men in peculiar kinds of wood; but then the funeral pile was neither adorned with the clothes nor the furniture of the deceased, nor perfumed with fragrant herbs and gums: each man's arms, as it is, his sword, shield, and spear, were deposited with him, and sometimes his riding horse. The funeral pile, flung into the funeral pile of a great man, silver, and other precious things, were deposited with him, who walked in a gloomy procession to the fire, exhorted the bystanders to follow him into it in honour of the deceased. The Romans deposited their ashes in urns, like the Germans, &c. as plainly appears, from the numbers which have been dug up in the country, and illustrated by dissertations on them, by several learned moderns of France. And the sacrifices they offered for the presents they made to them at their feasts, and all the other superstitious rites at them, were done in consequence of a belief in the immortality of the soul, which their ancient religion had. (see § 4.) as to the immortality of the soul, or misery of a future life. At their feasts, as well as in all their other feasts, they were used for drinking to excess; and one of the chief promoters of health strength, and bravery; upon which account, they exerted themselves to the utmost in them, not only at feasts, and before battle, but even in their daily meals.

GERMANS, RELIGIOUS OPINIONS AND BARBARISM OF THE ANCIENT. As the ancients did not commit any thing to writing, none of the ancient writers have given us any account of it, it is impossible to guess how much of their great Woden, and his paradise, was received among them. It may have been older than the times of Tacitus, and we know nothing of it, from their care in their religion from strangers; but as they communicated their doctrines to posterity by songs and most of their northern poets tell us, have drawn their intelligence from poems, which were preserved among them, may justly suppose, that whatever doctrines were contained in them, were formerly propagated by the generality of the nation, especially their ancient practice conformable to it. The surest road to this paradise was, to perform great martial deeds, and to die intrepidly in the field; and as none were excluded from the rewards, and betrayers of their country were punished.

It is natural to think, that the signal and excessive bravery of the Germans flowed from this ancient belief of theirs: and, if their females were so brave and faithful, as not only to share with their husbands all the dangers and fatigues of war, but at length to follow them by a voluntary death, into the other world; it can hardly be attributed to any thing else but a strong persuasion of their being admitted to live with them in that place of bliss. This belief therefore, whether received originally from the ancient Celtes, or afterwards taught them by the since deified Woden, seems, from their general practice, to have been universally received by all the Germans, though they might differ one from another in their notions of that future life. The notion of a future happiness obtained by martial exploits, especially by dying sword-in-hand, made them bewail the fate of those who lived to old age, as dishonourable here, and hopeless hereafter: upon which account, they had a barbarous way of sending them into the other world, willing or not willing. And this custom is said to have lasted several ages even after their receiving Christianity, especially among the Prussians and Veneti. These murders were preceded by a fast and followed by a feast.

(5.) **GERMANS, STATURE, CHARACTER, AND MANNERS OF THE MODERN.** The modern Germans in their persons are tall and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape, that are so bewitching in Britain. Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England; but the superior ranks are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially those in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, who can obtain them. The female part of the burgher families, in many German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of Travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did 40 or 50 years ago. The peasants and labourers dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments and opulence. In Westphalia, and most other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, or rather the upper one of down, with sheets stretched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but, in general, the circumstances of the common people were far preferable to those of the French, before the revolution. The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and show. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert even in the field of battle.

But when commanded by able generals, especially Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both against the Turks and the French. The Imperial arms, it has been said, seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; but in the two last wars, as well as in the present, the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius. Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not visible, especially in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking; and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast abundance of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But these vices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely during dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee after 3 or 4 public toasts. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, &c. The German nobles are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, than of any other nation. The merchants and tradesmen are very obliging. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds. This perhaps is one reason, why the German husbands are not quite so complaisant as they ought otherwise to be to their ladies, who are not intitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being neither ambitious nor loquacious, though they are said to be fond of gaming. Many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds. The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet, lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by a horse of tag, set off with plumes of feathers, rings, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly

in the night time, servants ride before the sledges with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sled behind guides the horse.

(1.) GERMANTOWN, a town of New York in Columbia county, containing 316 citizens 1796.

(2.) GERMANTOWN, the name of two towns in North Carolina: 1. in Hyde county, New district: 2. the capital of Stokes county, a branch of the Dan, 523 miles SW. by S. of Philadelphia.

(3.) GERMANTOWN, a town of Pennsylvania Philadelphia county, chiefly inhabited by Germans. It has one principal street, mostly of stone buildings, 2 miles long, with Lutheran and Quaker churches, Quaker meeting house, &c. Stock are manufactured to a great extent, and there several tanneries. It is 7 miles N. of Philadelphia.

(4.) GERMANY, a very extensive empire in Europe, but which, in different ages, has had different limits. The name, according to the probable conjecture, is derived from the German words, *Ghar man*, signifying a warlike man, which their other name, *ALLMAN*, or *ALL*, likewise alludes.

(5.) GERMANY, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS AND TENT OF. The ancient history of the Germans altogether wrapped up in obscurity: nor do we, many ages, know any thing more of them, what we learn from the history of their wars, the Romans. The first time they are mentioned by the Roman historians, is about A. C. 100, when Marcellus subdued Insabria and Lusatia, and defeated the *Qesates*, a German nation living on the banks of the Rhine. From this time till the eruption of the Cimbri and Teutones, is silent with regard to all these northern nations, inhabited the most northerly parts of Germany. The event of their enterprise will be found recorded under the articles AMBRONES, CIMBRI, and TEUTONES. We must not, however, imagine, that these people invaded Italy at the same time, therefore their countries were contiguous. Cimbri and Teutones only dwelt beyond the Rhine; while the Ambrones inhabited the country between Switzerland and Provence. It is indeed very difficult to fix the limits of the country called Germany by the Romans. The southern Germans were intermixed with the Gauls, and northern ones with the Scythians; and the ancient history of the Germans includes the the Dacians, Huns, Goths, &c. till the destruction of the western Roman empire by them. As Germany, therefore, we may reckon to have included the northern part of France, the Netherlands, Holland, Germany so called at present, Prussia, Poland, Hungary, part of Transylvania, and Muscovy.

(6.) GERMANY, ANCIENT DIVISION OF. The Romans divided Germany into two regions, BELGIC or Lower Germany, which lay to the southward of the Rhine: and, 2. GERMANY PROPER or HIGH GERMANY.

I. GERMANY, BELGIC, or LOWER GERMANY, lay between the rivers Seine and the Rhine; in this we find a number of different nations, the most remarkable of which were the following: 1. The Ubi, whose territory lay between

rhine and the Mosæ, (or Mæse,) and whose capital was Cologne. 2. Next to them were the *Tungri*, supposed to be the same whom Cæsar calls *Eburones* and *Condrusi*; and whose metropolis, then called *Attuatica*, has since been named *Tonnes*. 3. Higher up from them, and on the other side of the Moselle, were the *Treviri*, whose capital was Augusta Trevirorum, now *Triers*. 4. Next to them were the *Tribocci*, *Nemetes*, and *Vandiones*. The former dwelt in Alsace, and had Argentoratum, now *Strasbourg*, for their capital: the others inhabited the cities of Worms, Spire, and Mentz. 5. The *Mediomatrici* were situated along the Moselle, about the city of Metz in Lorraine: and above them were situated another German nation, named *Raurici*, *Rauraci*, or *Rauriaci*, who inhabited that part of Helvetia, above Basil. To the W. and S. of these were the *Nervi*, *Suessones*, *Silmarer*, *Leuci*, *Rhemii*, *Lingones*, &c. who inhabited Belgic Gaul. Between the heads of the Rhine and Danube were seated the ancient kingdom of *Vindelicia*, whose capital was called *Augusta Vindelicorum*, now *Augsburg*. Below it, on the banks of the Danube were the kingdoms of *Noricum* and *Pannonia*. The first of these was divided into *Noricum Ripense* and *Mediterraneum*. It contained a great part of the provinces of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Tyrol, Bavaria, and the others of less note. The latter contained the kingdom of Hungary, divided into Upper and Lower; and extending from Illyricum to the Danube, and the mountains *Cætii* in the neighbourhood of *Vandobona*, now *Vienna*.

II. GERMANY, PROPER, UPPER, OR HIGH GERMANY, lay beyond the Rhine and Danube. Between the Rhine and Elbe were the following nations. 1. The *Chauci*, Upper and Lower; who were divided from each other by the river *Visurgis*, or the *Wefer*. Their country contained what is now called *Bremen*, *Lunenborg*, *Friesland*, and *Emmigen*. The upper Chauci had the *Cherusci*, and the lower the *Chamavi* on the SE. and the German Ocean on the NW. 2. The *Frisii*, upper and lower, were divided from the lower Chauci by the river *Amisia*, now the *Ems*; and from one another by an arm of the Rhine. Their country retains the name of *Friesland*, and is divided into *East* and *West*; but the latter has been long separated from Germany, as one of the Seven United Provinces, and now forms the department of *Fris* in the Batavian republic. 3. Beyond the *Amisia*, (now the *Yssel*), which bounded the country of the *Frisii*, were situated the *Bructeri*, who inhabited that tract now called *Broccmorland*; and the *Marfi*, about the river *Luppe*. On the other side of that river were the *Usippii* or *Uspites*; and these were famed for often changing their territories, and therefore found in other places. 4. Next to these were the *Juones*, or inhabitants of *Juverna*, between the Mæse and the Rhine. 5. The *Catti*, another ancient and warlike nation, inhabited Hesse and Thuringia, from the Haartzian mountains to the Rhine and Wefer; among whom were comprehended the *Mattiaci*, whose capital by some thought to be *Marpurg*, by others *Meissen*. 6. Next to these were the *Seducii* bordering upon Suabia; *Narisci*, or the ancient inhabitants of Northgow, whose capital was Nu-

remberg; and the *Marcomanni*, whose country anciently reached from the Rhine to the head of the Danube and to the Neckar. The *MARCOMANNI* afterwards went and settled in Bohemia and Moravia, under their general or king *Mirobodius*; and some of them in Gaul, whence they drove the *Boii*, who had settled themselves there. 7. On the other side of the Danube, and between the Rhine and it, where the *HERMUNDURI*, who possessed the country now called *Misia* in Upper Saxony; though some make their territories to have extended much farther, and to have reached to, or even beyond Bohemia, then the seat of the *Boii*, whence its name. 8. Beyond them, on the N. of the Danube, was another seat of the *Marcomanni* along the river *Albis*, or *Elbe*. 9. Next to Bohemia were situated the *QUADI*, whose territories extended from the Danube to Moravia, and the northern part of Austria. These are comprehended under the ancient name of *SUEVI*; part of whom at length forced their way into Spain, and settled a kingdom there. 10. Eastward of the *Quadi* were situated the *BASTARNÆ*, and parted from them by the *Granna*, now *Gran*, a river that falls into the Danube; and by the Carpathian mountains, from them called *Alpes Bastarnicæ*. The country of the *Bastarnæ* indeed made part of the European Sarmatia, and so was without the limits of Germany properly so called; but we find these people so often in league with the German nations, and joining them for the destruction of the Romans, that we cannot but account them as one people. Between those nations, seated along the other side of the Danube and the Hercynian forest, were several others whose exact situation is uncertain, viz. the *Martigni*, *Burii*, *Borades*, *Lygii*, or *Loxiones*, and some others, who are placed by our geographers along the forest above-mentioned, between the Danube and the *Vistula*. On this side the Hercynian forest, were the famed *RHÆTI*, (now *GRISONS*), seated among the Alps. Their country, which was also called *Western Illyricum*, was divided into *Rætia Prima* or *Propria*, and *Secunda*; and was then of much larger extent, spreading itself towards *Scythia*, *Bavaria*, and *Austria*. On the other side of the Hercynian forest were, 1. The *SUEVI*, who spread themselves from the *Vistula* to the river *Elbe*. 2. The *LONGOBARDI*, so called, according to some, on account of their wearing long beards; but according to others, on account of their consisting of two nations, viz. the *Bardi* and *Lingones*. These dwelt along the river *Elbe*, and bordered southward on the *Chauci* above-mentioned. 3. The *BURGUNDI*, of whose original seat we are uncertain. 4. The *Semnones*; who, about the time of *Tiberius*, were seated on the river *Elbe*. 5. The *ANGLES*, *SAXONS*, and *GOTHS*, were probably the descendants of the *Cimbri*; and inhabited the countries of Denmark, along the Baltic sea, and the peninsula of Scandinavia, containing Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Finmark. 6. The *VANDALS* were a Gothic nation, who, proceeding from Scandinavia, settled in the countries now called *Mecklenburgh* and *Brandenburgh*. 7. Of the same race were the *DACIANS*, who settled themselves in the neighbourhood of *Palus Mæotis*, and extended their territories along the banks of the Danube.

(4.) GERMANY, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, TILL CAESAR'S EXPEDITION. The above are the names of the German nations, who performed the most remarkable exploits in their wars with the Romans. We also find mention made of the SCORDISCI, a Thracian nation, who afterwards settled on the banks of the Danube. About A. A. C. 113, they ravaged Macedon, and cut off a whole Roman army sent against them; the general M. Porcius Cato, grandson to Cato the censor, being the only person who escaped. After this, they ravaged all Thessaly; and advanced to the coasts of the Adriatic, into which, because it stopped their further progress, they discharged a shower of darts. By another Roman general, however, they were driven back into their own country with great slaughter; and, soon after, Metellus so weakened them by repeated defeats, that they were incapable, for some time, of making any more attempts on the Roman provinces. At last, in the consulship of M. Livius Drusus and L. Calpurnius Piso, the former prevailed on them to pass the Danube, which thenceforth became the boundary between the Romans and them. Notwithstanding this, in the time of the Jugurthine war, the Scordisci repassed the Danube on the ice every winter, and being joined by the TAINALLI, a people of Lower Mœsia, and the Daci of Upper Mœsia, penetrated as far as Macedon, committing every where dreadful ravages. So early did these northern nations begin to be formidable to the Romans, even when they were most renowned for warlike exploits. Till the time of Julius Cæsar, however, we hear nothing more concerning the Germans.

(5.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM CAESAR'S EXPEDITION TO HIS DEATH. About A. A. C. 58, Cæsar undertook his expedition into Gaul; during which, his assistance was implored by the Ædui, against Ariovistus, a German prince who oppressed them. Cæsar, pleased with this opportunity of increasing his power, invited Ariovistus to an interview; but this being declined, he next sent deputies desiring him, to restore the hostages he had taken from the Ædui, and to bring no more troops over the Rhine into Gaul. To this a haughty answer was returned; and a battle soon after ensued, in which Ariovistus was entirely defeated, and with great difficulty made his escape. In A. A. C. 55, Cæsar having subdued the Suevones, Bellovaci, Ambiani, Nervii, and other nations of Belgic Gaul, hastened to oppose the Usipetes and Tencteri. These nations having been driven out of their own country by the Suevi, had crossed the Rhine with a design to settle in Gaul. As soon as he appeared, the Germans sent him a deputation, offering to join him, provided he would assign them lands. Cæsar replied, that there was no room in Gaul for them; but he would desire the Ubii to give them leave to settle among them. Upon this, they desired time to treat with the Ubii; but in the mean time fell upon some Roman squadrons: which so provoked Cæsar, that he immediately marched against them, and coming unexpectedly upon them, defeated them with great slaughter. They fled in the utmost confusion; but the Romans pursued them to the Rhine and the Maese, where they were renewed with such fury, that

about 400,000 of the Germans perished. At this, Cæsar, being resolved to spread the terror of the Roman name through Germany, built a bridge over the Rhine, and entered that country. In this expedition, however, which was his last in Germany, he performed no remarkable exploit. A little before his death, indeed, he had planned the conquest of that as well as of many other countries; but his assassination prevented the execution of these projects.

(6.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM CAESAR'S TIME, TILL THE DEATH OF DRUUS. Not farther is recorded of the Germans till about A. C. 17, when the TENCTERI made an invasion into Gaul, and defeated M. Lollius, procurator of that province. At last, however, they were repulsed, and forced to retire with great loss to the Rhine. Soon after this the Rheri invaded Italy, where they committed the greatest depredations, putting all the males they met to the sword without distinction of age; and when they began to take women with child, they compelled their husbands to know whether the child was male or female; and if they pronounced it a girl, the mother was immediately massacred. At this time these barbarians was sent Drusus, the second son of Livia, a youth of extraordinary valor and great accomplishments. He brought them to battle; in which the Romans proved victorious, and cut in pieces great numbers of them, with very little loss. Those who escaped the slaughter, being joined by the Vindelici, retired towards Gaul, with a design to invade that province. But Augustus, upon the notice of their march, dispatched against them Marcus with several chosen legions. He was not so successful as Drusus had been; for having transported his troops over the lake Rhenanum, to CONSTANCA, he fell unexpectedly on the enemy, gave them a total overthrow, took most of their strong holds, and obliged the whole nation to submit to his own terms. Tiberius, to keep the conquered countries in awe, planted two colonies in Vindelicia, and opened from thence a road to Rætia and Noricum. One of the cities to be built for the defence of his colonies, he called from his father Drusus, *Drusomagus*; the other by the name of Augustus, *Augusta Vindelicorum*, which cities are now known by the names of MÜNCHEN and AUGSBURG. He next engaged the Pannonians, who had been subdued by Agrippa, but revolted on hearing the news of that great commander's death, which happened A. A. C. 11. Tiberius, however, with the assistance of the Scordisci, soon forced them to submit. They delivered up their arms, and hostages, and put the Romans in possession of all their towns and strong holds. They spared their lives; but laid waste their lands, plundered their cities, and sent the best of their youth into other countries. In the same time, Drusus having prevented the Gauls from revolting, prepared to oppose the Germans who dwelt beyond the Rhine. They had collected the most numerous and formidable army that ever been seen in those parts; with which they were advancing towards the Rhine, when Drusus defeated them: so they attempted to

and, pursuing his advantage, entered of the Usipetes, now *Relinchusen*, and advanced against the Sicambri in the wood of the Lyppe and Yffel. There was a great battle, laid waste their most of their cities, and following the Rhine, approached the Germaning the Frisii and the Chauci between the Elbe. In these marches they were extremely for want of provisions;

himself was often in great danger of being killed, as the Romans who attended him were unacquainted with the flux and reflux of the river. The Roman forces went into their winter quarters; and next year (A. D. 12) Drusus marched against the Tencteri, easily subdued. Afterwards, passing (now the Lyppe) he reduced the Catuvunci, extending his conquests to the Visurgis (or Weser); which he would have done had he not been in want of provisions, having laid waste the whole country. Retiring, the Germans unexpectedly met him in a narrow passage; and having cut off the Roman army, cut a great number of pieces. But Drusus having animated them to a bloody conflict, which lasted till the Germans were defeated with such slaughter that the ground was strewed for several days with dead bodies. Drusus found in their camp a quantity of iron chains, which they had left for the Romans; and so great was their reverence, that they had agreed before the division of the booty. After this Drusus built two forts to keep the countries in awe; the one at the confluence of the Lyppe and the Alme, the other in the country of the Catti on the Rhine. He also made a canal, called in honour of him *Passus Drusi*, to convey the waters of the Rhine into the Elbe, which extended 8 miles; and was very convenient for conveying the Roman troops by water to the Frisii and Chauci. The emperor (A. A. C. 9.) Augustus, bent on the conquest of the whole of Germany, advanced to the Rhine, attended by Tiberius and the former he sent against the Daci, to the S. of the Danube; and the complete the conquest he had so success- in the western parts of Germany. He easily overcame the Daci, and transported them into Gaul. The latter, following the Rhine, subdued all the nations over to the Elbe; but having attempted to cross this last, he set out for Rome: never, was put to his conquests and violent fever, with which he was seized on his return.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM DRUSUS'S DEATH TO THAT OF VARUS. After the death of Drusus, Tiberius again over-ran all those countries which Drusus had spent the preceding year in conquering, and struck some of the northern nations in error, that they sent deputies to sue for peace. This, however, they could not obtain; the emperor declaring that he would not conclude a peace with one, unless they should first submit to him.

the Sicambri, could not be prevailed upon to submit; so that the war was carried on, though in a languid manner, for about 18 years. During this period, some of the German nations had quitted their forests, and begun to live in a civilized manner under the protection of the Romans; but Quintilius Varus being sent to command the Roman forces in that country, he so provoked the inhabitants by his extortions, that not only those who still held out refused to submit, but even the nations that had submitted were seized with an eager desire of throwing off the yoke. Among these was a young chieftain of extraordinary parts and valour, named *Arminius*. He was the son of Sigimer, one of the most powerful chiefs among the Catti, had served with great reputation in the Roman armies, and been honoured by Augustus with the privileges of a Roman citizen, and the title of knight. But his patriotism prevailing over his gratitude, he resolved to improve the general discontent among his countrymen, to deliver them from the Roman yoke. With this view he engaged, underhand, the leading men of all the nations between the Rhine and the Elbe, in a conspiracy against the Romans. To put Varus off his guard, he advised him to show himself to the inhabitants of the more distant provinces, administer justice among them, and accustom them to live after the Roman manner. Varus, being a man of a peaceable temper, readily consented to this insidious proposal; and, leaving the neighbourhood of the Rhine, marched into the country of the Cherusci. Having there spent some time in hearing causes, Arminius persuaded him to weaken his army, by sending out detachments to clear the country of robbers. This done, some distant nations of Germany rose up in arms by Arminius's directions; while those through which Varus was to pass in marching against them, pretended to be in a state of tranquillity, and ready to join the Romans against their enemies. On the first news of the revolt, Varus marched against the enemy with three legions and six cohorts; but being attacked by the Germans as he passed through a wood, his army was almost totally cut off, while he himself and most of his officers fell by their own hands.

(8.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GERMANICUS'S FIRST EXPEDITION TO HIS RETURN. This terrible overthrow, though it raised a general consternation in Rome, did not, however, cause Augustus to abandon his enterprise. About two years after (A. D. 12), Tiberius and Germanicus were appointed to command in Germany. The death of Augustus, which happened soon after, prevented Tiberius from going on his expedition; and Germanicus was for some time hindered from proceeding in his, by a revolt of the legions, first in Pannonia, and then in Germany. About A. D. 15, Germanicus having brought over the soldiers to their duty, laid a bridge across the Rhine, over which he marched 12,000 legionaries, 26 cohorts of the allies, and 8 alæ (squadrons of 300 each) of horse. With these he first traversed the Cœsian forest (part of the Hercynian, supposed to lie partly in the duchy of Cleves, and partly in Westphalia), and some other woods. On his march, he was informed, that

that the Marſi were celebrating a feſtival with great mirth and jollity. Upon this he advanced with ſuch expedition, that he ſurprized them in the miſt of their debauch; a terrible maſſacre enſued, and the country was deſtroyed with fire and ſword for 50 miles round, without the loſs of a ſingle man on the part of the Romans. This general maſſacre roused the Bructeri, the Tumbantes, and the Ulipetes; who beſetting the paſſes through which the Roman army was to return, fell upon the rear, and put them into diſorder; but the Romans ſoon recovered themſelves, and defeated the Germans with conſiderable loſs. The following year, (A. D. 16.) Germanicus, taking advantage of ſome intestine broils which happened among the Catti, entered their country, where he put great numbers to the ſword. Moſt of their youth, however, eſcaped by ſwimming over the Adrana, (now the Eder,) and attempted to prevent the Romans from laying a bridge over that river: but being diſappointed in this, ſome of them ſubmitted to Germanicus, while the greater part, abandoning their villages, took refuge in the woods; ſo that the Romans, without oppoſition, ſet fire to all their towns, and villages; and having burnt their capital, began their march back to the Rhine. Germanicus had ſcarce reached his camp, when he received a meſſage from Segestes, a German prince, in the intereſt of the Romans, acquainting him that he was beſieged in his camp by Arminius. On this he inſtantly marched againſt the beſiegers, entirely defeated them, and took a great number of priſoners; among whom was Thuſfeldis, the wife of Arminius, and daughter of Segestes, whom the former had carried off, and married againſt her father's will. Arminius then, more enraged than ever, for the loſs of his wife, whom he tenderly loved, ſtirred up all the neighbouring nations againſt the Romans. Germanicus to avoid engaging ſuch numerous forces at once, detached his lieutenant Cæcina, at the head of 40 cohorts, into the territories of the Bructeri; his cavalry, under the command of Pedito, entered the country of the Friſii; while he himſelf embarked the remainder of his army, conſiſting of four legions, on a neighbouring lake; and tranſported them by rivers and canals to the place appointed on the Ems, where the three bodies met. In their march they found the ſad remains of the legions conducted by Varus, which they buried with all the ceremony their circumſtances could admit. After this they advanced againſt Arminius, who retired and poſted himſelf advantageuſly cloſe to a wood. The Roman general coming up with him, ordered his cavalry to advance and attack the enemy. Arminius, at their firſt approach, pretended to fly; but ſuddenly wheeled about, and giving the ſignal to a body of troops, whom he had concealed in the wood, to ruſh out, obliged the cavalry to give ground. The cohorts then advanced to their relief; but they too were put into diſorder, and would have been puſhed into a moras, had not Germanicus himſelf advanced with the reſt of the cavalry to their relief. Arminius did not think it prudent to engage theſe freſh troops, but retired in good order; upon which Germanicus alſo retired towards the Ems. Here he embarked with four

legions, ordered Cæcina to reſound four by land, and ſent the cavalry to march along the ſhore. Though Cæcina was to return by known, yet Germanicus adviſed him to go with all poſſible ſpeed, a cauſeway, called the *Weg*, which led acroſs vaſt marſhes, on all ſides with woods and hills. He having got notice of this, arrived at the ſame place before him, and filled the woods with his troops, who, on the approach of the Romans, and attacked them with great fury. The Romans were obliged to yield; and would have been entirely defeated, had not night put an end to the combat. The Germans, encouraged by ſucceſs, inſtead of ſleeping ſpent the night in diverting the courſes of the rivulets in the neighbouring mountains; ſo that, the next day, the camp of the Romans was ſurrounded by water, and their works were overturned. At laſt reſolved to attack the enemy by land, and having driven them to their tents, he ſent them there, till the baggage and what ſhould paſs the cauſeway, and get on my's reach. But when his army was ſtationed, and occupied a field beyond the legions poſted on the wings, Cæcina followed them, but the baggage was ſtuck in the mire, as he attempted to croſs, which greatly embarraſſed the ſoldiers. Perceiving this, began the attack, and ſaid, "This is a ſecond Varus, the ſame to him and his legions," fell on the Romans with expreſſible fury. As he had ordered his aim chiefly at the horſes, great numbers were killed; and the ground became ſtrewed with their blood, the reſt either fell on their knees, or galloping through the rain in diſorder. Cæcina diſtinguiſhed himſelf but his horſe being killed, he would have been taken priſoner, had not the ſirſt legions ſaved him. The avarice of the enemy, however, ſaved the Romans from deſtruction; for juſt as the legions were quite ſpent, and on the point of ſurrendering, the Germans ſuddenly abandoned their baggage. During this reſt the Romans ſtruggled out of the marſh, and ed the dry fields, formed a camp with ſpeed. The Germans having thus loſt the opportunity of deſtroying the Romans, conſulted the advice of Arminius, attacked them the next morning, but were repulſed with great ſucceſs, after which they gave Cæcina no more trouble till he reached the banks of the Rhine. In the mean time, having collected his legions he had with him down the Rhine, to return by ſea to the Rhine, ſending his veſſels overloaded, delivered 14th legions to P. Vitellius, deſiring him to ſend them by land. But this march to great numbers, who were either killed by quickſands, or ſwallowed up by the tide, to which they were as yet unaccuſtomed. Thoſe who eſcaped, loſt their arms, and provisions; and paſſed a melancholy and ſhort journey, which they had gained up to the chin. The next morning

y a hasty march, reached the USINGIS, (he thought to be the HOERENSTER,) on the city of Groningen stands. There Ger-
is, who had reached that river with his
look the legions again on board, and con-
them to the mouth of the Rhine, whence
returned to Cologne, where it was report-
y were totally lost.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GERMA-
NUS'S RETURN TO HIS DECISIVE VICTORY
ARMINIUS. This expedition cost the Ro-
very dear, and procured very few advan-

Great numbers of men had perished; and
most part of those who had escaped so ma-
jors returned without arms, utensils, hor-
se, half naked, lamed, and unfit for service.
Next year, however, Germanicus, bent on the
reduction of Germany, made vast prepara-
for another expedition. Having found that
Germans were chiefly indebted for their safety
to woods and marshes, their short summers
and long winters; and that his troops suffered
more from their tedious marches than from the e-
nemy, he resolved to enter the country by sea,
thus to begin the campaign earlier, and
surprise the enemy. Having therefore built 1000
ships with great dispatch, during winter, he
sent them early in the spring, (A. D. 16.) to
the Rhine; and appointed the island of
Batavians for the general rendezvous of his
fleet.

When the fleet was sailing, he detached
one of his lieutenants, with orders to make
an irruption into the country of the Catti;
in the mean time, he himself, upon hearing
a Roman fort on the Lupias was besieged,
sent with six legions to its relief. Silius was
prevented, by sudden rains, from doing more than
take some booty, with the wife and daughter of
the king of the Catti; neither did those who
besieged the fort wait the arrival of Germanicus.
In the mean time, the fleet arriving at the island
of Batavians, the provisions and warlike en-
sues were put on board and sent forward; ships
assigned to the legions and allies; and the
army being embarked, the fleet entered the
strait formerly cut by Drusus, and from his name
called *Fretum Drusianum*. Hence he sailed prosper-
ously to the mouth of the Ems; where, having
his troops, he marched directly to the Weser,
where he found Arminius encamped on the op-
posite bank, and determined to dispute his passage.
The next day Arminius drew out his troops in or-
der for battle: but Germanicus, not thinking it
wise to attack them, ordered the horse to
pass under the command of his lieutenants
Silius and Emilius; who, to divide the ene-
my's forces, crossed the river in two different
places.

At the same time Carvalda, the leader
of the Batavian auxiliaries, crossed the river where
the most rapid: but being drawn into an am-
bush, he was killed, together with most of the
nobility; and the rest would have been
cut off, had not Stertinius and Emilius
come to their assistance. Germanicus in the
evening passed the river without molestation.
Soon after ensued; in which the Germans
were killed with so great a slaughter that the
river was covered with arms and dead bodies

for more than 10 miles round: and among the
spoils taken on this occasion, were found, as for-
merly, the chains with which the Germans had
hoped to bind their captives.

(10.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GER-
MANICUS'S VICTORY, TO THE INVASION BY THE
DACIANS. In memory of this signal victory,
Germanicus raised a mount, upon which he plac-
ed as trophies the arms of the enemy, and inscrib-
ed underneath the names of the conquered na-
tions. This so provoked the Germans, though
already vanquished and determined to abandon
their country, that they attacked the Roman ar-
my unexpectedly on its march, and put them in-
to some disorder. Being repulsed, they encamp-
ed between a river and a large forest surrounded
by a marsh except on one side, where it was in-
closed by a broad rampart formerly raised by the
Angrivarii as a barrier between them and the
Cherusci. Here another battle ensued; in which
the Germans behaved with great bravery, but in
the end were defeated with great slaughter. Af-
ter this second defeat, the Angrivarii submitted, and
were taken under the protection of the Romans,
and Germanicus put an end to the campaign.
Some of the legions he sent to their winter- quar-
ters by land, while he himself embarked with the
rest on the river Ems, in order to return by sea.
The ocean proved at first very calm, and the
wind favourable: but all of a sudden a storm aris-
ing, the fleet, consisting of 1000 vessels, was dis-
persed: some of them were swallowed up by the
waves; others were dashed in pieces against the
rocks, or driven upon remote and inhospitable
islands, where the men either perished by famine,
or lived upon the flesh of the dead horses with which
the shores soon appeared strewed; for, in order
to lighten their vessels, and disengage them from
the shoals, they had been obliged to throw over-
board their horses and beasts of burden, nay,
even their arms and baggage. Most of the men,
however, were saved, and even great part of the
fleet recovered. Some of them were driven upon
the coast of Britain; but the petty kings who
reigned there generously sent them back. On the
news of this misfortune, the Catti, taking new
courage, ran to arms; but Caius Silius being de-
tached against them with 30,000 foot and 3000
horse, kept them in awe. Germanicus himself,
at the head of a numerous body, made a sudden
irruption into the territories of the Marfi, where
he recovered one of Varus's eagles, and having
laid waste the country, he returned to the fron-
tiers of Germany, and put his troops into winter
quarters; whence it was soon recalled by Tibe-
rius, and never suffered to return into Germany
again. After the departure of Germanicus, the
more northern nations of Germany were no more
molested by the Romans. Arminius carried on a
long and successful war with Maroboduus king of
the Marcomanni, whom he at last expelled, and
forced to apply to the Romans for assistance; but,
excepting Germanicus, it seems they had at this
time no other general capable of opposing Armi-
nius, so that Maroboduus was never restored.
After the final departure of the Romans, how-
ever, Arminius having attempted to enslave his
country, fell by the treachery of his own kindred.

The Germans held his memory in great veneration; and Tacitus informs us, that in his time they still celebrated him in their songs. Nothing remarkable occurs in the history of Germany from this time till the reign of Claudius I. A war indeed is said to have been carried on by Lucius Domitius, the father of Nero. But of his exploits we know nothing more than that he penetrated beyond the river Elbe, and led his army farther into the country than any of the Romans had ever done. In the reign of Claudius, however, the German territories were invaded by Ca. Domitius Corbulo, one of the greatest generals of his age. But when he was on the point of forcing them to submit to the Roman yoke, he was recalled by Claudius, who was jealous of the reputation he had acquired. In the reign of Vespasian, a terrible revolt happened among the Batavians and those German nations who had submitted to the Romans; an account of which will be found under the article *ROME*. The revolted were with difficulty subdued; but, in the reign of Domitian, the Dacians invaded the empire, and proved a more terrible enemy than any of the other German nations had been.

(II.) *GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DACIAN INVASION TO THE DEATH OF DECEBALUS.* After repeated defeats, Domitian was at last obliged to consent to pay an annual tribute to Decebalus king of the Dacians; which continued to the time of Trajan. But this warlike prince refused to pay tribute; alleging, when it was demanded of him, that "he had never been conquered by Decebalus." Upon this the Dacians passed the Danube, and began to commit hostilities in the Roman territories. Trajan, glad of this opportunity to humble an enemy whom he began to fear, drew together a great army, and marched with the utmost expedition to the banks of the Danube. As Decebalus was not apprised of his arrival, the emperor passed the river without opposition, and entering Dacia, laid waste the country. At last he was met by Decebalus with a numerous army. A bloody engagement ensued, in which the Dacians were defeated; though the victory cost the Romans dear: the wounded were so numerous, that they wanted linen to bind up their wounds; and to supply the defect, the emperor generously devoted his own wardrobe. After the victory, he pursued Decebalus from place to place, and at last obliged him to consent to a peace on the following terms: 1. That he should surrender the territories which he had unjustly taken from the neighbouring nations. 2. That he should deliver up his arms, his warlike engines, with the artificers who made them, and all the Roman deserters. 3. That for the future he should entertain no deserters, nor take into his service the natives of any country subject to Rome. 4. That he should dismantle all his fortresses, castles, and strong holds. And, lastly, that he should have the same friends and foes with the Romans. This peace was of short duration. Four years after, (A. D. 105), Decebalus began to raise men, provide arms, entertain deserters, fortify his castles, and invite the neighbouring nations to join him against the Romans as a common enemy.

The Scythians hearkened to his call, but the Jazyges, a neighbouring tribe, refusing to bear arms against Rome, decided their country. Hereupon Trajan marched against him; but the Dacian, being unable to withstand him by open force, recourse to treachery, and assassinated the emperor murdered. His design proved abortive, and Trajan pursued him into Dacia. That his troops might easily pass and repass the Danube, he celebrated a bridge over that river. See *TURKEY, INDEX*. To guard the bridge two castles to be built; one on each bank. Trajan, however, as the season advanced, did not enter Dacia this year, contented himself with making the preparations. Early in the next spring, Trajan set out for Dacia; and having passed the Danube by the new bridge, reduced the country, and would have taken Decebalus himself had he not put an end to his own life by falling into the hands of the Romans.

(12.) *GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF DECEBALUS, TO THAT OF AURELIUS.* After the death of Decebalus was reduced to a Roman province, several castles were built in it, and garrisons sent to keep the country in awe. At the death of Trajan, the Roman empire declined, and the northern nations became more formidable. Dacia indeed was not the Romans till the reign of Gallienus, who succeeded Trajan, caused the bridge over the Danube to be broken, lest the barbarians should make themselves masters of it, and invade the Roman territories. At the time of Marcus Aurelius, the Marcomanni and Quadi invaded the empire, and emperor a terrible overthrow. He fought a war, however, with better success, and invaded their country in his turn. During this war that the Roman army has been saved from destruction, by that event related under the article *CHARS*. In the end, the Marcomanni and Quadi, after repeated defeats, brought to the verge of ruin; insomuch that their country would have been reduced to a Roman province. Marcus Aurelius been diverted from his conquests by the revolt of one of his sons.

(13.) *GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF M. AURELIUS, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE.* After the death of Aurelius, the Germanic nations became more and more formidable to the Romans, from being able to invade and attempt the conquest of these northern countries, the greatest difficulty to repress the violence of their inhabitants. But for a particular their various invasions of the Roman empire, its total destruction by them at last. The immediate destroyers of the Romans were the Huns; who, under their leader, dethroned Augustulus the last Roman emperor, and proclaimed Odoacer king of Italy, 476. The Heruli were soon expelled

hs; and these in their turn were subdued by Justinian I, who re-annexed Italy to the eastern empire. But the popes found means to obtain temporal as well as spiritual jurisdiction over a considerable part of the country, while the Lombards subdued the rest. These last proved very troublesome to the popes, and at length besieged them in their capital. In this distress he applied to Charles the Great king of France; who conquered both Italy and Germany, and was crowned emperor of the west, A.D. 800. See FRANCE, § 13—15.

§ 15. GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE BY CHARLEMAGNE, TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF ITS PRESENT CONSTITUTION. The extensive empire erected by Charlemagne the Great, which he himself imprudently attempted to divide among his sons during his own life, (see FRANCE, § 1, 16.) was not long enjoyed by his posterity. In France the Carlovingian race continued to reign for 183 years after Charlemagne; but in Germany, it continued only 104 years, producing within that period 6 emperors: Lewis I. his son, Lothair I, and Lewis II. his sons; Charles II, his great-grandson; Lewis III, son of Charles II, and Charles III, who was deposed in 888. The history of these unfortunate emperors is related under the article FRANCE, § 1, 16. On the deposition of Charles III, the German princes resumed their ancient independence; and, rejecting the Carlovingian race, (according to some: elected Arnulph, king of Pomerania. Others, however, say, this Arnulph was the son of Carloman, a descendant of Charlemagne. As it may, he reigned 12 years, and conquered his rival Guido, or Guy, who had been in opposition to him, and crowned king of Germany, by pope Formosus in 892; who also, on the death of Guy, next year, crowned his son Lambert. Arnulph, however, reigned till 899, when he died, and was succeeded by his son Lewis, from whom some stile the last of the male line of Charlemagne. Upon his death, in 911, the nobles elected Otho, duke of Saxony, but he being old, recommended CONRAD, duke of Franconia, whom they elected accordingly in 912. Conrad dying, recommended to their election, Henry I, surnamed the Fowler, the son of Otho. Henry conquered the Danes, Huns, Vandals, and Bohemians, and was succeeded in 937 by his son OTHO I, surnamed the Great; who after reigning 26 years king of Germany, was crowned emperor in 962. Thus he reigned other 10 years; and in 973, was succeeded by his son, Otho II; who dying in 983, was succeeded by his son Otho III, a boy of 3 years of age. The reigns of most of these monarchs contain little remarkable, except their contests with the popes; for which see ITALY. What immediately merits attention is the progress of the empire in Germany, which was in a great measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire erected by Charlemagne fell asunder, all the independent princes retained the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of *electors* had no legal or moral right to appoint a successor to the emperor. They were only the officers of the emperor's or king's household, his secretary, steward, &c.

ard, chaplain, marshal, or master of horse, &c. By degrees, however, as they lived near his person, and had independent territories of their own, they increased their influence and authority; and in the election of Otho III, A.D. 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus, while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the people's jurisdiction.

(15.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE IMPERIAL CONSTITUTION, TO THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA. Upon the death of Otho III, in 1001, an interregnum of 4 months ensued; after which the princes elected Henry II, surnamed *the Lamb*, the grandson of Henry I, who reigned 23 years. Of this emperor's successors, till the accession of the house of Austria, it is only necessary here to give a brief chronological list, as their most important transactions will be noticed under the article ITALY. Conrad II, surnamed *Salicus*, the son of Herman, duke of Franconia, was elected in 1024; (see CONRAD II;) and after reigning near 15 years, was succeeded, in 1039, by his son Henry III; who, in 1056, was succeeded by his son Henry IV, though not without opposition, from Rodolph of Suabia, and Herman of Luxemburg. Henry IV, after having reigned no less than 50 years, was deposed in 1106, by his unnatural son Henry V; on whose death in 1125, Lothaire II, duke of Saxony, was elected. He died in 1137, and next year, the diet chose CONRAD III, duke of Franconia, the son of Frederic, duke of Suabia. He was succeeded in 1152, by his brother Frederic I, surnamed *Barbarossa*, who having embarked against the infidels, and taken Iconium, was drowned in Syria, in 1190. He was succeeded by his son, Henry VI, who behaved so villainously to Richard I. of England, (see ENGLAND, § 24,) and who was at last poisoned by his wife, Constance, and succeeded by his son, Otho IV, in 1197. But a party of the princes having chosen Philip, duke of Suabia, Henry's brother, a civil war ensued, which ended in favour of Otho, Philip being assassinated in 1208. But 4 years after, Otho was deposed, and Frederic II, his younger brother, then king of Sicily, was elected emperor, and crowned by pope Honorius III, in 1220. Having afterwards offended pope Gregory IX, by making peace with the Sultan of Babylon, Frederic was excommunicated, which gave rise to the factions of the *Guelphs* and *Gibelines*, who by their inveterate virulence against each other, disturbed the empire for several ages. See GUELPHS. Conrad IV. was elected emperor on the death of his father Frederic II, in 1250. See CONRAD IV. He died 4 years after, and was supposed to have been poisoned. His son was still more unfortunate. See CONRAD, N° 6. After an interregnum of two years, Richard, duke of Cornwall, brother to Henry III, king of England, was elected emperor, in 1257; but that prince residing mostly in England, Alphonso X, king of Castile, was elected in opposition to him. See ALPHONSO X.

VII. OF Luxembourg was then elected, upon whose death in 1313, an interregnum of a year took place, when Lewis V, the son of Lewis D. of Bavaria, by Matilda daughter of Rodolph I, was chosen by one party of the electors, and Frederic, the son of Albert I, by another. But Frederic, being taken prisoner, was obliged to renounce his dignity; and Lewis, being killed by a fall from his horse, in 1347, was succeeded by his other competitor, Charles IV, the son of John, king of Bohemia, and grandson of Henry VII. This prince was a great encourager of learning, and in his reign the golden bull, establishing the Germanic constitution, was given by Pope Innocent VI, in 1356. Charles, dying in 1378, was succeeded by his son Wenceslaus, who was twice imprisoned by the Bohemians, and at last deposed in 1400, when Rupert, Prince Palatine, was elected. Rupert was succeeded in 1410, by Jodocus Margrave of Moravia, who, in 1411, was displaced by Sigismund, K. of Hungary and Bohemia, the son of Charles IV. Albert II, D. of Austria, having married this monarch's daughter, succeeded him in all his dominions in 1437, but reigned only two years. His son Frederic III, archduke of Austria, &c. was elected emperor in 1440; and from this period the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for 300 years. His successor Maximilian I. married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy; whereby Burgundy and the 17 provinces of the Netherlands were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor, A. D. 1519. Under him MEXICO and PERU were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the REFORMATION in several parts of Germany; which, however, was not confirmed by authority till 1648, at the treaty of Westphalia.

(17.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE RE-

to much divided, as to threaten a civil war. His ambition, however, was to reconcile them; but the Bohemians refused, and threw the imperial committee out of the window at Prague. This gave rise to a long and bloody war, which lasted 30 years. Matthias, who had attempted to have exterminated both parties; and who had formed a confederacy, called the *Erasmian League*, which was counterbalanced by a Catholic League, died in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin FERDINAND II.; but the Bohemians refused to give him their crown, and offered it to Frederic the elector of Saxony, the most powerful Protestant prince, and son in law to K. James I. The emperor was so imprudent as to accept of the crown, and lost it, being entirely defeated by the Protestants at Prague; and he was even deprived of his Bohemian electorate, the best part of which was given to the elector of Bavaria. The Protestant princes, however, had among them at this time several able commanders, who were at the head of the army, and continued the war with wonder. Among these were the margrave of Brandenburg, Christian duke of Brunswick, and Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, in the field. Christian IV. king of Denmark, was also engaged in them; and Richelieu, the French minister, was not fond of seeing the house of Austria so weakened. The emperor, on the other hand, had several excellent generals; and Christian, having been defeated by Tilly, an Imperialist of great reputation. The Protestants formed a new confederacy at Leipzig, of which the emperor's cousin, GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS king of Sweden, was the head. An account of his glorious victories is given under the article SWEDEN. At last he was killed at the battle of Lutzen in 1632. The Protestant cause did not die with him. F

with both. Lewis XIV. had the two generals Condé and Turenne in his service; the latter had already distinguished himself by exploits against the Spaniards; and, in possession of Leopold, the court of France saw the opportunity of confirming the treaty of 1664, and attaching to her interest several elector-princes of Germany. The tranquillity now took place, however, was not upon any permanent basis. War with Spain broke out in 1668; and the great successes of Louis in the Netherlands excited the ambition of Condé, to attempt the conquest of Compiègne, then under the protection of the Emperor of Austria. This was accomplished in 1677: but the rapid success of Lewis had excited the jealousy of his neighbours to such a degree, that a league was formed against him by Holland, and Sweden; and the French, dreading to enter the lists with such formidable enemies, consented to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which, among other articles, Compiègne was restored.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, TO THAT OF UTRECHT. The flames of war were soon renewed by the insatiable ambition of Lewis XIV; who, entering into an alliance with Charles II. of England, aimed at the total overthrow of the Dutch Republic. The event of that war will be related under the article UNITED PROVINCES.

The misfortunes of the Dutch excited the compassion of the emperor and king of Spain, who declared themselves their allies. Turenne was opposed by the prince of Orange and the celebrated general Montecuculi, whose artful conduct eluded even the penetrating eye of Turenne. He sat down suddenly before Bonn, which was joined by the prince of Orange, who defied the vigilance of the French.

Bonn soon surrendered, and several others in Cologne fell into the hands of the French. He likewise cut off the communication between France and the United Provinces; so that they were soon obliged to recall his armies, and all his conquests with greater rapidity had been made. In 1674 he was defeated by his ally Charles II. of England, and the emperor and elector of Cologne were constrained to renounce their allegiance to him; but notwithstanding these misfortunes, he continued to make head against his enemies, and effected new conquests. With a powerful army he invaded Franche Comté in person, and in a few weeks reduced the whole province to obedience. In Alsace, Turenne defeated the emperor's general at Sintzheim, and ravaged the country; surprised 70,000 Germans; cut in considerable detachment at Mulhausen; defeated the elector of Brandenburg, who had been sent with the chief command, near Colmar; and gave a similar fate at Turkheim; and the whole German forces at last to evacuate the province and repass the Rhine. In consequence of these disasters Montecuculi was recalled to oppose Turenne. The military skill of the two commanders seemed to be nearly equal; but the French superiority could be adjudged to either,

Turenne was killed by a cannon ball, in reconnoitering a situation for erecting a battery. By his death the Imperialists obtained a decided superiority. Montecuculi penetrated into Alsace; and the French, under de Lorges, nephew to the deceased general, were happy in being able to avoid a defeat. Part of the German army now sat down before Treves, where they were opposed by Marschal Crequi; but his negligence exposed him to such a dreadful defeat, that he was obliged to fly into the city with only 4 attendants. Here he endeavoured in vain to animate the people to a vigorous defence. The garrison mutinied, and, when he refused to sign the capitulation they made, delivered him up prisoner to the enemy. Lewis in the mean time had taken the field in person against the prince of Orange; but the disastrous state of affairs in Germany induced him to recall the prince of Condé to make head against Montecuculi. In this campaign the prince seemed to have the advantage. He compelled the Germans to raise the sieges of Hagenau and Saverne; and at last to repass the Rhine without having been able to force him to a battle. This was the last campaign made by these celebrated commanders; both of whom now retired from the field to spend the remainder of their days in peace. The excellent discipline, however, which the two great French generals had introduced into their armies, still continued to make them very formidable. In Germany, the duke of Lorraine, who had recovered Philipsburgh, was repeatedly defeated by Marschal Crequi, who had been ransomed. In Flanders, the prince of Orange was overmatched by the duke of Orleans and Marschal Luxemburg. A peace was at length concluded at Nimeguen in 1679, by which Lewis secured Franche Comté with many cities in the Netherlands; while the king of Sweden was reinstated in those places of which he had been stripped by the Danes and Germans. This tranquillity, however, was of short duration. Lewis prepared for new conquests; possessed himself of Strasburg by treachery; and dispossessed the Elector Palatine and the Elector of Treves of the lordships of Falkenburg, Germansheim, and Valdeutz. On the most frivolous pretences he had demanded Alost from the Spaniards; and on their refusal, seized upon Luxemburg. His conduct, in short, was so intolerable, that the prince of Orange, his inveterate enemy, found means to unite the whole empire in a league against him. Spain and Holland became parties in the same cause; and Sweden and Denmark seemed also inclined to accede to the general confederacy. Notwithstanding this formidable combination, Lewis seemed still to have the advantage. He made himself master of Philipsburg, Mannheim, Frankendal, Spire, Worms, and Oppenheim; the palatinate was ravaged dreadfully; the towns were reduced to ashes; and the people, driven from their habitations, were left to perish through the inclemency of the weather and want of provisions. By this cruelty his enemies were rather exasperated than vanquished: the Imperialists, under the duke of Lorraine, resumed their courage, and put a stop to the French conquests. At length all parties, weary of a destructive war, consented to the treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

(20.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE TREATY OF RYSWICK TO THAT OF UTRECHT. By the treaty of Ryswick, Lewis XIV. gave up to the empire, Fribourg, Brisac, Kehl, and Philippsburg; and consented to destroy the fortifications of Strasburg. Fort Louis and Trarbach, the works of which had exhausted the skill of the great Vauban, with Lorrain, Treves, and the Palatinate, were resigned to their respective princes; inasmuch that the terms to which he now consented, after so many victories, were such as could scarce have been expected under the pressure of the greatest misfortunes. The views of Lewis, however, in consenting to this apparently humiliating treaty, were beyond the views of ordinary politicians. The health of the king of Spain was in such a declining way, that his death appeared to be at hand; and Lewis now resolved to renew his pretensions to that kingdom, which he had formerly by treaty solemnly renounced. His designs in this respect could not be concealed from the vigilance of William III. of Britain; of which Lewis being sensible, and knowing that the emperor had claims of the same nature on Spain, he entered into a very extraordinary treaty with William. This was no less than the partition of the whole Spanish dominions, in the following manner: To the young prince of Bavaria were to be assigned Spain and the E. Indies; the dauphin, son to Lewis, was to have Naples, Sicily, and the province of Guipuscoa; while the archduke Charles, son to Leopold, was to have only the duchy of Milan. By this scandalous treaty the indignation of Charles was roused, so that he bequeathed the whole of his dominions to the prince of Bavaria. This scheme, however, was disconcerted by the sudden death of the prince; upon which a new treaty of partition was concluded between Lewis and William. By this the kingdom of Spain, with the E. India territories, were to be bestowed on the Archduke Charles, and the duchy of Milan upon the duke of Lorrain. The last moments of the Spanish monarch were disturbed by the intrigues of the rival houses of Austria and Bourbon; but the haughtiness of the Austrian ministers so disgusted those of Spain, that they prevailed upon their dying monarch to make a new will. By this the whole of his dominions were bequeathed to Philip duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV; who, prompted by his ambition, accepted the kingdom bequeathed to his grandson, excusing himself to his allies in the best manner he could for departing from his engagements. For this, however, he was made to pay dear. His insatiable ambition and his former successes had alarmed all Europe. The Emperor, the Dutch, and the king of England, entered into a new confederacy against him; and a bloody war ensued which threatened to overthrow the French monarchy entirely. While this war (of which an account is given under ENGLAND, § 69—74.) was carried on with such success, the emperor Leopold died in 1705. He was succeeded by his son JOSEPH I., who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being ill served by Prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the

success he expected or deserved. Joseph was suspected of a design to subvert the liberties; and it was plain by his conduct he expected England should take the oar in the war, which was to be entire for his benefit. The English were disappointed and selfishness; but he died in he had reduced the Hungarians; and male issue, was succeeded by his brother VI., whom the allies were endeavouring on the throne of Spain, in opposition to the duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

(21.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF. TREATY OF UTRECHT, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES VI. When the peace of Utrecht was made in 1713, Charles at first made a design to continue the war; but found himself that he was forsaken by the British, who before was obliged to conclude a peace at Baden in 1714, that he might attack the Turks in Hungary; who had obtained a total defeat from Prince Eugene at Peterwaradin. They received a victory of equal importance from the same general before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists; and next year the peace of Rastatt, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his dominions in Italy and the M. Happily for him, the crown of Britain was transferred to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in European negotiations between George I. and II. of Great Britain. Charles was sensible of this; and matters went so high a head, that in 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between George I. and the emperor, which was the cause of all over Europe at that time, the powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to the former. It is sufficient to observe here, that the Hanoverians, and its allies, were the object of the British animosity; and that it was the establishment of the present dynasty, and the fear of his death, for the late emperor, having no male issue, settled his dominions upon his youngest son, who was then between George II. and Charles VI.; the elector of Saxony, married with the daughter of the throne of Poland, reigned in the Austrian succession. The emperor had very bad success in a war with which he had undertaken chiefly for himself for the great trouble he had to the house of Bourbon. Prince then died, and he had no male issue. The system of France, by Cardinal Fleury, expanded to the point obtained for him, from the Turks, was more than he had reason to expect. On the death of the German and other powers early in his death, given his eldest daughter, who afterwards empress queen, in the duke of Lorrain, a prince who succeeded in power to the Austrian died in 1740.

(22.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM

Charles VI. was no sooner in the grave than ad so long laboured for must have been own, had it not been for the firmness of II. The young king of Prussia entered conquered Silesia, which he said had been ably dismembered from his family. The Spain and elector of Bavaria set up claims incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, his they were joined by France; though powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The throne, after a considerable vacancy, was by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title les VII, in Jan. 1742. The French poured nies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; Q. of Hungary, to take off Prussia, ceded nce the most valuable part of the duchy a by a formal treaty. Her youth, her beautifullings, and the fortitude with which she sm, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, ose arms she threw herself and her young id though they had been long remarkable r disaffection to the house of Austria, they d unanimously in her favour. Her geneve the French out of Bohemia; and K. of II. at the head of an English and Hano-army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in Charles VII. was at this time miserable on perial throne, and would have given the of Hungary almost her own terms; but she ily and impolitically rejected all accommod-though advised to it by his Britannic majestbest and indeed only friend. This obstive a colour to the king of Prussia to invade ia, under pretence of supporting the imperity; but though he took Prague, and subne greatest part of the kingdom, he was orted by the French; upon which he aded all his conquests and retired into Silesia. rent confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of ry: who came to an accommodation with perer, that she might recover Silesia. He on after in 1745, and FRANCIS I, D. of 3, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to en of Hungary, after surmounting some es, was chosen emperor.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, UNDER FRAN- The bad success of the allies against the and Prussians in the Low Countries, and of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the oas of the empress queen against the K. of . The latter beat the emperor's brother, arles of Lorraine, who had before driven the us out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the e-queen, was such, that his Britannic majesty a proper to guarantee to him the possession ia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, the king ita, alleging that he had discovered a secret tion between the empress-queen, the emf Russia, and the king of Poland, to strip his dominions and to divide them among res, suddenly drove the king of Poland out ony, defeated his troops, and took posses- Dresden; which he held till a treaty was under the mediation of king George II. ch the king of Prussia acknowledged Fran- or emperor. The war, however, continu- ce Low Countries, to the disadvantage and t of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was fi-

nished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles all former differences between these two monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000 l. to Frederick during the war. The flames of war now broke out in Germany with more violence than ever. The armies of his Prussian majesty, like an irresistible torrent burst in Saxony; totally defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz; forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impreguably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony to flee to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, the K. of Prussia was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of Frederick on this occasion is the most amazing to be met with in history: for a particular account of which, see PRUSSIA. At last, however, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, was on the point of completing his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died Jan. 5, 1762. George II, his only ally died on the 25th Oct. 1760. The deaths of these illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III, sought to finish the war with honour, and Peter III. of Russia, recalled his armies. Frederick the Great was, notwithstanding, so much reduced, that the empress-queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of other German princes, to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and the new successes obtained by the king of Prussia, at last prevailed on her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertshburgh, which secured to Frederick the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of her husband, in 1762, her son Joseph II. who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him.

(24.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, UNDER JOSEPH II. This prince shewed an active and restless disposition, much inclined to extend his territories by conquest, and to make reformations in the internal policy of his dominions, yet without taking any proper methods for accomplishing his purposes. Hence he was almost always disappointed; insomuch that he at last wrote for himself the following epitaph: "Here lies Joseph, unfortunate in all his undertakings." In 1788, a war commenced betwixt him and the king of Prussia; in which, notwithstanding the impetuous valour of that monarch, Joseph acted with such caution, that his adversary could gain no advantage over him;

court procured their possessors an influence over other members, and their general residence there gave them a solid advantage in their constant and early presence at the diet of election. For in times of turbulence several emperors were elected, when princes had not an opportunity to attend. And hence sprang up a faction to that right, which the high officers of the household had assumed, of electing without any consultation of the other members of the empire. Pope Gregory X. too, either conceiving that they did possess, or willing that they should acquire, this right, exhorted them in a bull to terminate the troubles of Germany by electing an emperor. And since that period they have been held as the sole electors. But the possession of this high power was strengthened by a league amongst themselves called the *electoral union*, which received additional confirmation from the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, and was formally and fully ratified by that famous constitution of Charles IV. termed the *golden bull*; according to which, the territories and the high offices by which the electoral dignity is conveyed, must descend according to the right of primogeniture, and are indivisible. The golden bull declares the number and titles of the electors. (See ELECTORS, § 3.) And this number cannot be increased by the emperor without a previous election by the electors themselves; who, being thus capable of electing and of being elected, may style themselves *Coemperatores*; and they actually exercise part of the imperial authority, when a vacancy happens. But when or before this occurs, the election of the emperor is proceeded to after the following manner: The elector of Mentz, within a month after the emperor's death, summons, as great chancellor of the empire, the rest of the electors to attend on some fixed day within the space of three months from the date of the summons. The electors generally send their ambassadors to the place of election, which is held at Frankfort on the Mayne; but saving the right of that city, it may be held elsewhere. When the diet of electors is assembled, they proceed to compose the capitulation, to which the emperor when elected is to swear. The capitulation being adjusted, the elector of Mentz appoints a day for the election. On that day, the gates of the city are shut, and the keys delivered to the elector of Mentz. The electors or their ambassadors, who are catholics, repair in great pomp to mass: and after its celebration they take a solemn oath to choose, unbiassed and uninfluenced, the person that appears most proper for the imperial dignity. After this they repair to the sacristy, where the elector of Mentz asks, if there be any impediment known against their proceeding at present to an election; and next obtains a promise, that the person elected by the majority shall be received as emperor. The declarations of the electoral ambassadors, on these two points, are recorded by two notaries. Then all witnesses withdraw; and the elector of Mentz collecting the suffrages, which are given *crâmes*, and giving his own last, the witnesses are recalled, and he declares the person chosen. But the election is not complete, nor is the new emperor proclaimed, until the capitulation be sworn

to, either by himself or by his ambassador absent. From this time he is styled *Romanus* until the coronation takes place. The ceremony confers the title of emperor, according to the golden bull, it should be at Aix la Chapelle, out of respect to Charlemagne who resided there; but saving the right city, it may take place elsewhere. The election is performed by the Abp. of Mentz, archbishop of Cologne. And when he is seated on the throne, the duke of Saxony delivers into the sword of Charles the Great, with which he makes some knights of the holy Roman empire, and confers that honour upon such others nominated by the respective electors. The election proceeds to dinner in the great hall, where at a table elevated two steps higher than the electors, and is served by counts of the empire. The electors, each of whom has a table, are attended by the gentlemen of the respective courts. During the reign of an emperor, his presumptive successor may be elected by the Romans. But by an express article of the capitulation, the king of the Romans swears not to interfere with the government during the emperor's life; but on his decease, he confirms him emperor without a second election. When the king of the Romans has been elected, and the throne becomes vacant, the government is administered by the vicars of the emperor, who are the electors Palatine and of Saxony, the palatine and archbishop of the empire, the archbishop of Mainz, and the archbishop of Cologne, who has his district, and tribunal of the vicars by the golden bull all acts of the vicars, but they are afterwards confirmed by the emperor; which confirmation, by his capitulation, he is bound to give. There are also vicars of the emperor, constituted by a delegation of power to any prince of the empire, when he is unable to execute it himself. But these vicars are accountable to the emperor; their acts are null and their offices revoked, being contrary to the will of the emperor. When Charlemagne ceased to govern in Germany, the princes and states associated to continue the empire; and to choose an emperor. From that time all electors and princes, except the emperor, receive investiture of their counties and free cities from the Archbishop of Mainz. But this investiture is only a sign of subordination to the majesty of the empire, which is due to the emperor. For as the electors and princes of the empire are dependent on that college from which they derive protection, they shew this dependence on the emperor, who represents the majesty of that union or empire; but in all other respects they are independent and free. These princes or sovereigns even wage war with the prince wearing the imperial crown, as possessed of other titles, and unconnected with his imperial rank. The sovereignty of any member is as long as he remains loyal to the emperor, whose loyalty constitutes his duty, and secures his protection. But should he be guilty of rebellion against the emperor, as head of the empire, such a crime would commit him to the punishment of its laws, and he would be put

For this crime would be against that collective body of sovereigns whose union constitutes the empire; and therefore any violation of that union is justly punished with deprivation of these prerogatives which render such sovereigns members of the empire. Nor can this punishment of the emperor derogate from the dignity of those princes who derive their sovereignty from this constitution, whose subjection is an act of their own consent; never, no member of the empire can be put under the ban without being first heard, and without the concurrence of the electors, princes, and states, being previously obtained. The diet is that assembly of the states in which the legislative power of the empire resides; and is composed of the electors, princes, prelates, counts, and cities of the empire. It has sat since 1663, and is held usually at Ratisbon. The emperor, in present, presides in person; when absent, his commissary, whose communication of proposals from the emperor to the assembly is called *imperial decree*. The elector of Mentz, as chancellor of the empire, is director of the diet; to his chancery are all things addressed, that are to be submitted to the empire; the reading of which by his secretary, to the secretaries of the other ministers at the diet, is denominated *per litteras*, and constitutes the form of transmitting orders or memorials to the dictature of the empire. The diet is composed of three distinct colleges, each of which has its particular director. The first is that of electors; of which the abp. of Mentz is the first elector. The 2d is that of princes, which consists of princes, archbishops, and bishops; prelates, abbots, and counts, who are not considered as princes. Each prince spiritual and temporal has a vote, but prelates and counts vote by benches. The prelates are divided into two benches, the counts into four; and each bench has only one vote. The archduke of Austria and the abp. of Salzburg are alternately directors of the college of princes. The 3d college is that of the cities of the empire; the director of which is the minister of the city in which the diet happens to sit. In all these colleges, the sentiments of the majority are decisive, except in respect of fundamental laws, which affect the whole empire, in which matters as relate to religion. In these matters must be unanimous. Where religion is concerned, the proceedings are also different. The diet is then considered as consisting of two colleges, the evangetic and the catholic; and if a religious point be proposed, it must meet not only the unanimous concurrence of the proposing college, but must have the majority of the other to confirm it. This distinction arose from a constitution called the *evangetic body*; which was established by the Protestant states and princes to protect the Protestant interest in Germany, by binding over the laws for the security of their religion, and, in case of violation, by obtaining redress from the imperial throne. For in any part of the empire, where the count is a Papist and the princes are Protestants, should oppressions arise, petition would be made to the evangetic body, and not to the director. The elector of Saxony is the head of the evangetic body, though he is a Papist, but therefore his representations in favour

of the Protestants have the more force; and besides, should he abuse an office which invests him with considerable weight and influence, he could be instantly deprived of it. The first two colleges are styled superior, and in effect constitute the diet: for all points that come before the diet, are generally first deliberated in the college of electors, and pass from that to the college of princes; in which, if any objection arise, a free conference takes place between the directors of each college. And should they, in consequence of this free conference, concur, they invite the 3d college to accede to their joint opinion; which invitation is generally complied with: but should this college return a refusal, the opinion of the other two colleges is in some few cases engrossed in the chancery, and delivered to the emperor's commissary as the opinion of the empire. The opinion of the 3d college is merely mentioned at the close. However, though the superior colleges do in effect constitute the diet; yet the received maxim is, that no two colleges constitute a majority, that is, the majority of voices at the diet; nor can the emperor confirm the opinion of two colleges as an opinion of the diet. By the peace of Westphalia, a decisive vote was recognized as a right of the imperial cities, which the two superior colleges should not infringe upon: their vote being, by the fundamental law, of equal weight with that of the electors and princes. After a measure is approved by the colleges, it is submitted to the emperor, to receive his negative or confirmation. Should he approve the point, it is published in his name as the resolution of the empire, which states are exhorted to obey, and tribunals desired to consider as such. The diet not only makes and explains laws, but decides ambiguous cases. It must also be consulted before war is made; appoints the field-marshal who is to command the army, and assigns him his council of war. The diet also enters into and makes alliances, but usually empowers the emperor to negotiate them; and foreign states have their ambassadors at the diet, but the diet sends no ministers to foreign courts. See § 33, 35, and 36.

(33.) GERMANY, MODERN GOVERNMENT OF. In the commencement of the empire, justice was administered in the districts of the provinces by counts, and appeals lay from their courts to that of the emperor before the count palatinate. But as civil broils shook the power of the emperor, they interrupted also the course of justice. The consequent inconveniences caused several solicitations to be preferred from the states to different emperors for the establishment of a court of justice, which should take cognizance of great as well as small causes. And at length such a court was erected by Maximilian I. under the title of the *Imperial Chamber at Worms*, in 1495; but was removed to Spire in 1533, and to Wetzlar in 1696, where it is now held. The members of this court are a judge of the chamber and 25 assessors, partly Protestants partly Papists. The president is appointed by the emperor, the assessors by the states. The court receives appeals from inferior jurisdictions, and decides dubious titles; and all causes before it between princes and princes, or princes and private persons, are adjudged

according to the laws of the respective parties, or according to the Imperial law. This tribunal is under the inspection of visitors appointed by the states; and, during their visitation, the sentences of the court are subject to revision. Appeals lie afterward also from the judgment of the visitors, to that of the diet. The emperors finding themselves deprived of many of their powers, wished to raise their prerogatives by forming a tribunal, of which they should name the judges, and before which causes in the last resort should come. But Maximilian forelaw, in respect to the new tribunal, that though a consciousness of its importance made the states struggle for its erection, the enforcements of its establishment would make them neglect its support; and the event bore witness to his sagacity. But when, through the commission and negligence of the states, there happened to be a cessation in the distribution of justice by the Imperial chamber, he revived his project of the count Palatine, or AULIC COUNCIL. And in order to gain the quiet acquiescence of the states, under the mask of a partition of power, and of generous moderation, he desired them to add 8 to the number of assessors, and the salaries of all should be discharged by him. The states swallowed the bait, but soon perceived that they had lost part of their liberty. The emperor, by keeping the tribunal always open, by filling its seats with men of first-rate talents, and by having its sentences duly and speedily executed, drew all causes before it. The states remonstrated, declaring, that the Imperial chamber ought to be not only the supreme, but sole tribunal of that kind. The emperor answered, that he had erected the Imperial chamber in consequence of their solicitations; but as they had not supplied the tribunal with judges, he provided for that deficiency by a constant administration of justice in the establishment of another. The Aulic council now subsists with equal authority, each receiving appeals from interior jurisdictions; but neither appealing to the other, as the *derrière resort* from both must be had to the diet. However, to the Aulic council belong the reserved rights of the emperor; and to the Imperial chamber also are annexed peculiar powers. The Imperial chamber subsists during a vacancy of the throne, under the authority of the vicars of the empire; whereas the Aulic council does not exist until appointed by the succeeding emperor. The Aulic council consists of a president, vice-president, and 17 assessors, of whom 6 are Protestants. The vice-chancellor of the empire is also intitled to a seat; and all decrees issuing from the council pass through his hands to those who are to execute them. This tribunal obtains for the emperor, through the appeals from the courts of other princes, a new authority beside that which he possesses from his reserved rights; but electors and some princes, as those of Hanover, Austria, Brunswick, Swedish Pomerania, and Hesse, are free from this dependence on the emperor, in whose Aulic council their subjects cannot appeal; nor can it take cognizance of ecclesiastical or criminal causes, both of which appertain to territorial justice; which we shall presently consider. The division of the empire into circles is a regulation coeval with the establishment of the Imperial chamber

by Maximilian, in order to strengthen justice with vigour to enforce its due original division was into six circles, called the *ancient circles*. These are Franconia, Suabia, Lower Saxony, per Rhine, and Westphalia; but the princes, who at first declined bringing them under the form of circles, were obliged, at the request of the emperor, to adopt them, and increase the number to ten, the four new circles of Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, and Upper Saxony. Over these preside directors, to whom the princes commit the execution of their decrees. The old circles have two directors each, the new have one each. The office of director is not hereditary, as it belongs to the first prince in the circle, upon whom high authority; for all the decrees of the Imperial chamber and Aulic council avail, unless the director will execute them. The directors of the circles are not only of war but of peace; for in case of imperial war, they are to collect the troops of the circle; and if any state or prince of the empire suffers violation from others, they are to yield protection and enforce the law. Should there be any tumultuous spirit among the people, the suppression of such disorders is their duty. The emperor is the executive in the whole empire; the directors are such executive parts called circles; the security of which being at stake, the presidents must hold frequent diets of the respective circles, to consult on and adopt measures for their safety and welfare; interests of those near to us are generally blended with our own, that neither can be pursued without the concurrence of both, there arise negotiations between the circles, which are therefore called *negotiating circles*; and these negotiations being managed by the electors of the Upper and Lower Westphalia, they are denominated *negotiating circles*.

(34.) GERMANY, POPULATION OF. Total population before the present war estimated at 30 millions.

(35.) GERMANY, POWERS OF THE EMPEROR. The emperor, though his power is reduced, (See § 32 and 33.) still enjoys a great deal, and his power partly appears in his reserved rights, or the peculiar powers annexed to the imperial dignity. He invests the investiture of their dominions; this he is bound as the law directs, to do, but promises that they shall be only on such persons as will maintain the title; and can support their rank. He can count on the power or privilege of election alone. But in some instances even of high importance. For the descendants are incapable of succession, if their inferior rank to their father; but the acquisition of a title ennobles her and removes the collateral line conflicts. The emperor

id universities, grant the privilege of holding. He can also dispute with the tedious minority, and empower princes to assume or age the government of their own do-

He decides all rank and precedence, power of *primæ preces*, that is, of grant-ice in every chapter of the empire a va-

But he is not above the law; for the ave not only chosen but deposed empe- however, the capitulation is intended to uch rigorous proceedings: but should ulation be violated, the electors might o remonstrance; and if these remonstran- l be without effect, in conjunction with hey might resort to more forcible reme- § 32.

GERMANY, POWERS OF THE PRINCES ry prince is sovereign in his own coun- may enter into alliances, and pursue by al measures his own private interest, as reigns do; for if even an Imperial war ed, he may remain neuter if the safety pire be not at stake. Each state or io- ppoints in general three colleges for its nt. The first is the *geheimderath*, or ncil; the second is the *regierung*, or re- he third the *rentkammer*, or chamber of

Each of these has a president; and a of the first college is always president of id. The *geheimderath* represents the id superintends the other two. The re- gulates limits of territories, holds coun- with other princes, and is in most coun- urt of justice: however, in some states lso a court of justice called *justitz departe*- nd besides the right of conferences assign- regering by the sovereign, when there es between princes, there is also an *au*- arbitration, appointed to decide them.

must be paid to this privilege of prin- must be called on to appoint an austrage ort be had to the Imperial tribunal, but there still lies an appeal from the judg- he austrage. The *rentkammer* attends ulation of domains and estates, to the

revenues, and management of the taxes. ereign or prince is arbitrary in laws of ut not of revenue; for no new tax or n be laid on his country without the con- e nobles and subjects. For this purpose, *tag*, or day on which his subjects are vened, which is once in the period of re years, and at no other time can he them, he calls together the nobles and ries or deputies of the towns of his domi- he nobles usually attend in person, but representatives. To this assembly the oposes the taxes, &c. and a majority of poses of the measures. Villages, though le, send no deputies to this assembly; hey are either already represented by ective lords, or because they rank too g in a state of vassalage when compared ; for their inhabitants must mend high- l can be impressed as soldiers; from both inhabitants of towns are exempt. On tag, the respective quotas also of each

place are fixed, in order to discharge the prince's contingent in case of an imperial war.

(37.) GERMANY, RELIGIONS ESTABLISHED IN. The 3 religions principally established in the empire are the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Calvinist. The first prevails in the dominions of the emperor, in the ecclesiastical electorates, and in Bavaria; the 2d in the Circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, great part of Westphalia, Franconia, Suabia, the Upper Rhine, and in most of the Imperial towns; and the 3d in the dominions of the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and of some other princes. But Christians of almost every denomination are tolerated in many parts of the empire, and there is a multitude of Jews in all the great towns. The Romish superior clergy consist of 8 archbishops, and 40 bishops. The Protestant clergy are governed by consistories under the sovereign prince of each state.

(38.) GERMANY, REVENUE OF. The actual revenue of all Germany has been calculated at nearly 18,000,000l. Sterling, or 100 millions of dollars. The revenue of the emperor, in time of peace, is only about 20,000 crowns, being the contributions of a few imperial towns; but in case of war, extraordinary aids, called *Roman months*, laid on by the diet, are contributed by the different circles, at the following rate for raising 1½ millions of florins, viz.

	Florins.	Xtr.
Upper Saxony	156,360	15
Lower Saxony	156,360	15
Westphalia	156,360	15
Upper Rhine	161,411	30
Lower Rhine	105,654	5
Franconia	113,481	25
Austria	306,390	20
Bavaria	91,261	5
Suabia	156,360	15

Total 1,343,539 25

The ci-devant circle of Burgundy or Belgium formerly contributed 156,360 fl. 15 Xtr.

(39.) GERMANY, RIVERS OF. The principal rivers of Germany are the Danube, Elbe, Maine, Oder, Rhine, and Weiser.

(40.) GERMANY, SOIL, CLIMATE AND PRODUCE OF. From the great extent of the empire, every variety of soil and climate is to be met with; but it is upon the whole more fertile than otherwise; and in general temperate and healthy. The middle parts are most productive in corn and cattle; the southern abound with excellent wines and fruits, and grain of all kinds. The northern parts, from their coldness, are rather unfavourable to vegetation: yet agriculture throughout improves exceedingly.

(41.) GERMANY, STATE OF LITERATURE IN. Literature is at present in a very advanced state throughout almost all Germany, but particularly in the Protestant states. It is but about half a century since the German language has been purified and cultivated; since which various works of taste and elegance, as well as superior productions in the different sciences, particularly in the dramatic line, have appeared in it.

(42.) GERMANY, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN. The number of towns in the empire, before the

way, has been estimated at upwards of 2,300; and that of the villages at 80,000.

(43.) GERMANY, TRADE OF. From the central situation of Germany, its commerce with the rest of Europe is very extensive. Its minerals are decidedly the first native articles for trade; after which its medicinal waters, salt, hemp, flax, linen, silk, wines, fruits, corn, cattle, huffs, cloths, timber, porcelain, wrought iron and steel, drugs, oils and colours, are the principal. The French artizans, exiled by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, enabled Germany to stand in no need of the wrought silks of other countries. Great commercial fairs flourish in Germany.

(44.) GERMANY, UNIVERSITIES, &c. IN. There are 38 universities in Germany; 19 Protestant, 17 Catholic, and two which partake of both; besides a number of literary societies and academic institutions: and education in general is particularly attended to even in the very lowest ranks.

(II.) GERMANY, a township of the United States, in York county, Pennsylvania.

(1.) * GERME. *n. f.* [germen, Latin.] A sprout or shoot; that part which grows and spreads. — Whether it be not made out of the *germe*, or treadle of the egg, doth seem of lesser doubt. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

(2.) GERME, among shipping, a kind of bark used in the shallows on the coast of Egypt, as drawing but little water. They are strong and well built; but have no decks. They have one, 2, or 3 masts according to their sizes. The yards are fixed to the top of the masts, and, as well as the sails, are unmanageable from below. To effect the smallest change, the seaman must go aloft. The burden of these boats is 3 or 6 tons. They are chiefly used to convey goods from Alexandria to Rosetta. In two of these awkward and unmanageable boats, Mr Bray, the carpenter of the *Tigre*, worked two 68 pound carronades with great effect, under Sir Sidney Smith, in 1799.

(1.) GERMEN, the seed-bud; See BOTANY, *Index*. In assimilating the vegetable and animal kingdoms, Linnæus denominates the germen, the *ovarium* or *uterus* of plants; and affirms its existence to be chiefly at the time of the dispersion of the male dust by the antheræ; as, after its impregnation, it becomes a seed-vessel.

(2.) GERMEN, by Pliny and the ancient botanists is used to signify a bud containing the rudiments of the leaves. See GEMMA.

GERMERSHEIM, a town of Germany, lately in the Palatinate of the Rhine, now included in the French republic, and dept. of Mont Tonnere. It was erected into a town by Rodolph I, who died in it, in 1190. It was taken in Jan. 1794, by the French; who, however, were defeated near it, on the 29th May, 1794, by the Austrians, with the loss of 1000 men: 400 being killed and 600 taken prisoners. It is seated at the confluence of the Queich and the Rhine, 5 miles S. of Spire, and 5 W. of Philipsburg.

(1.) GERMIGNY, a town of France, in the dept. of Yonne, 3 miles SE. of St Florentin.

(2.) GERMINGY, a town of France, in the dept. of Seine and Marne, 3 miles E. of Meux.

* GERMIN. *n. f.* [germen, Lat.] A shooting or sprouting seed. Out of use.—

Though palaces and pyramids do
Their heads to their foundations;
treasure

Of nature's *germins* tumble all tops
Even 'till destruction heken; answer
To what I ask you. *Shaks.*

Thou all-shaking thoud
Strike flat the thick rotundity o' th
Creak nature's mould; all *germins*
That wake ingrateful morn. *Shaks.*

GERMINAL, from *germin*, Lat.
to bud or spring, *g. d.* the spring month
month in the new French calendar.
March 21st, and ends April 19th.

* To GERMINATE. *v. n.* [*germ*
To sprout; to shoot; to bud; to
This action is furthered by the chak
hath within a spirit that will put forth
note, as we see in the chymical trials,
Hoff — The seeds of all kinds of *vege*
planted near the surface of the earth,
niet soil, amongst matter proper for it
of vegetables, would *germinate*, grow
ple with the fact of the earth. *Woodes*

(1.) * GERMINATION. *n. f.* [*germ*
French, from *germinate*.] The act
or shooting; growth. — For accelerati
on, we shall handle the subject of
rally. *Bacon*. — The Duke of Buckingh
this kind of *germination*; and surely,
a plant, he would have been reckoned
forte nascentes. *Wotton* — There is be
lutue between a tedious humidity,
germinations. *Glans*. *Scepis*. — Suppo
should be carried to the great distanc
there the whole globe would be one t
there would be no life, no *germinatio*

(2.) GERMINATION, among botanist
prehends the precise time which the s
rise after they have been committed
The different species of seeds are long
in rising, according to the degree of h
proper to each. Millet, wheat, and f
grasses, rise in one day; blite, spr
mustard, kidney-beans, turnips, and
days; lettuce and dill, in 4; cucum
melon and cress, in 5; radish and
barley, in 7; orach, in 8; purslane,
bage, in 10; hyssop, in 30; parsley, in 4
peach, almond, walnut, chestnut, pe
poppy, hyssop, and ranunculus
one year; rose bush, cornel tree, haw
lar, and hazel nut, in two. The se
species of orchis, and of some liliaceo
ver rise at all. Some seeds require t
almost as soon as they are ripe, other
not sprout or germinate. Of this l
seeds of coffee and fraxinella. Other
ly those of the pea-bloom flowers, p
germinating faculty for a series of ye
danfon asserts, that the sensitive plant
virtue for 30 or 40 years. Air and w
agents of germination. The humidit
alone makes several seeds to rise that
to it. Seeds too are observed to ri
without the intervention of earth; bu
out air is insufficient. Mr Homberg's
on this head are decisive. He put

an exhausted receiver of an air-pump, with establish something certain on the causation. Some of them did not rise at all; greatest part of those which did, made weak and feeble productions. Thus it is for air that seeds, which are buried at a very depth in the earth, either thrive but indifferently or do not rise at all. They frequently preserve, however, their germinating virtue for many years in the bowels of the earth; and it is usual, upon a piece of ground being newly ploughed to considerable depth, to observe it soon adorned with several plants, which had not been there in the memory of man. Were this frequently repeated, it would doubtless be a means of recovering certain species of plants which are regarded as lost; or which perhaps have been unknown to the knowledge of botanists. Some seeds require a greater quantity of air than others. The turnip, for instance, which does not rise till after lettuce has done so, rises before it *in vacuo*; and both will grow out little, or perish altogether, while cress will grow as freely as in the open air.

GERMINATION, CHEMICAL EXPERIMENTS ON. The late discoveries in chemistry, have thrown much light on this subject. In 1793, Humboldt discovered, that simple metallic acids are not favourable to the germination of seeds, but that metallic oxyds favour it in proportion to their degree of oxidation. This led him to search for a substance with which oxygen might be so weakly combined as to be easily separated, and he tried oxygenated muriatic acid diluted with water. Cresses (See *LEPIDIUM*), when placed in this acid threw germs at the end of 6 days, and in common water at the end of 32 days. The action of the acid on the vegetable is announced by a great number of air-bubbles covering the seeds, which did not take up water till the end of from 50 to 45 days. These experiments, published in Humboldt's *Flora Subterranea Fribergensis*, and in his *Lectures on the Chemical Physiology of Plants*, have been repeated by Messrs Ullar, Plenck, Willdenow, &c. See *Dictionnaire de Physique, par Gebelin*. They were made at a temperature of from 50° to 60° of Reaumur. In 1796, Humboldt made new experiments, and found that, by joining oxygen to oxygenated muriatic acid, vegetation was still more accelerated. He threw equal quantities of the seeds of cresses into pure water and oxygenated muriatic acid, at a temperature of 58° F. Cresses germinated in the acid in 3 hours, but in the water till the end of 26 hours. In the muriatic or sulphuric acid, there was no germ, though according to the experiments of Berzelius, the nitric acid accelerates germination, when greatly diluted with water. Prof. Sprengel caused the seed of a new species of *ORBITA* to germinate in oxygenated mud, though taken from Bocconi's collected plants, 110 or 120 years old. Jacquin Vander Schott at Vienna threw into oxygenated muriatic acid all the old seeds, which had been kept 20 or 30 years at the botanical gardens, every attempt to produce vegetation in them proved fruitless, and the greater part of them even the hardest seeds germinated. Among

these were the yellow bonduc, or nickar tree, (See *GUILANDINA*, N° 1.) the pigeon pea, (See *CYTISUS*, N° 2.) the *Dodonaea Angustifolia*, the climbing mimosa, (See *MIMOSA*, N° 19.) and some new species of the *HOPEA*. There are now shewn at Vienna very valuable plants, which are entirely raised by the oxygenated muriatic acid, and are from 5 to 8 inches high. Humboldt made the *clusia rosea* to germinate, the seeds of which had been brought from the Bahama islands by Boose, and had resisted every previous effort to make them vegetate. For this purpose he used a new process, which will be easier for gardeners who cannot procure the oxygenated muriatic acid. He formed a paste by mixing the seeds with the black oxyd of manganese, and then poured over it the muriatic acid diluted with water, in the proportion of half a cubic inch of the acid to 3 of water. The vessel containing this mixture must be covered, but not shut close, lest it should burst. At the temperature of 95°, the muriatic acid becomes strongly oxydated; the oxygenated muriatic gas which is disengaged passes through the seeds; and during this passage the irritation of the vegetable fibres takes place. *Philos. Mag.*

GERMISCH, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Freysing, 21 miles S. of Weilheim.

GERMOR, a village in Cornwall.

GERMS, a town of Austria, 4 m. W. of Zwettl.

(1.) **GERN**, a town of Bavaria, 15 miles W. NW. of Brannau.

(2.) **GERN**, a town of Russia, 28 m. SW. of Tula.

GERNOI, a fort of Russian Siberia, in Koliwan, on the Irtysh. Lon. 96° E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 44. N.

GERNRODE, an abbey of Saxony, founded in 960; 22 m. W. of Bernburg, and 30 of Dessau.

GERNSHEIM, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of Mont Tonnerre, lately in the electorate of Mentz, seated on the Rhine, 18 miles SSE. of Mentz.

GERNYOSZEG, a town of Transylvania.

GERODA, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, 8 miles NE. of Duderstadt.

GERODOT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aube, 9 miles E. of Troyes.

GEROLDSECK HOHEN, a castle and county of Suabia. The castle is seated on the Kinzig, 3 miles SSE. of Gensfenbach.

GEROLDSGRUN, a village of Franconia, in Bayreuth, 4 miles SW. of Lichtenberg.

(1.) **GEROLDSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the late county of Blankenheim, now included in the French republic, and dep. of the Rhine and Moselle: seated on the Kill, 14 miles N. of Treves.

(2.) **GEROLDSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 7 miles S. of Nastede.

GEROLTZHOFFEN, a town of Franconia, in the bishopric of Wurzburg, 30 miles NE. of Wurzburg.

GERON, or **GERON POINT**, a cape of Ireland, in Antrim county, 15 miles NE. of Antrim, and 32 N. of Belfast. Lon. 5. 50. W. Lat. 55. 3. N.

GERONA, **GIRONA**, or **GIRONNA**, an ancient town of Spain, in Catalonia, and a bishop's see. In 1694, it was taken by the French and restored at the peace of Ryswick. In 1705, it was taken by

by the Austrians, and in 1711, it was again taken by the French, under the D. of Noailles. It is situated on a hill, near the Onhal, 44 miles S. of Perpignan, and 47 NE. of Barcelona. Lon. 2. 52. E. Lat. 42. 10. N.

GERONICON, [from *geron*, Gr. an old man.] a book famous among the modern Greeks, containing the lives of the ancient monks.

GERONTES, [from *geron*,] in antiquity, a kind of judges, or magistrates, in ancient Sparta, answering to what the Areopagites were at Athens. See AREOPAGUS. The senate of gerontes was called GERUSIA, i. e. the assembly or council of old men. They were originally instituted by Lycurgus: their number, according to some, was 28; and, according to others, 32. They governed in conjunction with the king, whose authority they were intended to balance, and to watch over the interests of the people. Polybius defines their office in few words, when he says, *per ipsos, & cum ipsis, omnia administrari*. None were admitted into this office under 60 years of age, and they held it for life. They were succeeded by the EPHORI.

GERONTIC, *adj.* belonging to old men.

GEROPOGON, in botany, a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is paleaceous, with the points of the paleæ sharp or bristly; the calyx is simple; the seeds of the disc have a feathered pappus; those of the radius have a pappus of five awns.

GERRETZ. See REMBRANDT.

(1.) GERRI, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 37 miles N. of Balaguer.

(2.) GERRI, a town of Nubia, on the Nile, 130 miles NNE. of Sennar. Lon. 30. 34. E. Lat. 16. 15. N.

GERRISH, an island of the United States, on the coast of the district of Maine.

GERRISHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and duchy of Berg, 4 miles E. of Dusseldorp.

GERRY, a township of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, containing 14,000 acres, and 740 citizens, in 1795: 30 miles NW. of Worcester and 65 of Boston.

(1.) GERS, a department of France, bounded on the N. by those of Landes, and Lot and Garonne; on the E. by that of Upper Garonne; on the S. by those of the Upper and Lower Pyrenees; and on the W. by that of Landes. It includes the ci-devant provinces of Armagnac and Gascony; and extends 25 miles in length, and from 22 to 45 in breadth. Agen is the capital.

(2.) GERS, a river of France, which rises in the dept. of the Upper Pyrenees, crosses and gives name to that of the Gers, N. and falls into the Garonne, 3 miles S. of Agen.

(1.) GERSAHL, a district of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Schwytz, which, before the late revolution, was a republic of itself, though only 6 miles long and 3 broad, and containing but 1000 citizens.

(2.) GERSAHL, the capital of the above territory, seated N. of the lake of Four Cantons, and 6 miles SW. of Schwytz.

GERSCHITZ, a town of Bohemia

GERSDORF, a town of Saxony, in C

GERSPACH, a town of Suabia, on the 2 miles SE. of Baden and 22 NE. of St. It was taken by the French, after a battle in the Austrians were defeated, on the 1793.

GERSPRENTZ, a river of Germany circle of the Lower Rhine, which runs Main, near Stockstadt.

GERSTRUNGEN, a town of Saxony principality of Eisenach, 8 miles W. of E

GERSWALDE, a town of Brandenburg

GERTRUDENBERG, a town of Osn

GERTRUDENBURG, } an ancient

GERTRUYDENBERG, or } strong

GERTRUYDENBURG, } the Bat

public, in the department of Dommel and and late province of Dutch Brabant.

good harbour, formed by the Merwe, a

flux into lake Bies Bosche, and built in the

a crescent, with regular fortifications, and

bastions. It has also a castle built in 13

sluices by means of which the adjacent

can be laid under water. In ancient cha

is named *Mons Littoris*, i. e. the mountain

shore. In 947, it was given by Pepin de

D. of Brabant, to his daughter *Gertrud*

name it bears. In 1220, it was taken an

by the inhabitants of Dort. It was tak

the Spaniards, in 1573, by the confeder

der Capt. Poyet, a French Calvinist.

the English garrison surrendered it to the

of Parma, but Prince Maurice retook it

after a siege of three months. Two cent

terwards, it was taken by the French rep

under Dumourier, on the 4th March 17

evacuated soon after. It was again t

Jan. 1795, by the French under Picheg

lies 7 miles NE. of Breda, and 10 SE.

Lon. 4. 52. E. Lat. 51. 42. N.

GERVAISE, or } of Tilbury, a famous

GERVASE, } writer of the 13th c

born at Tilbury on the Thames. He was

to Henry II. king of England; and was

credit with Otho IV. emperor of Ger

whom he dedicated a Description of the

and a Chronicle. He also composed a H

England, a History of the Holy Land, and

works.

GERUMENHA, or } an ancient town

GERUMENHI, }ugal, in Alente

a strong castle, seated on a hill, near the G

In 1662, it stood a siege of a month, b

surrendered to the Spaniards. It lies 13

low Badajoz.

(1.) * GERUND. *n. f.* [gerundium, Lat

the Latin grammar, a kind of verbal noun

governs cases like a verb.

(2.) Gerunds are substantive nouns

2d declension and neuter gender, particip

nature of a participle, declinable only in

singular number, through all the cases ex

vocative, as legendum, legendi; &c. T

praise not only the *time*, but the *manner*

action; as, "he fell *in running* post."

differ from participles, in that they ex

than, which participles do not, though

ply some time; and they differ from tenses so called, in that they express the *manner*, he tenses do not.

GERUNDA, in ancient geography, a town of Setani, in Hispania Citerior, on the S. or S.E. of the Sambroca; now called GERONA.

GERUNDENSES, the people of GERUNDA.

GERUNDIVE, *n. s.* in grammar, an adjective of a gerund.

GERUS, in ancient geography, a river of Althalia that runs into the Caspian sea.

GERUSIA. See GERONTES.

GERON, or **GERON** in fabulous history, a king of the YONES, in Gades, in Iberia, who had a hundred bodies, and fed his cattle with human flesh. His monster was slain by Hercules, who carried off his head. Hyginus makes him the son of Chrysaor, brother of the winged horse Pegasus, and grandson of Neptune, by Medusa, one of the Gorgons.

The fable is supposed to mean that he was king of 3 contiguous Spanish islands; or as some think, there were 3 brethren kings, all so united, as to seem to have but one soul.

GERZAT, a town of France in the dep. of Doubs, 4 miles N.E. of Clermont.

GERZEN, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, 11 E. of Dingelzingen, and 11 E. of Landshut.

GERAS, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

GERE EL AUBE, or **GIR-GIR**, a species of acacia described by Mr Bruce, as growing plentifully at Ras el Peel, on the borders of Abyssinia. The leaves are long, pointed, narrow, and of a green tinge. They shoot plentifully, soon turn yellow, and fall to the ground. Goats prefer it for food. A very small glutinous juice, called gomme, is often seen on the leaves. The root of the branch arises two and sometimes three stalks. The flower and seed are well described.

The head, when in perfection, is of a brownish brown. This plant begins to shoot in the month of April, and advances rapidly to its full growth, which is 3 or 4 inches. It is ripe early and decays soon after.

GERKE, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, 14 E. of Lippstadt, and 14 N. of Ruden.

GERHAUSEN. See GESTUNGHAUSEN.

GERHEN. See AMBA-GESHEN.

GERIS, a town of Germany, in the county of Gers, 4 miles E. of Feldkirk.

GEROLD, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Osnaburg, 12 miles S.E. of Vorden.

GESNER, Conrad, M. D. a celebrated naturalist and naturalist, born at Zurich in 1516. He finished his studies in France, he travelled in Italy, and taught medicine and philosophy at Zurich, with extraordinary reputation. He was so much in natural history, that he was called the *German Pliny*. He died Dec. 9, 1565, leaving 66 works behind him, on botany, zoology, grammar, natural history, &c. Of his principal are, 1. A history of animals, and fossils: 2. *Bibliotheca Universalis*: A Latin lexicon. Boerhaave emphatically calls him *Monstrum Eruditionis*, "a prodigy of learning." Those indeed (as Mr Coxe observes in his Letters on Switzerland) "who are acquainted with the works of this great naturalist

cannot repress their admiration at the amplitude of his knowledge in every species of erudition, and the variety of his discoveries in natural history. Their admiration is still further augmented, when they consider the gross ignorance of the age which he helped to enlighten, and the scanty succours he possessed to aid him in thus extending the bounds of knowledge; that he composed his works, and made those discoveries which would have done honour to the most enlightened period, under the complicated evils of poverty, sickness, and domestic uneasiness." During his last 24 years, however, his salary as a professor, enabled him to live in easy circumstances.

(2.) **GESNER**, John Matthew, an acute German critic, born at Neuburg, in 1691. After superintending the public school of Weinheim for 11 years, he removed to Anspach, and thence to Gottingen, where he was made professor of humanity, and public librarian, &c. He died at Gottingen in 1761. His most esteemed works are, an excellent Latin Dictionary, and his editions of the Classics.

(3.) **GESNER**, Solomon, the celebrated author of the *Death of Abel*, was the son of John Conrad Gesner, bookseller and member of the Great Council, and was born at Zurich in 1730. In his early years he showed no signs of superior abilities; and his progress in education was so slow, that his master gave him up as incapable of any greater attainments than writing and the four first rules of arithmetic. Upon this he was placed under a clergyman, a relation of his father's, who showed himself better acquainted with the art of discovering the natural inclinations of his pupils. He often carried young Gesner with him into the fields, to survey the beauties of nature; and finding that he took pleasure in such lessons, and listened to them with peculiar attention, he repeated some of the most striking passages of the ancient authors, who have written on these subjects, in the most agreeable manner. By this ingenious artifice, young Gesner's mind began to open, and its powers to expand; and it is, perhaps, owing to this circumstance, that he became so fond of the language of Virgil and Theocritus. When he arrived at a proper age, he chose his father's profession. Of 5 printing houses at Zurich, two were occupied by Gesners. The house in which our poet's father had a share, was known by the firm of *Orell, Gesner, and Company*, and was famed for the elegance of the works which it published. But Mr Gesner did not damp his genius, by the drudgery of business. He indulged himself freely in pursuing his favourite object, and his partners never grudged him that time which he devoted to study. In 1752, he made a tour through Germany, not so much to extend his commerce, as to see and be acquainted with those authors who have done honour to their country. The following anecdote is strikingly characteristic of that timidity which often accompanies true genius. When Mr Gesner was at Berlin, he was admitted into a literary society, of which Gleim and Lessing were members. Every member read in turn some pieces of his own composition, and Gesner was very desirous of submitting to these able critics a small work, which was

his first attempt. As each member had done, reading, Gesner was observed to move his hand with a kind of tremour towards his pocket, and to draw it back again without producing any thing. Having not yet published any work, none of the company could guess the cause of a motion which his modesty prevented him from explaining. The piece which he wished, but had not the courage, to show, was his poem, intitled *Night*, which he published on his return to Zurich in 1753. It was considered as an original, of which no model is to be found among the moderns; but in Gesner's opinion, it was only a piece of imaginary painting, or, to use his own words, in one of his letters to Mr Huber who translated his works, "A caricature composed in the moments of folly or intoxication." In this little poem he has introduced a short episode on the origin of the glow-worm, containing a poetical explanation of this natural phosphorus, which has all the beauty of Ovid's *Metamorphoses* without their prolixity. The success of this essay emboldened him to publish a pastoral romance, called *Daphnis*, in three cantos. The applause deservedly bestowed upon this performance induced him to publish his *Idylls* and other rural poems in imitation of Theocritus. Pastoral poetry, which was then little known in Germany but by translations, began to be preferred to every other kind. The only author of note who had preceded him in this line, was Mr Rost of Lipsick, who had the art to unite spirit and simplicity in a kind of writing, which appears insipid without the former, but becomes unnatural and disgusting if it is too abundant. He sometimes throws a delicate veil over those images which are deficient in decency, but it is often too slight. Such was the rival with whom Gesner had to contend. But our poet pursued a different course. Instead of placing, like Rost, his scenes in modern times, he went back with Theocritus to the golden age. The characters of Gesner's *Idylls* are taken from those societies which exist no longer but in the remembrance, or rather in the imagination. His shepherds are fathers, children, and husbands, to whom generosity, beneficence, and respect for the Deity, are sentiments no less familiar than love. These *Idylls* were the favourite object of his pursuit, and that part of his work which acquired him the greatest reputation. His *Death of Abel*, was first published in 1758. It is written, like the rest of his pieces, in poetical prose; and went through three editions in one year. The French edition was followed by others, in Italian, Dutch, Danish, and, lastly, two in English, one in prose and the other in verse. He next published his *First Navigator*, a poem in 3 cantos, which many consider as his masterpiece. He produced likewise, in the dramatic stile *Evander and Alcmee* in 3 acts; and *Brasilius*, in one act, which was represented with applause at Lipsick and Vienna. But though poetry was Gesner's darling pursuit, and though he enriched German literature with works which will immortalize his name, he did not confine himself to it. In his childhood he had received a few lessons in drawing, and had pursued this study, but without any intention of becoming an artist. At the age of 30, being ex-

cited by the sight of a beautiful collection by his father-in-law, Mr Heidegger, to this treasure, composed principally of Flemish pieces; and to this new taste most sacrificed every other. He at first only to delineate some decorations for 1 pieces of his books; but in 1765, he painted landscapes etched and engraved by his other pieces appeared in 1769; and after attempts, he executed ornaments for which came from his press; among his own work; and a German translation from Mr Gesner's enthusiasm for his pursuits, and from the time and attention bestowed upon them, we might conclude found little leisure for discharging his citizen. The contrary, however, was for he passed almost the half of his life employments of the state. In 1765 he to the grand council, in 1767 to the 1768 he was appointed bailiff of Eulibach the four guards in 1776; and in 1781 fix ant of waters, which office in 1787 was to him for six years. In all these stations ner discharged his duty with the most fidelity. He died of a paralytical disorder ad March, 1788, aged 58. As a past Gesner, if he has been equalled by any, excelled by none. Pastoral poetry is to be very limited, but those who read works will be convinced, that it is susceptible of much variety. His pastoral romance is not inferior in natural simplicity to the brated work of Longus; but it surpasses variety of images and incident. *Erastus*, *der* are instructive and interesting poem count of the contrast between the work ture which reigns throughout them; an Navigator unites the mildest philosophy the splendour and imagery of Fairy l dramatic poems abound with interesting characters well delineated, and situation novelty. His language is that of the the chastest ears might listen to the which he has described. If he has some humour of Sterne and Fontaine, it their licentiousness. The severest taste in his writings no phrase deserving representation. Gesner's character, as a man, was no less as a husband, a father, a friend, a and a citizen, his virtues were equally ous. He was naturally of a melancholic but was no enemy to rational mirth; mildness of his temper rendered his co ways engaging. Possessed of noble united with great modesty, he was simple external appearance, as well as in his cor His language was lively and animated reserve before strangers resembled that it was only in the presence of those with was acquainted, that his real character in its full lustre. His reputation and vi known even in the remotest parts of The late empress, Catharine II, pres with a gold medal as a mark of her excellers thought they had seen only th Switzerland, if they had not been to the of Gesner, or procured some of his

It way he had acquired so much reputation; he was ranked among the best artists any; and Mr Fueslin, who was himself, in the preface to the 3d vol. of his essay on the painters, engravers, architects, sculptors, who have done honour to art, gives a distinguished place to Mr. . . . though then living.

ERIA, in botany: A genus of the angiosperm order, belonging to the didynamia class and in the natural method ranking twentieth order, *Personatae*. The calyx is . . . and placed on the germen; the corolla . . . and then recurvated; the capsule . . . bilocular.

NE, a town of Bohemia, in Boleslau.

SO, Point, a cape of Ireland in Sligo 11 miles W. of Sligo. Lon. 8. 33. W. 2. N.

NE, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra, E. of Civita Borella.

PS, a town of the United States in 8 miles SSE. of Fort William.

RIACUM, in ancient geography, a station for ships of the Morini in Gallia. In Cæsar's time, according to Dio, no town; but Florus speaks of it as the *Gessorincenses Muri* are mentioned in his Panegyric. The author of *Ætiosiana*, commonly called *Pentenger's* expressly, that Gessoriacum was in his *Bononia*. It is now called *Bonogne*.

EST. *n. f.* [*gestum*, Latin.] 1. A deed; an achievement.—

fair them quites, as him befeemed best, dly can discourse with many a noble *gest*.

Spenser.

representation.—*Gests* should be interpreted the Persian manner, by ages, young

3. The roll or journal of the several stages prefixed, in the progresses of our life of them being still extant in the heart. [from *giste*, or *gite*, Fr.] *Hanmer*.—

I'll give you my commission, in there a month, behind the *gest*, for's parting. *Shak. Winter's Tale*.

; so much of a journey as passes with- out. In all senses obsolete.—He dis- down the *gests* and progress thereof.

r, in geography, a town of France, in ment of Maine and Loire; 10½ miles S. nt.

a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland. **NTEs**. See BEARER, § 3.

STATION. *n. f.* [*gestatio*, Lat.] The ing the young in the womb.—Aristotle the birth of the infant, or time of its tendeth sometimes unto the eleventh Hippocrates avers that it exceedeth th. *Brown*.—Why in viviparous ani-

time of *gestation*, should the nourish- ried to the embryo in the womb, er times goeth not that way? *Ray on*

ATION. See MIDWIFERY.

or **GEISTE**, a river of Germany, in ich runs into the Weser.

PART II.

* **To GESTICULATE**. *v. n.* [*gesticular*, Lat. *gesticular*, Fr.] To play antick tricks; to shew postures. *Ditt*.

* **GESTICULATION**. *n. f.* [*gesticulatio*, Lat. *gesticulation*, Fr. from *gesticulate*.] Antick tricks; various postures.

GESTINEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Uri, 15 miles S. of Altorf.

GESTRICIA, or . . . a province of Sweden,

GESTRICKLAND, } bounded by Helſingia on the N. by the gulf of Bothnia on the E. by Up- land, Westmanland, and Dalecarlia, on the S. and by Dalecarlia on the W. It abounds with mines, forests, lakes, and rivers; and is 17 miles long and 10 broad. **GEFLE** is the capital. The Dahl, the finest river in Sweden, meanders through it.

GESTUNGHAUSEN, or **GESHAUSEN**, a town of Saxony in Coburg, 7 miles E. of Coburg.

(1.) * **GESTURE**. *n. f.* [*gero*, *gestum*, Lat. *geste*, Fr.] 1. Action or posture expressive of sentiment.

—Ah, my sister, if you had heard his words, or seen his *gestures*, when he made me know what and to whom his love was, you would have match- ed in yourself, those two rarely matched together, pity and delight. *Sidney*.—When we make pro- fession of our faith, we stand; when we acknow- ledge our sins, or seek unto God for favour, we fall down; because the *gesture* of constancy be- cometh us best in the one, in the other the beha- viour of humility. *Hooker*.—

To the dumbness of the *gesture*.

One might interpret.

Shak. Timon.

—Humble and reverend *gestures* in our approaches to God express the inward reverence of our souls.

Duty of Man. 2. Movement of the body.—

Grace was in all her steps, heav'n in her eye,

In ev'ry *gesture* dignity and love! *Milton.*

—Every one will agree in this, that we ought ei- ther to lay aside all kinds of *gesture*, or at least to make use of such only as are graceful and expres- sive. *Spectator*.

(2.) **GESTURE**, (§ 1. *def. 1.*) consists principally in the action of the hands and face; and may be defined, a suitable conformity of the motions of the countenance, and of several parts of the body, in speaking to the subject of discourse. See **DE- CLAMATION** and **ORATORY**.

* **To GESTURE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To ac- company with action or posture.—Our attire dis- graceth it; it is not orderly read, nor *gestured* as becometh. *Hooker*.—He undertook so to *gesture* and muffle up himself in his hood, as the duke's man- ner was, that none should discern him. *Wotton*.

GESVALDO, a town of Naples, in the Prin- cipato Ultra, 12 miles NW. of Conza.

(1.) * **To GET**. *v. a.* pret. *I got*, anciently *gat*; part. pass. *got*, or *gotten*. [*getan*, *gettan*, Saxon.] 1. To procure; to obtain.—

Thine be the cosset, well hast thou it *got*. *Spenser*.

—Of that which was our father's hath he *gotten* all this glory. *Gen. xxxi. 1.*—We *gat* our bread with the peril of our lives. *Sam. v. 9.*—David *gat* him a name when he returned from smiting of the Syrians. 2 *Sam. viii. 13.*—Most of these things might be more exactly tried by the Torricellian experiments, if we could *get* tubes so accurately blown that the cavity were perfectly cylindrical. *Boyle*.—Such a conscience, as has not been want-

ing to itself, in endeavouring to get the utmost and clearest information about the will of God, that its power, advantages, and opportunities could afford it, is that great internal judge, whose abridgement is a rational and sure ground of confidence. *Saunders*.—He insensibly got a faculty, without perceiving how; and that is attributed wholly to nature, which was much more the effect of use and practice. *Locke*.—The man who lives upon alms, gets him his set of admirers, and delights in superiority. *Spenser*.—

Sphinx was a monster that would eat
Whatever Prenter she could get;

Unless his ready wit disclosed.

The subtle riddle she propos'd.

Addison.

—This practice is to be used at first, in order to get a fixed habit of attention, and in some cases only. *Harris*.—The word *get* is variously used: we say to get money, to get in, to get off, to get ready, to get a stomach, and to get a cold. *Harris's Logick*. 2. To force; to seize.—Such hells and scatterings cannot easily, by any constable, or other ordinary officer, be gotten, when they are challenged for any such fault. *Peiser on Insult*.—

The king seeing this, started from where he sat,
Out from his trembling hand his weapon gat.

Daniel.

All things, but one, you can restore;

The heart you get returns no more. *Waller*.

3. To win by contest.

Henry the sixth had lost

All that which Henry the sixth had gotten. *Shak*.

—He got his people great hurt, and he made battles, projecting the host with his sword. *1 Mac. iii. 3*.—To get the day of them of his own nation, would be a most unhappy day for him. *2 Mac. v. 6*.—Auria held that course to have drawn the galleys within his great ships, who thundering amongst them with their great ordnance, might have opened a way unto his galleys to have gotten a victory. *Knolles's Hist.* 4. To have possession of; to have. This sense is commonly in the compound preterite.

Then forcing thee, by fire he made thee bright;

Nay, thou hast got the face of man. *Herbert*.

5. To beget upon a female.—These boys are boys of ice; they'll none of her: sure they are bastards to the English, the French never got them. *Shak*.

Women with study'd arts they vex:

Ye gods destroy that impious sex;

And if there must be some t'invoke

Your pow'rs, and make your altars smoke,

Come down yourselves, and, in their place,

Get a more just and nobler race. *Waller*.

—Children they got on their female captives.

Locke.—If you'll take 'em as their fathers got 'em, so and well; if not, you must stay 'till they get a better generation. *Dryden*.—

Has no man, but who has kill'd

A father, right to get a child?

Prior.

Let ev'ry married man, that's grave and wise,

Take a tartuff of known ability,

Who shall so settle lasting reformation;

First get a son, then give him education. *Dorset*.

The god of day, descending from above,

Mixt with the day, and got the queen of love.

Granville.

6. To gain as profit.—Though creditors will lose one fifth of their principal and use, and landlords

one fifth of their income, yet the debtors will not get it. *Locke*. 7. To get into or advantage.

If they get ground and advantage

Then join you with them like a rook.

8. To gain; to get, by labour.—Hark

not pay other way of getting or keep

but by trade, so much of our trade

much of our riches must necessarily

lose. *Locke*.—If it be so much pains to count

I would spend what labour did it cost

to get it? *Locke*. 9. To receive

reward.—Any tax laid on foreign goods

England raises their price, and makes it

get more for them; but a tax laid on

made commodities lessens their price.

To learn.—This defect he frequently

being harder with him to get one sort

than to pay twenty. *Fell*.—Get by his

common and useful words out of his

vocabulary. *Harris*. 11. To proceed

shall then how we may get it soon and

afterwards preserve and keep it so.

To put into any state.—None can

make certain vessels of a tree, without

down, not with cutting, but with fire.

Take no reprisal, whatever she

put, or you gone, she doth not mean.

—He who attempts to get another's

state of peace, does thereby put his

state of war with him. *Locke*.—Before

being forth, they may be pretty well

them a little into heart. *Morison*.—

was taken up in embalmings the bodies

place very frequently: his greatest pleasure

how to get the lovers out of it, the

watched. *Guardian*. 13. To prevail

duce.—Though the king could not get

gage in a life of business, he made him

his chief companion. *Spenser*. 14

to hook.—With much communicational

tempt thee, and smiling upon thee get

eternity. *Brutus*. xiii. 11.—By the mar

grandson Ferdinand he got into his

kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary

After having got out of you every thing

spare, I scorn to trespass. *Guardian*.

take; to remove; implying haste or

you to bed on th' instant; I will

forthwith. *Shak. Othello*.—Arise, get

this land. *Gen. xxi. 13*.—Left they

our enemies, and fight against us, and

up out of the land. *Exodus i. 10*.—

speed got himself with his followers

town of Mega. *Knolles's Hist.* 16. To

force or art.—She was quickly got off

gain. *Knolles*.—The roving fumes of

in evaporating, would oftentimes fall

gold in such plenty, as would put

trouble to get them off from his

When mercury is got by the help of

of a metal, or other mineral body,

pose this quicksilver to have been a

of its own kind. *Boyle*.—They would

get out those weeds which their own

planted, and which now have taken

to be easily extirpated. *Locke on Education*.—Get on thy boots; we'll ride all

GET off. To sell or dispose of by some exchange.—Wood, to *get* his halfpence *off*, offered ten pounds in his coin for seventy in silver.

To GET. v. n. 1. To arrive at any state or by degrees with some kind of labour, or difficulty: used either of persons or things.—Phaustus was entrapp'd, and saw round him, but could not *get* out. *Timon*.—

A man knew he walk'd o'er perils, on an edge likely to fall in than to *get* o'er. *Southey*.—A stranger shall *get* up above thee very high, and then come down very low. *Dante*.—When the fox bragged what a number of hills were he had to *get* from the hounds; and said he had but one, which was to climb *Bacon*.—Those that are very cold, and icy in their feet, cannot *get* to sleep. *Bacon's* *Maxims*.—I utterly condemn the practice of the mes, that some who are pricked for sterility, re sit, should *get* out of the bill. *Bacon's* *Maxims*.—He *got* away unto the Christid hardly escap'd. *Knolles*.—He would be back before they could *get* out of Arminius's Hill. *Knolles*.—She plays with his rage, and gives his anger. *Dryden*.—The latent air away in hubbles. *Boyle*.—There are few whole minute parts stick so close together, that it is possible to meet with some other of these small parts may *get* between, and to them. *Boyle*.—There was but an insensibility of the liquor upon the recess of what was that *got* through the cork. *Boyle*.—All the universe, and every part thereof, are of full excellency, yet the multiplicity is so various, that the understanding falls in a kind of despondency of *getting* through a task. *Hale's Origin of Mankind*.—If there be any leak at the bottom of the vessel, a little water would *get* in, because no air *get* out. *Wilkins's Math. Magis*.

Heav'n, in what a lab'rinth am I led!
I'd *get* out, but she detains the thread! *Dryden*.—I have I seen some fearful hare maintain her life, 'till tir'd before the dog she lay;
Then, stretch'd behind her, pants upon the plain,
pow'r to kill, as she to *get* away. *Dryden*.—The more oily and light part of this mass would rise above the other, and swim upon it. *Burnet's* *History*.—Having *got* through the foregoing part, let us go on to his next argument. *Locke*.—The moving of the pains we feel, is the *getting* misery, and consequently the first thing to be avoided, in order to happiness, absent good. *Locke*.—Having *got* into the sense of the epistles, we may compare what he says, in the places where he treats of the same subject, we can hardly be mistaken in his sense. *Locke*.—I *got* up as fast as a cat, girt on my rapier, and snatched up my sword when my landlady came up to me. *Tatler*.—No shalms would let no body *get* upon him under the Great. *Addison*.—

Prison'd fires, in the close dungeons pent,
To *get* loose, and struggle for a vent;
By their way, and undermining all,
With a mighty burst whole mountains fall. *Addison*.

When Alma now, in different ages,
Has finish'd her ascending stages,
Into the head at length she *gets*,
And there in publick grandeur sits,
To judge of things. *Prior*.

—I resolv'd to break through all measures to *get* away. *Swift*. 2. To fall; to come by accident.—Two or three men of the town are *got* among them. *Tatler*. 3. To find the way; to insinuate itself.—When an egg is made hard by boiling, since there is nothing that appears to *get* in at the shell, unless some little particles of the water, it is not easy to discover from whence else this change proceed: than from a change made in the texture of the parts. *Boyle*.—

He raves; his words are loose

As heaps of sands, and scattering wide from sense:

So high he's mounted in his airy hopes,
That now the wind is *got* into his head,

And turns his brains to frenzy. *Dryden*. *Sp. Fryar*.

—A child runs to overtake and *get* up to the top of his shadow, which still advances at the same rate that he does. *Locke*.—Should dressing, feasting, and balls once *get* among the Cantons, their military roughness would be quickly lost. *Addison*.—The fluids which surround bodies, upon the surface of the globe, *get* in between the surface of bodies, when they are at any distance. *Cheyne's Phil. Princ*. 4. To move; to remove.—

Get home with thy fessel made ready to set;
The sooner, and easier carriage to *get*. *Tatler*. 5. To have recourse to.—The Turks made great haste through the midst of the town ditch, to *get* up into the bulwark to help their fellows. *Knolles*.—Lying is so cheap a cover for any miscarriage, and so much in fashion, that a child can scarce be kept from *getting* into it. *Locke*. 6. To go; to repair.—They ran to their weapons, and furiously assailed the Turks, now fearing no such matter, and were not as yet all *got* into the castle. *Knolles's* *History*.—A knot of ladies, *got* together by themselves, is a very school of impertinence. *Swift*. 7. To put one's self in any state.—They might *get* over the river Avon at Stratford, and *get* between the king and Worcester. *Clarendon*.—We can neither find source nor issue for such an excessive mass of waters, neither where to have them; nor, if we had them, how to *get* quit of them. *Burnet's* *History*.—Without his assistance we can no more *get* quit of our affliction, than but by his permission we should have fallen into it. *Hale's* *Principles for Death*.—There is a sort of man who pretend to divest themselves of partiality on both sides, and to *get* above that imperfect idea of their subject which little writers fall into. *Pope on Homer*.—As the obtaining the love of valuable men is the happiest end of this life, so the next felicity is to *get* rid of fools and scoundrels. *Pope to Swift*. 8. To become by any act what one was not before.

The laughing sot, like all unthinking men,
Bathes and *gets* drunk; then bathes and drinks again. *Dryden*.

9. To be a gainer; to receive advantage.—

Like jewels to advantage set,

Her beauty by the shade does *get*. *Waller*.

10. To GET off. To escape.—The gallies, by the benefit

benefit of the shores and shallows, *got off*. *Bacon's War with Spain.*—

Whate'er thou dost, deliver not thy sword;
With that thou may'st *get off*, tho' odds oppose thee.

Dryden.

11. *To GET over.* To conquer: to suppress; to pass without being stopped in thinking or acting.

—'Tis very pleasant to hear the lady propose her doubts, and to see the pains he is at to *get over* them. *Addison.*—I cannot *get over* the prejudice of taking some little offence at the clergy, for perpetually reading their sermons. *Swift.*—To remove this difficulty, Peterborough was dispatched to Vienna, and *got over* some part of those disputes. *Swift.*

12. *To GET up.* To rise from repose.—Sheep will *get up* betimes in the morning to feed against rain. *Bacon's Nat. History.*

13. *To GET up.* To rise from a seat. 14. To remove from a place.—*Get you up* from about the tabernacle of Koran, Dathan, and Abiram. *Num. xvi.*

15. *To get*, in all its significations, both active and neutral, implies the acquisition of something, or the arrival at some state or place by some means; except in the use of the preterite compound, which often implies mere possession: as, *he has got a good estate*, does not always mean that he has acquired, but barely that he possesses it. So we say *the lady has got black eyes*, merely meaning that she has them.

(1.) GETA, M. Septimius Antoninus, the son of the emperor Severus, and brother to Caracalla. In the 8th year of his age, he was moved with compassion at the fate of some of the partizans of Niger and Albinus, who were to be executed, and his father struck with his humanity retracted the sentence. After Severus's death, he reigned at Rome conjointly with his brother; but Caracalla, who envied his virtues and was jealous of his popularity, ordered him to be poisoned; and this not being effected, he murdered him in the arms of his mother Julia, who in attempting to defend him, received a wound in her arm, from the hand of her worthless son, A. D. 212. Geta had not reached the 23d year of his age, and the Romans lamented the death of so virtuous a prince, while they groaned under the cruelties and oppressions of Caracalla.

(2.) GETA, in geography. See GASTA.

GETÆ, an ancient nation of Thrace, who dwelt on both sides of the Ister, near Scythia, supposed to be the ancestors of the Dacians and Goths; or according to others, of the Walachians or Moldavians.

GETCHAO, a town of China, in the province of Chang tong, 27 miles ESE. of Lu.

GETHIN, Lady Grace, an English lady of uncommon parts, daughter of Sir George Norton of Abbots-Leigh in Somersetshire; was born in 1676; and became the wife of Sir Richard Gethin, of Gethin-Croft in Ireland. She was mistress of great accomplishments, natural and acquired, but did not live long enough to display them; for she died in her 21st year. She was buried in Westminster abbey, where a beautiful monument with an inscription is erected over her; and, to perpetuate her memory, provision was made for a sermon to be preached in Westminster abbey yearly, on All-Wednesday for ever. She wrote in loose

papers, a work which, after her death, rhodized, and published under the title *quæ Gethiniana*; or, Some remains of ingenious and excellent lady, Grace lately deceased. Being a collection of courses, pleasant apophthems, and witty ces. Written by her, for the most part of essay, and at spare hours." Lond. 1

GETHSEME, [גתסמא. Heb. i. e. ley of fat, or fertility,] in ancient geography a village at the foot of Mount Olivet, which Christ sometimes retired in the night-time in a garden belonging to this village thence the agony in which he sweated blood was arrested by Judas and his band. It is described by Maundrel as an even plot of not above 57 yards square, lying between of Mount Olivet and the brook Cedron.

GETHYLLIS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the dodecandria of plants; and in the natural method rather the 9th order, *Spathaceæ*. The corolla is cleft, and the stamina are in six different positions; the capsule is trilocular.

GETSTORFF, a town of Germany in 6 miles SE. of Meissau.

GETTENDORFF, a town of Austria in 8. of Aigen.

* GETTER. *n. s.* [from *get*.] 1. One who cures or obtains. 2. One who begets on —Peace is a very lethargy, a *getter* of tard children than war's a destroyer of men.

* GETTING. *n. s.* [from *get*.] 1. Acting; acquisition.—Wisdom is the principle therefore get wisdom; and with all the get understanding. *Prov. iv. 7.* 2. Gain.—Who hath a state to repair may not despise small things; and it is less dishonour to bridge a petty charge than to stoop to great things. *Bacon.*—The weaker families retain their share of their *gettings*, to be a portion to the child. *Swift.*

GETTYSBURG, a town of Pennsylvania, 9 miles N. of the Maryland line, and 118 W. by S. of Philadelphia.

GETULL. See GATULL.

GETULLIA. See GATULLIA.

GETZENDORF, two towns of Austria, one on the Rottenbach, 12 miles SE. of Vienna, and four miles S. of Zellerfeld.

GEVAUDAN, or } a ci-devant province of France, in Languedoc, bounded on the N. by Auvergne, E. by S. by Cevennes, and W. by Rouergue; mountainous and barren; and now forming a part of LOZERE.

GEVELSBERG, or GÄTTERSBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Mark, 11 miles SE. of Bielefeld.

GEVER, or St GOAR. See GOAR.

GEVES, a town and river of Africa, in the river St Domingo.

GEVEZE, a town of France, in the diocese of Vilaine, 7½ miles NNW. of Rennes.

GEVIEZ, a town of Moravia, in the district of Olmutz, 12 miles SW. of Muhlitz.

(1.) GEUL, a river of Germany, which flows into the Meuse, 5 miles below Maastricht.

UL, a town of the French republic, in the Lower Meuse, and ci-devant duchy of Luxembourg, 5 miles N. of Wyck.

AVENS, or **HERB BENNET**, a genus of the *Lygamaia* order, belonging to the icosandria of plants; and in the natural method under the 35th order, *Senticosæ*. The leaf is divided into 10 parts; there are 5 petals, the seed has a jointed awn. There are 5 of which the 2 following, both natives of France, are the most remarkable:

M RIVALE, with a very thick, fleshy, tuberous root, hairy leaves, and upright stalks, 2 feet high, terminated by purple flowers growing on one side. Of this there are varieties, some with yellow flowers. The root is said to be efficacious in curing the dropsy; and it is daily used for this purpose by the peasants and other inhabitants of North France.

Sheep and goats eat the plant; cows, and swine, are not fond of it.

M URBANUM, with thick fibrous roots, a bitter taste, rough, serrated leaves, and round, hairy stalks, terminated by large flowers, succeeded by globular fruit. The plant is sown in spring before the stem comes out of the ground, give it a pleasant flavour, and its growing sour. Infused in wine, it has a stomachic virtue. The taste is mild and aromatic, especially when the plant is dried in dry situations; but in moist places it has little virtue. Both these species are propagated either by the root or seed.

Y, a town of France, in the dep. of the Côte d'Or, 7 miles S. of Dijon.

ITZ, a town of Saxony, in the bishopric of Meissen, 3 miles E. of Zeitz.

Z, a town of Saxony, near Cothen.

EWGAW. *n. s.* [*gewaw*, Sax. *iorau*, Fr.] a rattle; a toy; a bauble; a splendid plaything of metal they exchanged for the mean and *gewaw* which the others could not value.

bot's World.—Prefer that which Providence pronounced to be the staff of life, bearing *gewaw* that has no other value than vanity has set upon it. *L'Esrange*.—

Children, when they throw one toy away, a more foolish *gewaw* comes in play.

Dryden.

ry gewaw, call'd a crown, that spread his temples, drown'd his narrow head, would have crush'd it. *Dryd. Juvenal*.

Some loose the bands of friendship, cancel nature's laws of honesty and tawdry *gewaws*. *Philips*.

Images were fans, silks, ribbands, laces, other *gewaws*, which lay so thick that the heart was nothing else but a toyshop.

guardian.

VGAW. *adj.* Splendidly trifling; showy.

ic.—Let him that would learn the religion, see the poor *gewaw* hap-

iciana. *Law's Serious Call*.

a ci-devant territory of France, in the

of Bresse; bounded by Mount Jura, the lake of Geneva, and Switzerland.

to France by the duke of Savoy, in

now forms the department of Ain.

(2.) **GEX**, a town of France, in the dep. of Ain, at the foot of Mount St Claude; 10 miles NNW. of Geneva, and 36 NE. of Mantua. Lon. 6. 1. E. Lat. 46. 20. N.

GEYER, a town of Upper Saxony, among the mines. Vitriol, sulphur, alum, arsenic, &c. are manufactured in it. It is 6 miles WSW. of Wolkenstein.

GEYERSBERG, a town of Bohemia, 28 miles ENE. of Koniggratz, and 28 ENE. of Chrudim.

GEYRACH, a town of Germany in Stiria.

GEYSA, or } a town of Germany, in the circle

GEYSS, } of the Upper Rhine, and bishopric of Fulda; 15 miles NE. of Fulda.

GEYSS-RUCKEN JAFFELER, a mountain of Germany, between Upper Carniola and Cilley, 6 miles NE. of Stein.

GEZAEI, a town of Turkey in Irak Arabic, on the Euphrates, 120 miles NE. of Bassora.

GEZAN, or **DSJEZAN**. See **DSJESAN**.

GEZIRA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the prov. of Diarbekir, in an island formed by the Tigris, 70 miles NW. of Mousul. Lon. 40. 50. E. Lat. 36. 36. N.

GEZIRAT, a town of Turkey, in Diarbekir, 60 miles SE. of Diarbek.

GEZIRET IDDAHAD, or the **ISLE OF GOLD**, an island of Egypt, in the Nile, 2 miles S. of Fou.

GEZULA, or **GAZULA**, a country of Africa, S. of Morocco, the inhabitants of which are allies of the emperor. They are numerous, and are reckoned the most ancient people of Africa. They have no towns, but live in camps and villages, and are hospitable to strangers. They have an annual fair, which lasts 2 months. The country abounds in corn, pasture, copper and iron.

GEOLI, a town of Austria, 8 m. W. of Crems.

GHALIEKA, a town of Arabia Felix.

GHANA, or } a town of Africa, in Wangara,

GHANARA, } on the Niger. Lon. 15. 56. E. Lat. 15. 30. N.

* **GHASTFUL**. *adj.* [*gast* and *fulle*, Saxon.] Dreary; melancholy; dismal; fit for walking spirits. Obsolete.—

Here will I dwell apart,
In *ghastful* grave, 'till my last sleep
Do close mine eyes:
Help me, ye baneful birds, whose shrieking sound
Is sign of dreary death. *Spenser's Pastorals*.

* **GHASTLINESS**. *n. s.* [from *ghastly*.] Horror of countenance; resemblance of a ghost; paleness.

* **GHASTLY**. *adj.* [*gast*, or *ghost*, and *like*.] 1. Like a ghost; having horror in the countenance; pale; dreadful; dismal.—

Why looks your grace so heavily to-day?
—O, I have past a miserable night;
So full of ugly sights, of *ghastly* dreams,
So full of dismal terror was the time. *Shakespeare*.

—Envy quickly discovered in court Solymán's changed countenance upon the great bassa, and began now to shew her *ghastly* face. *Knolles's Hist.*

Death

Grinn'd horrible a *ghastly* smile, to hear
His famine should be fill'd. *Milt. Par. Lost*.

—Those departed friends, whom at our last separation we saw disfigured by all the *ghastly* horrors of death, we shall then see assisting about the ma-

jestick

jestick throne of Christ, with their once vile bodies transfigured into the likeness of his glorious body, mingling their glad acclamations with the hallelujahs of thrones, principalities and powers. *Boyle.*

He came, but with such alter'd looks,
So wild, so *ghastly*, as if some ghost had met him,
All pale and speechless. *Dryd. Spanish Fryar.*

I did not for these *ghastly* visions stand;
Their sudden coming does some ill portend.
Dryden's Indian Emp.

2. Horrible; shocking; dreadful.—

To be less than gods
Disdain'd; but meaner thoughts learn'd in their
flight,
Mangled with *ghastly* wounds through plate and
mail. *Milton.*

I who make the triumph of to-day,
May of to-morrow's pomp one part appear,
Ghastly with wounds, and lifeless on the bier!
Prior.

* **GHAISTNESS.** *n. f.* [from *ghast*, Sax.] Ghastliness; horrow of look. Not used.—

Look you pale, mistress?

Do you perceive the *ghastness* of the eye. *Sh. Oth.*

(1.) **GHEDI**, a district of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Mela, containing 5 parishes, and 7000 souls.

(2.) **GHEDI**, a well built town in the above district, between the Naviglio and Seriola, containing 3200 citizens.

GHEIRA, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Natolia.

GHEIVE, a town of Natolia, 20 m. E. of Isnik.

GHEME, a town of Italy, in the Novarese, 13 miles NNW. of Novara. The Novarese was annexed to the Cisalpine republic, in Nov. 1800.

GHEENT, or **GAUNT**, a city of the French republic, capital of the department of the Scheldt, and late capital of the ci-devant province of Austrian Flanders. It is seated on 4 navigable rivers, the Scheldt, the Lys, the Lieve, and the Moeze, which, with a great number of canals run through it, and divide it into 25 little isles, over which there are 300 bridges. Among these there is one remarkable for a statue of brass of a young man who was condemned to cut off his father's head; but as he was going to strike, the blade flew into the air, and the head remained in his hand, upon which they were both punished. There is a picture of the whole transaction in the town house. Ghent is surrounded with walls and other fortifications, and is tolerably strong considering its circumference. The streets are large and well paved, the market places spacious, and the houses built with brick. The largest market-place is remarkable for the statue of Charles V. which stands upon a pedestal in the imperial habit. That of Corneille has a fine walk, between several rows of trees. In 1737 a fine opera-house was built, and a guard-house for the garrison. Near the town is a very high tower, with a handsome clock and chimneys. The great bell weighs 11,000 lb. Ghent was anciently the capital of the Nervii, and after them of the Vandals, who gave it the name of *Wanda*, or *Fanda*, whence *Ganda* and *Ghent* are supposed to have been derived. Odoacer of Flanders first surrounded it with walls; and in 1397 Philip, the 2dth E. of Flanders, enlarged it. Prince John, the 3d son of Edward III, of England, was born

in it, hence named *John of Gaunt* the emperor Charles V; but the inheritance no reason to venerate his memory; repeated oppressions, he provoked them 1539; whereupon he put to death 26 pal citizens, banished many others, and their estates; deprived the city of arms and artillery; fined the citizens of crowns, and ordered the magistrates in procession with ropes about their necks. It is famous for the pacification signed for settling the tranquillity of the 17 was taken by Lewis XIV, in 1678, at the treaty of Nimeguen. The possession of it again after the death of Spain. In 1706, it was taken by Marlborough; and by the French it was retaken the same year. The F by surprise after the battle of Fontenoy the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle it was retaken the 14th Nov. 1792, it was taken by the French under Gen. Labourdonnais welcomed by the inhabitants. In 1815 they evacuated it, upon the desertion of the French; but recovered it again in July the Austrians under Clairfaut retreated well seated for trade, on account of canals. It carries on a great commerce and has linen, woollen, and silk. The number of citizens is about 70,000. The population is not proportionable to which Charles V. thus boasted to "I have a *glorie*" (said he, alluding to the name *Gand*), "in which I could put 100 cities of Paris." Ghent lies 25 miles S. of Antwerp, and 30 S. of London. Lon. 3. 49. E. Lat. 51. 4. N.

GHEKEDE, a town of Turkey.

GHERGISTAN MOUNTAINS, mountains in Asia, 15 leagues N. of Candahar.

GHERGONG. See **GHERGONG**.

GHERIAH, or **GHERLAH**, a town in Corcan, on the W. or pirate coast, capital of the pirate Angria, taken by Adm. Watton and Col. C. when his fleet was destroyed, and by the British and Madagascars. It is NNW. of Goa, and 295 S. by E. Lon. 73. 8. E. Lat. 16. 45. N.

* **GHERKIN.** *n. f.* [from *garcin*, cucumber.] A small pickled cucumber.

GHERMA, or **GERMA**, a town in the desert of Berber. Lon. 18. 20. E.

GHERMANSLI, a town of Turkey.

GHERKEZE, a town of Africa, in the desert of Berber.

* **To GHESS.** *v. n.* [See **To GUESS**.] To guess; to conjecture; to consider as the true; but *guess* has universally prevailed.

GHEURLI, a town of Natolia in Angria.

GHEUTSI, a town of Caramani in Cogni.

GHEYSSQUAS, a nation of Hottentots inhabit a district of S. Africa, near which, as well as from the country and Braquas, it is separated by a chain of mountains. In dress, weapons, instruments of husbandry, and in the manner of dancing and hunting, &c. the

ring nations, except that their ornaments, and composed of the bones of sheep's feet, to which, by some peculiar process, a dazzling whiteness. Their women are lively, and cheerful; yet with all their gaiety, they are remarkable for modesty, and so warm a climate, is doubtless a virtue to be admired. M. Vaillant, who visited this people near Orange river, nowhere met with a nation so truly generous, though he had nothing to give in exchange, except the two days that he staid with them, he gave them eight bowls of milk, evening and morning, from every hut. Their chief brought him a present of a lamb, and several sheep for his tribe. A practice, for which no satisfactory reason has been assigned, universally prevails among their tribes, of semi-castration, by excising the left testicle. Yet, as Kolben observes, this operation is commonly performed by the natives, on the birth of the child, though sometimes till the 3d year is completed.

NELO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Tessino, and ci-devant city of Pavia.

KILAN, or **KILAN**, a province of Persia, bordering on Russia. See **KILAN**.

KILAN, ST. See **GHISLAIN**, ST.

KINALE, a kingdom of Africa.

KINALE, or **GUINALE**, the capital of the kingdom, seated on the river Grande. Lon. N. Lat. 10. 20. N.

GHANAH, or **GHANAH**. See **GHANAH**.

GHUC, a town of Turkey, in Natolia.

GONG, or **GHERGONG**, a city of India, the capital of Assam. It is encompassed by a round hedge of bamboos, and has 4 gates. The king's palace is surrounded by a causeway, on each side with a close hedge of bamboo, and a ditch on the outside. It is adorned with ice-work and carving. Plates of brass like mirrors are placed within and without. It is said that 3000 carpenters and 1200 labourers were employed in this work for two years, before it was completed. The wealth of Assam is in Ghirgong. Gold being found in every part of the country, among the sand of the rivers, is a source of revenue. From 12, to 20,000 men are constantly employed in washing the gold, and paid by the rajah. The country around Ghirgong is fertile, and abounds with gum lac, excellent fruits, as mangoes, plantains, oranges, citrons, cocoa nuts, limes, pine apples, &c. **GHILAN**, a species of tamarind, of an excellent quality. Rice and lentiles are the chief crops. There are numerous in the neighbouring forests. **GHIRGONG** is seated on the Burrampooter, 150 miles E. of Patna. Lon. 95. 35. E. Lat. 26.

GHILAIN, ST. or **ST GHILAN**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of the North, ci-devant prov. of French Hainault, seated on the Scheldt, 5 miles W. of Mons. It was taken by the French, in June, 1792. Lon. 3. 53. E. Lat. 50. 28. N.

GHILAN, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in

the dept. of the Lario, and late duchy of Milan; 30 miles NW. of Milan.

(1.) **GHIZNI**, or **GAZNA**, an ancient empire of Asia, formerly very powerful. See **GAZNA**.

(2.) **GHIZNI**, or **GAZNA**, the capital of the above empire, lies 54 miles S. of Cabul, and 150 E. of Candahar. See **GAZNA**. Lon. 68. 20. E. Lat. 33. 40. N.

GHOER, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of Yssel, and ci-devant prov. of Overijssel; seated on the Regge, 10 miles NNE. of Borkeloo.

(1.) * **GHOST**. *n. f.* [*gast*, Sax.] 1. The soul of man.—

Vex not his *ghost*: O, let him pass! He hates him,

That would upon the rack of this rough world Stretch him out longer. *Shak. King Lear.*

Often did I strive

To yield the *ghost*; but still the envious flood Kept in my soul. *Shak. Rich. III.*

2. A spirit appearing after death.—

The mighty *ghosts* of our great Harrys rose, And armed Edwards look'd with anxious eyes, To see this fleet among unequal foes, By which fate promis'd them their Charles should rise. *Dr. den.*

3. To give up the **GHOST**. To die; to yield up the spirit into the hands of God.—

Their shadows seem

A canopy most fatal, under which

Our army lies ready to give up the *ghost*. *Sink.*

4. The third person in the adorable Trinity, called the Holy Ghost.—

(2.) **GHOST**, *y. i. def. 2.* See **APPARITION**, § 3; and **SPECTRE**.

(3.) **GHOSTS**, ANCIENT OPINIONS RESPECTING. The ancients supposed every man to be possessed of three different ghosts, which after the dissolution of the body were differently disposed of. These ghosts they distinguished by the names of *Manes*, *Spiritus* and *Umbra*. The *manes*, they fancied, went down into the infernal regions; the *spiritus* ascended to the skies; and the *umbra* hovered about the tomb, as being unwilling to quit its old connections. Thus Dido (*Verg. Æn. iv. 384.*) threatens Æneas after death that she will haunt him with her *umbra*, whilst her *manes* rejoice in his torments below. This idea of a three-fold soul is very clearly expressed in those lines, which have been attributed to Ovid:

Bis duo sunt homini: MANES, CARO, SPIRITUS, UMBRA:

Quantum illa loci bis duo suscipiunt.

Terra tegit CARNEM, tumulum circumvolat UMBRA,

Orcus habet MANES, SPIRITUS, atra petit.

(4.) **GHOSTS**, MODERN SUPERSTITIOUS NOTIONS RESPECTING. "A Ghost" (says captain Grose in his *Provincial Glossary*,) "is supposed to be the spirit of a person deceased, who is either commissioned to return for some especial errand, such as the discovery of a murder, to procure restitution of lands or money unjustly withheld from an orphan or widow—or having committed some injustice whilst living, cannot rest till that is redressed."

Ed.

fed. Sometimes the occasion of spirits revisiting this world, is to inform their heir in what secret place, or private drawer in an old trunk, they had hidden the title deeds of the estate; or where, in troublesome times, they buried their money and plate. Some ghosts of murdered persons, whose bodies have been secretly buried, cannot be at ease till their bones have been taken up, and deposited in consecrated ground with all the rites of Christian burial." For a farther enumeration of the popular superstitions respecting ghosts, we refer the reader to Capt. Grose's work, above quoted.

(5.) GHOSTS, PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIRY INTO THE SUBJECT OF. See SPECTRES, § 2.

(1.) * To GHOST. v. a. [from the noun.] To haunt with apparitions of departed men. Obsolete.—

Julius Cæsar,

Who at Philippi the good Brutus *ghosted*,

There saw you labouring for him. *Shak.*

(2.) * To GHOST. v. n. To yield up the ghost; to die. Not in use.—Euryalus taking leave of Lucretia, precipitated her into such a love-fit, that within a few hours she *ghosted*. *Sidney.*

* GHOSTLINESS. n. f. [from *ghostly*.] Spiritual tendency; quality of having reference chiefly to the soul.

* GHOSTLY. adj. [from *ghost*.] 1. Spiritual; relating to the soul; not carnal; not secular.—Save and defend us from our *ghostly* enemies. *Comm. Prayer*.—Our common necessities, and the lack which we all have, as well of *ghostly* as of earthly favours, is in each kind so easily known, but the gifts of God, according to these degrees and times, which he in his secret wisdom seeth meet, are so diversely bestowed, that it seldom appeareth what all receive; what all stand in need of, it seldom lieth hid. *Hooker*.—The graces of the spirit are much more precious than worldly benefits, and our *ghostly* evils of greater importance than any harm which the body suffereth. *Hooker*.—To deny me the *ghostly* comfort of my chaplains, seems a greater barbarity than is ever used by Christians. *King Charles*. 2. Having a character from religion; spiritual.—

Hence will I to my *ghostly* friar's close cell,
His help to crave, and my dear hap to tell.

Shak. Romeo and Juliet.

The *ghostly* father now hath done his shrift.

Shak. Hen. VI.

GHOUMEL, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Pholey, on the Joto. Lon. 11. 15. W. Lat. 16. 11. N.

GHOUBOND, a town of Africa, in Cabul, 42 miles NW. of Cabul. Lon. 67. 52. E. Lat. 34. 55. N.

GHOWRI, a town of Asia, in the kingdom of Balk. Lon. 66. 56. E. Lat. 15. 40. N.

GHUNFUDE, a sea port of Arabia, on the Red Sea, belonging to the Sherife of Mecca, 145 miles S. of Mecca. Lat. 19. 7. N.

* GIABER, or GEBER. See GEBER, N. 1.

* GIAFFA. See JAFFA, and JOPPA.

GIAGH, in chronology, a cycle of 12 years, in use among the Turks and Cathayans. Each year of the giagh bears a name of some animal; the first that of a mouse; the 2d that of a bullock; the 3d a lynx or leopard; the 4th a hare; the 5th a

crocodile; the 6th a serpent; the 7th a sheep; the 8th a snake; the 9th a monkey; the 10th a dog; and the 11th a hog. The giagh divide the day into 12 parts, called *gi*, distinguish them by the names of animals. The giagh contains two of our hours, and is divided into eight *hebs*; so that a *heb* is a quarter of an hour.

GIADHOFF, a town of Stiria, 2 miles S. of Graz.

(1.) * GIALALINA. n. f. [Italian.] a bright gold colour, found in the M. of Naples, very fine, and much valued by Woodward's *Met. Foss.*

(2.) GIALALINA, or } in natural hill
GIALLOLINO, } fine yellow pig-
ment also NAPLES YELLOW.

GIALU, a town of Transylvania, SSW. of Claufenburg.

GIAMANI, a town of Persia, 28 miles S. of Susa.

* GIAMBEUX. n. f. [*jambes*, French.] armour for legs; greaves.—

The mortal steel dispiteously entail
Deep in their flesh, quite through the
That a large purple stream adown the
beux falls.

GIAMOBASH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, 20 miles SSE. of Smyrna.

GIANNONI, Peter, an Italian author, born in Naples in 1680. He wrote a History of which is admired for its purity of style and force of sentiments. It gave such offence to the court of Rome that he was obliged to flee; where he died in 1748.

(1, 2.) * GIANT. n. f. [*geant*, French; Latin.] A man of size above the ordinary men; a man unnaturally large. It is observed the idea of a giant is always associated with brutality, and wickedness.—

Now does he feel his axle

Hang loose about him, like a giant's
Upon a dwarfish thief. *Shak.*

Gates of monarchs

Are arch'd so high that giants may jet

And keep their impious turbans on,

Good-morrow to the sun. *Shak.*

Woman's gentle brain

Could not drop forth such giant rude i

Such Ethiop words. *Shak. As.*

Fierce faces threat'ning wars,

Giants of mighty bone, and bold en

—Those giants, those mighty men, as renowned, far exceeded the proportion, or strength of those giants remembered by his own time. *Raleigh's Hist.*—

The giant brothers, in their ca-
found

I was not forc'd with ease to quit my
Dryden

By weary steps and slow

The groping giant with a trunk of pig
Explor'd his way.

Neptune, by pray'r repentant, rar
Afflicts the chief t'avenge his giant so
Great Polypheme of more than mort

GIANTS, ARGUMENTS RESPECTING THE
CE OF. The traditions of all ages have
us with so many extravagant accounts
of incredible bulk and strength, that
nce of such people is now generally dis

It is commonly thought, that the
man has been the same in all ages; and
even pretended to *demonstrate* the im-
of the existence of giants mathematical-
hese our countryman M^r Laurin has been
explicit. But his arguments and com-
drawn from the disproportion between
ion of parts in small models and large
f human workmanship, are by no means
; because, along with an increase of
any animal, we must always suppose a
nal increase in the cohesion of the parts
ly. Large works sometimes fail when
d on the plan of models, because the
of the materials whereof the model is
of the large work, are the same; but
e in this respect will produce a very re-
difference in the ultimate result. Thus,

model is made of fir wood, the model
m and strong enough; but a large work
of fir, when executed according to the
he model, may be so weak that it will
ce from its own weight. If, however,

use of iron for the large work instead
a whole will be sufficiently strong, even
ade exactly according to the plan of the

The like may be said with regard to large
animals. If we could find an animal
nes exceeded in hardness and strength

of other animals as much as iron ex-
such an animal might be of a monstrous
et be exceedingly strong. In like man-

suppose the flesh and bones of a giant
tly superior in hardness and strength
other men, the great size of his body

o objection at all to his strength. The
troverisy therefore, concerning the exis-

ants, must rest on the credibility of the
given by those who profess to have seen

not on any arguments drawn *à priori*.
ipture we are told of *giants*, who were

from the marriages of the *sons of God* with
daughters of men. See ANTEDILUVIANS, § 6.

ge indeed has been differently interpre-
to render it doubtful whether the word

giants does there imply any extraordi-
e. In other parts of scripture, how-

s, with their dimensions, are mentioned
anner that we cannot possibly doubt;
aic of Og king of Bashan, Goliath, and

n. 1 Chron. xx, 4—8. The rev. Mr
ter of Latheron, in Caithness, mentions

atherland the last proprietor of Berry-
who lived in the end of the 15th cen-

measured 9 feet 5 inches high. See
air's Stat. Acc. xvii. p. 27,—30.

NTS, M. LE CAT'S ACCOUNT OF. M.
a memoir read before the Academy of
Rouen, gives the following account of

are said to have existed in different a-

ine historians have given 7 feet of height

their first hero; and in our days we

en 8 feet high. The giant who was

Part II.

shown in Rouen in 1735, measured 8 feet some
inches. The emperor Maximin was of that size;
Shenkus and Platerus, physicians of the last cen-
tury, saw several of that stature; and Goropius
saw a girl who was 10 feet high.—The body of

Orestes, according to the Greeks, was eleven feet
and a half; the giant Galhara, brought from A-

rabia to Rome under Claudius Cæsar, was near
10 feet; and the bones of Secondilla and Pusio,

keepers of the gardens of Sallust, were but six
inches shorter. Funnam, a Scotsman, who lived

in the time of Eugene II. King of Scotland, mea-
sured 11½ feet; and Jacob le Maire in his voyage

to the Straits of Magellan, reports, that on the
17th Dec. 1615, they found at Port Desire several

graves covered with stones; and having the curi-
osity to remove the stones, they discovered human

skeletons of 10 and 11 feet long. The chevalier
Scory, in his voyage to the peak of Teneriffe,

says, that they found, in one of the sepulchre
caverns of that mountain, the head of a Guanche

which had 80 teeth, and that the body was not
less than 15 feet long. The giant Ferragus, slain

by Orlando nephew of Charlemagne, was 18 feet
high. Rioland, a celebrated anatomist, who

wrote in 1614, says, that some years before there
was to be seen in the suburbs of St Germain the

tomb of the giant Iloret, who was 20 feet high.
In Rouen, in 1509, in digging in the ditches near

the Dominicans, they found a stone tomb con-
taining a skeleton whose skull held a bushel of

corn, and whose shin-bone reached up to the
girdle of the tallest man there, being about 4 feet

long, and consequently the body must have been
17 or 18 feet high. Upon the tomb was a plate

of copper, whereon was engraved, "In this tomb
lies the noble and puissant lord, the chevalier

Ricon de Vallemont, and his bones." Platerus,
a famous physician, declares, that he saw at

Lucerne the true human bones of a subject which
must have been at least 19 feet high. Valence in

Dauphiné boasts of possessing the bones of the
giant Bucart, tyrant of the Vivarais, who was

slain by an arrow by the count De Cabillon his
vassal. The Dominicans had a part of the shin-

bone, with the articulation of the knee, and his
figure painted in fresco, with an inscription, show-

ing that this giant was 22 feet and a half high
and that his bones were found in 1705, near

the banks of the Morderi, a little river at the foot
of the mountain of Crussol, upon which (tradition
says) the giant dwelt." M. Le Cat adds, that

skeletons have been discovered of giants, of a still

more incredible height, viz. of *Theutobachus* king

of the Teutones, found Jan. 11. 1613, 25½ feet

high; of a giant near Mazarino, in Sicily in 1516,

30 feet; of another in 1548, near Palermo, 30

feet; of another in 1550, of 33 feet; of two

found near Athens 33 and 36 feet; and of one at

Totu in Bohemia, in 758, whose leg bones alone

measured 26 feet! But whether these accounts are

credited or not, we are certain that the stature of

the human body is by no means fixed. We are

ourselves a kind of giants in comparison of the

Laplanders; nor are these the most diminutive

people to be found upon the earth. The Abbé

la Chappe, in his journey into Siberia, to observe

the last transit of Venus, passed through a village

inhabited

inhabited by people called *Wotjacks*, who were not above four feet high. The accounts of the *Patagonians* likewise, which cannot be entirely discredited, render it very probable, that somewhere in South America there is a race of people very considerably exceeding the common size of mankind, and consequently that we cannot altogether discredit the relations of giants handed down to us by ancient authors; though what degree of credit we ought to give them, is not easy to be determined. See *PATAGONIA*.

(4.) *GIANTS*, *REBELLIOUS*, in ancient mythology, the sons of *Cælus* and *Terra*. According to *Hesiod*, they spring from the blood of the ground which *Cæus* received from his son *Saturn*. *Hyginus* calls them sons of *Tartarus* and *Terra*. They are represented as endued with strength proportioned to their gigantic size. Some of them, as *Cottus*, *Briareus*, and *Cyges*, had each 30 heads and 100 arms, and serpents instead of legs. They were of a terrible aspect, and their hair hung loose about their shoulders. *Pallene* and its neighbourhood was the place of their residence. The defeat of the *Titans*, to whom they were nearly related, incurred them against *Jupiter*, and they all conspired to dethrone him. Accordingly they reared Mount *Ossa* upon *Pelion*, and *Olympus* upon *Ossa*; and from thence attacked the gods with huge rocks, some of which fell into the sea and became islands, and others fell on the earth and formed mountains. *Jupiter* summoned a council of the gods; when being informed that it was necessary to obtain the assistance of some mortal, he by the advice of *Pallas* called up his son *Hercules*; and with the aid of this hero he exterminated the giants *Enceladus*, *Polybates*, *Alecyon*, *Porphyrion*, the two sons of *Alceus*, *Rhialtes* and *Othus*, *Eurytus*, *Clytus*, *Typhus*, *Pallus*, *Hippolitus*, *Agrius*, *Thoon*, and *Typhon*; the last of whom it was more difficult to vanquish than all the rest. *Jupiter*, having thus gained a complete victory, cast the rebels down to *Tartarus*, where they were to receive the full punishment of their enormous crimes; according to some of the poets, he buried them alive under Mount *Ætna* and different islands.

(II.) *GIANT'S CAUSEWAY*, in geography and natural history, a vast collection of *Basaltic pillars* in the county of *Antrim* in *Ireland*. See *BASALTES*, § 5. The principal or grand causeway (for there are several less considerable and scattered fragments of them,) consists of a most irregular arrangement of many hundred thousands of columns of a black kind of rock, hard as marble: almost all of them are of a pentagonal figure, but so closely and compactly situated on their sides, though perfectly distinct from top to bottom, that scarce any thing can be introduced between them. The columns are of an unequal height and breadth; some of the highest, visible above the surface of the strand, and at the foot of the impending angular precipice, may be about 20 feet; they do not exceed this height, at least none of the principal arrangement. How deep they are fixed in the strand, was never yet discovered. This grand arrangement extends early 200 yards, visible at low water; how far beyond is uncertain: from its declining appearance, however, at low water,

it is probable it does not extend under distance any thing equal to what is seen. The breadth of the principal causeway runs out in one continued range of columns in general, from 20 to 30 feet; at two it may be nearly 40 for a few yards; account are excluded the broken pieces of the true kind of columns detached from the sides of the range, and they do not appear to have ever been to the principal arrangement, though frequently been taken into the width. It been the cause why many very distinct columns of this causeway have been the highest part is with a row, at the the impending cliff from whence they fall, where, for 4 or 5 yards, it is 10 or 15 feet wide. The columns of this incline from a perpendicular a little ward, and form a slope on their tops, unequal height of the columns on the side when an ascent is made at the foot from the head of one column to the gradually, to the top of the great causeway at the distance of 6 yards from the perpendicular position; and lowering the height, widens to about 20 or 30 feet, and for 100 yards nearly above water. The tops of the columns length being nearly of an equal height a grand and regular parade, that is walked on, rather inclining to the west from high water mark, as it is washed by the beating surges on either side, the platform lowers considerably becomes more and more uneven, so walked on but with the greatest caution at distance of 150 yards from the cliff, it to the east for 20 or 30 yards, and into the sea. The figure of these columns most unexceptionally pentagonal, or 5 sides; there are very few of any other some few are of 3, 4, and 6 sides, but the reality of them are five-sided, and must look very nicely to find any other construction: yet what is very extraordinary there are not two columns in ten to be found, that either have their sides themselves, or whose figures are composed. Nor is the composition of these columns serving attention. They are not of one in an upright position; but composed short lengths, curiously joined, not 1 faces, but articulated into each other socket, or like the joints in the vertebrae of the larger kinds of fish, the one containing a cavity, into which the converse opposite one is exactly fitted. This is able but by disjoining the two stones of the concavity or convexity is not 3 or 4 inches: And the convexity, and respondent concavity, are not conformable to the external angular figure of the columns round, and as large as the size of the column will admit. Consequently, of these columns are in general external the circular edges of the joint are furnished with more than 2 or 3 sides of

d from the edge of the circular part of the o the exterior files and angles they are plain. It is still further very remarkable, the articulations of these joints are frequently 2; in some the concavity is upwards, in the reverse. This occasions that variety of concavities and convexities on the the column, which is observable through the platform of this causeway, yet without considerable regularity with respect to the of either. The length of these particular from joint to joint, is various: in general, 8 to 24 inches, and, for the most part, toward the bottom of the columns than the top, and the articulation of the joints being deeper. The size or diameter of the is as different as their length and figure; and, they are from 15 to 20 inches. There are traces of uniformity discovered throughout the whole combination, except in the form of the which is invariably by an articulation of the into the concave of the piece next above it; nor are there any traces of a finishing part, either in height, length, or breadth, of this curious causeway. If there is here and a smooth top to any of the columns above there are others just by, of equal height, the more or less convex or concave, which seem to have been joined to pieces that have crumbled or by other means taken off. And evidently those parts that are always above the wave, from time to time, been made even; the remaining surfaces of the joints must have been worn smoother, by the constant of weather and walking, than where the every tide, is beating upon it, and continuing some of the upper stones and exposing the joints. As these columns preserve their forms from top to bottom, in all the exterior which have 2 or 3 sides exposed to view, it may be with reason inferred of the interior columns whose tops only are visible. Yet very extraordinary, and equally curious, notwithstanding the universal dissimilitude of the columns, both as to their figure and diameter, and though perfectly distinct from top to bottom, yet is the whole arrangement so closely united at all points, that hardly a knife can be inserted between them either on the sides or

It is really a most curious piece of enter-
tainment, to examine the close texture and mixture of such an infinite variety of angular figures are exhibited on the surface of this grand

From the infinite dissimilarity of the figure of these columns, this will appear a most surprising circumstance to the curious spectator, and incline him to believe it a work of human art; it is not inconceivable, that the invention of man could construct and combine such an infinite variety of columns, which should have a general resemblance, and yet be so universally dissimilar in their figure, as that, from the minutest inspection, not two in 10, or 20,000 should be whose angles and sides are equal among themselves, or of the one column to those of the other. That it is the work of nature, the attentive spectator cannot doubt, who carefully surveys

the general form and situation, with the infinitely various figure of the several parts of this causeway. There are no traces of regularity or design in the outlines of this curious phenomenon; which, including the broken and detached pieces of the same kind, are extremely scattered and confused, and, whatever they might originally, do not at present appear to have any connection with the principal causeway, as to any supposable design or use in its first construction; and as little design can be inferred from the figure or situation of the several constituent parts. The whole is, indeed, extremely confused, disuniform, and destitute of every appearance of use or design in its original construction. But what, beyond dispute, determines its original to be natural, is, that the very cliffs, at a great distance from the causeway, especially in the bay to the eastward, exhibit at many places the same kind of columns, figured and jointed in all respects like those of the grand causeway. Some of them are seen near to the top of the cliff, which in general, in these bays to the E. and W. of the causeway, is near 300 feet in height; others again are seen about midway, and at different elevations from the strand. A very considerable exposure of them is seen in the very bottom of the bay to the eastward, near 100 rods from the causeway, where the earth has evidently fallen away from them upon the strand; and exhibits a most curious arrangement of many of these pentagonal columns, in a perpendicular position, supporting, in appearance, a cliff of different strata of earth, clay, rock, &c. to the height of 150 feet or more, above. Some of these columns are between 30 and 40 feet high, from the top of the sloping bank below them; and, being longest in the middle of the arrangement, shortening on either hand in view, they have obtained the appellation of *organs*, from a rude likeness in this particular to the frontal tubes of that instrument; and as there are few broken pieces on the strand near it, probably the outside range of columns that now appear is really the original exterior line, toward the sea, of this collection. But how far they extend internally into the bowels of the incumbent cliff, is unknown. The very substance, indeed, of that part of the cliff which projects to a point, between the two bays on the E. and W. of the causeway, seems composed of this kind of materials; for besides the many pieces that are seen on the sides of the cliff that circulate to the bottom of the bays, particularly the E. side, there is, at the very point of the cliff, and just above the narrow and highest part of the causeway, a long collection of them seen, whose heads or tops just appearing without the sloping bank, plainly show them to be in an oblique position, and about half-way between the perpendicular and horizontal. The heads of these, likewise, are of mixed surfaces, convex and concave; and the columns evidently appear to have been removed from their original upright, to their present inclining or oblique position, by the sinking of the cliff.

(III.) GIANT'S GRAVE, a village of Ireland, near Sligo, where there are some massive ancient monuments of stone resembling those of STONEHENGE.

(IV.) **GIANT'S HEAD**, a cape on the E. coast of St Christopher's, E. of Ragged Point.

(V.) **GIANT'S LOAD**, a large rock in Louth county, Ireland, supposed to be about 40 tons weight, supported by three irregular bones set upright.

(VI.) **GIANT'S STAIRS**, a large rock near Cove in Cork, Ireland, having the form of steps.

* **GIANTESS**. *n. f.* [from *giant*.] A she giant; a woman of unnatural bulk and height.—I had rather be a *giante*, and lie under mount Pelion. *Shak.*—Were this subject to the cedar, she would be able to make head against that huge *giante*'s. *Howel.*

* **GIANTLIKE**. } *adj.* [from *giant* and *like*.]

* **GIANTLY**. } Gigantik; vast; bulky.—Single courage has often, without romance, overcome *giantly* difficulties. *Decay of Poetry*.—Notwithstanding all their talk of reason and philosophy, which they are deplorably strangers to, and those unanswerable doubts and difficulties, which, over their cups, they pretend to have against Christianity; persuade but the covetous man not to chafe his money, the proud man not to adore himself, and I dare undertake, that all their *giantlike* objections against the Christian religion shall presently vanish and quit the field. *South.*

* **GIANTSHIP**. *s. f.* [from *giant*.] Quality or character of a giant.—

His *giantship* is gone somewhat crest-fallen,
Stalking with less unconscionable strides,
And lower looks. *Milton's Argonites.*

GIARCA, a town of Corsica, 9 m. E. of Calvi.

GIARMAL, a town of Hungary, 20 miles ESE. of Levens.

GIARURA, a town of Candahar.

GIAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, 27 miles W. of Clermont, and SW. of Riom.

GIAVENNA, a town of Piedmont, in the marquise of Susa, at the foot of the Cottian Alps, near the Sangon. It has an ancient wall with four gates; and contains 3000 inhabitants. It is 20 miles E. of Susa, and 14½ W. of Turin.

GIAMI, a town of Sardinia, 21 miles ESE. of Algeri.

GIAMLE. See **GRULE**, N° 2.

GIB, the rev. Adam, minister of the Associate Congregation at Edinburgh, and for many years an useful and active member of that communion, was born on the 7th of April 1714, at Easter Castletown, in the parish of Muckhart, and county of Perth. He was the 9th son of Mr John Gib, of Easter Castletown. He gave very early proofs of a quick capacity, and strong natural parts. His progress in classical learning and philosophical study was considerable; and his natural sound judgment, and close application remarkably qualified him for the conspicuous office which he filled. After completing the usual course of study at the University of Edinburgh, he was licensed to preach in 1740, and ordained in 1741. He wrote several tracts of which the most distinguished were, his *Sacred Contemplations*, in 3 parts; among which his *Essay on Liberty and Necessity* attracted very general attention. He died at Edinburgh on the 18th of June 1788, much regretted by those who knew him well.

GIBBAROW, a river in Doonagel.

* **GIBBE**. *n. f.* Any old worn out and

For who that's but a queen, fair,
Would from a paddock, from a baw,
Such dear conceivings hide? *Shak.*

GIBBEN, a town of Courland, 21 of Pittu.

* **To GIBBER**. *v. n.* [from *jabber*.], inarticulately.—

The sheeted dead
Did squeak and gibber in the Roman

Shak.

* **GIBBERISH**. *n. f.* [Derived by *gabber*, French, to cheat; by others it to be formed by corruption from *jabber* it was anciently written *gebrish*, it is derived from the chymical cant, and applied the jargon of Geber and his tribe the private language of rogues and gips without meaning.—Some, if they hear an old word, albeit very natural and cry out straightway, that we speak it but *gibberish*. *Spenser*.—Some of both ing down a number of letters, just as i to their heads; upon reading this gib which the men had wrote sounded Dutch, and the other by the women *Swift*.

(1.) * **GIBBET**. *n. f.* [gibet, French gallows; the post on which malefactor ed, or on which their carcasses are kept]

When was there ever curied athes
Unto the gibbet, but he did adore

That blessed pow'r which he had set

You standal to the flock of verse,
Able to bring the gibbet in disgrace.

—Haman suffered death himself upon gibbet that he had provided for another.

—Papers lay such principles to the Te they were true, our next business shot rect gibbets in every parish, and hang t the way. *Swift*. 2. Any travestie bear

(2.) **GIBSET**, or **GIBST**. See **GALT** Fr. *gibet*, a gallows, is supposed to be d the Arabic *gibel*, "mountain elevation o as gibbets are usually placed on hills or

* **To GIBBET**. *v. a.* [from this *gib* hang or expose on a gibbet.—

I'll gibbet up his name.

2. To hang on any thing going trave beam of a gibbet.—He shall come swifter than he that gibbets on the tree ket. *Shak. Henry IV.*

GIBBETHON, a city of Palestine, in the country of the Philistines, given to it was taken by the Philistines, and attempted to be retaken, but without

* **GIBBIER**. *n. f.* [French.] Game; —These imposts are laid on all bute while, at the same time, the fowl and tax free. *Addison on Italy*.

GIBBIO, **CASTELLO DI MONTE**, the Cisalpine republic in the dep. of late duchy of Modena; seated on a where wells are dug, from 200 to 250 the waters of which afford a yellowish

off once a fortnight, and is used in var-
embalming, and medicine.

ON, Edward, Esq; a late celebrated
historian, born at Putney in Surrey,
th, 1737. He was the eldest son of Ed-
ward, Esq; and Judith Porten, daughter
Porten, merchant in London. His family
ended from John Gibbon, architect to
III, who possessed lands in Kent. His
on till his 15th year was extremely feeble,
those of his brethren and sisters who all
infancy: and he complains, that "the
his education was broken, as often as he
d from the school of learning to the bed
is." To the care and attention of his
aunt he ascribes his preservation from a
e death. In 1745 he was sent to the
school at Kingston; in Jan. 1749, to
Westminster: and in April 1752, to that of
where he matriculated in Magdalen col-
professors of which he blames greatly
remissness and inattention to his moral
and religious principles. In consequence
became a convert to the Roman catho-
n his 16th year. To cure the young ca-
his errors, and bring him back to the
faith, his father, within 3 weeks after
conversion, (June 30th, 1753) sent him to
Lausanne, and entrusted him to the tutorage
of William, a Calvinist minister at Lausanne,
whom Gibbon mentions with gratitude, as a
valiant preceptor. Under his tuition, he
made progress in the Latin, Greek, and
Hebrew; in history, geography, logic, and
metaphysics; and was also soon reclaimed from
of Popery: so that on Christmas 1754,
he took the sacrament in the church of Lau-
sanne, thus had he communicated with 3 differ-
ent churches before he was 18 years old. These
various opinions however, successively adopted
and rejected, and the repeated changes so rapidly
made from the one to the other, perhaps contri-
buted to weaken our author's faith in revelation,
and led to his final change to Deism, as much
as the use of M. Voltaire's writings, or his
correspondence with that author, to whom he in-
debted himself in 1757. About this time Mr
Gibbon fell in love with Mad. Susan Curchod,
daughter of the minister of Crassy, a lady whom
he considered as possessed of every accomplishment,
both body and mental, that can adorn a woman. But
the consent of the young lady and her pa-
rents was easily obtained, yet his father's tyranni-
cal opposition, which, "after a painful struggle,"
ultimately prevailed, deprived him of this inestimable
source of matrimonial felicity for life. He
thereafter married to a man who will be
remembered in history, as our author is in litera-
ture, the celebrated M. Neckar. In spring
1761 he was recalled to England, and was agreed
on by his father; at whose house at
Hampshire, he finished a work he had
begun at Lausanne, entitled *Essai sur l'étude de la*
which he published in 1761, in 2 vols., in
dedication to his father. Previous to this
he had been appointed a captain in the
shire Militia, in which he served two
years, which was of use to him, by making

him better acquainted with English manners,
principles, and parties, than perhaps he might
otherwise have been. After the peace in 1763,
he went abroad; and after visiting Paris, where he
was introduced to Mess. D'Alembert and Diderot,
returned to his favourite residence at Lausanne.
Having spent some time there, he made the tour
of Italy; and at Rome, on the 15th Oct. 1764,
while musing amidst the ruins of the capitol, the
idea of his great work first started into his mind.
Upon his return to Hampshire in June 1765, he
found his father involved in pecuniary difficulties,
and to relieve him, consented to the sale of part of
the estate. After commencing a history of the
revolutions of Switzerland, which he suppressed,
he engaged in a Journal entitled, *Memoires Lite-
raires de la Grand Bretagne*, and published 2 vols
for 1767 and 1768; but his partner in this under-
taking, a native of Switzerland, going abroad,
when the 3d vol. was nearly finished, the work
was discontinued. Bp. Warburton having about
this time published an interpretation of the 6th
book of Virgil's *Æneid*, he criticised it with equal
asperity and success. But it is thought, that if
the bishop had then possessed his former mental
vigour, he would have chastised Mr Gibbon in
such a manner, as to have made him afterwards
somewhat more modest in his great work; in
which, with all his petulant confidence, he often
shows great inaccuracy in his quotations. Nor
could it well be otherwise, as he himself acknow-
ledges, that he often contented himself with bor-
rowing his quotations, not from the original au-
thors, but at second hand. But the taste of the
times, favouring the spirit of scepticism that ap-
peared in his work, errors of this kind, which in
a defender of Christianity would have been reck-
oned unpardonable, as so many *pious frauds* in-
tended to deceive the reader, were either entirely
overlooked, or considered as very venial faults,
in the *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman*
Empire. Of this work the 1st vol. was published
in 1776, and met with extraordinary success; the
the 2d and 3d vols appeared in 1781; and the
4th, 5th, and 6th, in 1787, established Mr Gibbon's
fame as a historian. Eulogiums were lavished on
him from all quarters, to such a pitch indeed, that
some of them, particularly those of Mr Hume and
Dr Robertson, have even been reckoned *suifome*.
That Mr Hume should have been highly delighted
with a work tending strongly to enforce his own
principles, is not surprising; but the high pane-
gyric bestowed by a *Minister of the Gospel*, upon
a work, one main object of which is to prove that
Christianity is not of divine original, is certainly
quite out of character. Dr Zimmerman repre-
sents Mr Gibbon as even excelling both these emi-
nent historians in point of style. "All the dignity,
(he adds,) all the charms of historic style, are united
in Gibbon; his periods are melody itself, and
all his thoughts have nerve and vigour." But o-
thers, while they give our author full credit for
acuteness of penetration, fertility of genius, luxu-
riance of fancy, elegance of style, harmony of
language, and beauty of epithets," &c. object,
that, "the uniform stateliness of his diction some-
times imparts to his narrative a degree of obscu-
rity, unless he descends to the miserable expedi-

ent of a note to explain the minuter circumstances: and that, "his style on the whole is much too artificial; and this gives a degree of monotony to his periods, which extends almost to the turn of his thoughts." "But a more serious objection (they justly add,) is his attack upon Christianity; the loose and disrespectful manner in which he mentions many points of morality, regarded as important on the principles of natural religion; and the indecent allusions and expressions, which too often occur in the work. An attack upon Christianity is not censurable merely *as such*; it may proceed from the purest and most virtuous motives: but in that case, the attack will never be carried on in an insidious manner, and with improper weapons; and Christianity itself, so far from dreading, will invite every mode of fair and candid discussion. Our historian often makes, when he cannot readily find, an opportunity to insult the Christian religion. Such indeed is his eagerness in the cause, that he stoops to the most despicable pun, or to the most awkward perversion of language, for the pleasure of turning the scripture into ribaldry, or calling Jesus an impostor. Yet of the Christian religion has Mr Gibbon himself observed, that "it contains a pure, benevolent, and universal system of ethics, adapted to every duty and every condition of life." Such an acknowledgment, and from such a writer, too, ought to have due weight with a certain class of readers, and of authors likewise; and lead them seriously to consider, how far it is consistent with the character of good citizens, to endeavour by sly insinuations, oblique hints, indecent sneers, and profane ridicule, to weaken the influence of so pure and benevolent a system as that of Christianity, acknowledged to be admirably calculated for promoting the happiness of individuals and the welfare of society." (*Supplem. to the Encyc. Brit.* Vol. I. p. 707.) Various answers to Mr Gibbon's attack on Christianity, were published by Dr Chelsum, Dr Randolph, Lord Hailes, Dr Watson Bp. of Llandaff, Dr White, Mr Apthorpe, Mr Davis, Mr Taylor, Dr Priestley, and others. To most of these our author, made no reply, though his posthumous memoirs show he felt the weight of these answers, particularly those of Lord Hailes, Dr White, and Mr Taylor. Mr Gibbon's chief arguments on this subject, with satisfactory answers, are inserted under the article CHRISTIANITY, § 8, 9. Notwithstanding our author's zeal for the modern opinions in religion, he was no friend to the new opinions in politics. Being introduced into the House of Commons, as M. P. for Liskeard, in 1774, he uniformly supported administration with his vote, during the American war; and upon the French Revolution he adopted Mr Burke's creed, in every thing but his reverence for church establishments. Soon after the downfall of Lord North's administration, he returned to Lausanne, but his Swiss friend dying, and French politics prevailing in Berne, he left his *Paradise*, as he styled it, and returned to London in June 1793. He did not however enjoy this retreat long. His constitution had suffered much from repeated attacks of the gout, and a swelling of his ancles; and after having been "appressed for a hydrocele, he died at London, ^{gout in his stomach,} on the 16th-Jan. 1794;

in the 57th year of his age. Of his shall only say, that his erudition, his conversation captivating, his memory his penetration uncommon, and his eloquence ready and elegant, though at advantages he was not a public speaker, his private correspondence and journals, seems to have been a dutiful son, a friend, and an affectionate friend.

(1.) * GIBBOSITY. *n. f.* [*gibbus, gibbosus.*] Convexity; prominence; protuberance.—When ships, sailing contrary ways, sight one of another, what should take sight of ships from each other, but the interjacent water? *Ray.*

(2.) GIBBOSITY, in surgery, a protuberance or convexity of the body, as the hump-backed. Infants are much subject to gibbosity than adults, and it exceeds from external than internal cause, blow, or the like, frequently thus a tender bones of infants. When it proceeds from an internal cause, it is generally from a relaxation of the ligaments that sustain the caries of its vertebrae; though the spine is flexed forward, and the vertebrae thus a too strong and repeated action of the muscles. This, if not timely redressed, and fixed as the bones harden, till it is totally irretrievable: but when the disease is recent, and the person young, there is cure. The common method is by a pasteboard, wood, or steel, which presses principally on the gibbous part; long wearing may set all right. There have also a different instrument, called much more efficacious, though not convenient in the wearing. By the use of parts are always prevented from growing, and are often cured. During the application parts should be often rubbed with spermaceti, volatile alkali, or proof spirit, and with a strengthening plaster.

(1.) * GIBBOUS. *adj.* [*gibbus, Lat. French.*] 1. Convex; protuberant; 2. to inequalities.—The bones will rise, &c. *gibbous member. Wifeman.*

A pointed stony rock, all bare and
Grew gibbous from behind the mountain

—The sea, by this access and recess, flung empty shells, wears them away, red that are concave and gibbous to a *Sh. Nat. Hist.* 3. Crook-backed.—I demand camels of Bactria came to have two lumps on their back, whereas the camels of Arabia have one? How oxen, in some countries, continue gibbous, or hunch-backed? *B.*

(2.) GIBBOUS, in astronomy, is used to the enlightened parts of the moon, is moving from the first quarter to the full to the last quarter: for at the dark part appears horned or falcate light one hunched out, convex, or gibbous.

* GIBBOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *gibbus*] Prominence.—To make the countenance discernible, suppose a man lifted in the air, he may have a spacious horizon; but

distance, the convexity and *gibbous* vanish away, and he would only see a flat. *Beattie*.

JAMES, A. M. a celebrated Scottish born at Aberdeen, in 1674. He was Peter Gibbs of Footsculmire, merchant n, who was a Roman Catholic, but a nour; for, parties running high about named his two dogs *Whig* and *Tory*, in both parties;—an offence for which ates of Aberdeen summoned him before condemned the two dogs to be hanged! Young Gibbs was educated at the College, where he took his degree of out 1694, he travelled into Holland, pent some years with an eminent archi- where, in 1700, he was introduced to f Mar; who generously assisted him y and recommendatory letters, to ena- complete himself under the best Italian About 1710, he left Italy and returned , where he found his noble patron in r with the queen. An act being passed ; 50 new churches, Mr Gibbs was employ- re a specimen of his abilities by planning ing St Martin's church, St Mary's in the d several others. Among many other dices planned by him, and built by his ve shall only mention the Radcliffe Libra- rd; the King's College, Royal Library, : House at Cambridge, and the D. of 's monument. He died 5th Aug. 1754, , leaving a fortune of £15,000.

AT. n. f. [*gib* and *cat.*] An old worn-

as melancholy as a *gibcat*, or a lugg'd r.

n. f. [from the verb.] Sneer; hint of y word or look; scoff; act or expres- n; taunt.—

the fleers, the *gibes*, and notable scorns tell in ev'ry region of his face. *Shak.*

The rich have still a *gibe* in store,

be monstrous witty on the poor. *Juv.*
old hate from the bottom of their hearts,
on would be too strong for little *gibes*
ient. *Spectator*.—

ie dean, if this secret should come to his

er have done with his *gibes* and his jeers.

To GIBE. v. a. To reproach by con- hints; to flout; to scoff; to ridicule; th scorn; to sneer; to taunt.—

rioting in Alexandria, you

ket up my letters. and with taunts

my missive out of audience. *Shak.*

the beasts as I describe them,

eir features, while I *gibe* them. *Swift.*

To GIBE. v. n. [*gaber*, old French, to dicule.] To sneer; to join censorious- contempt.—They seem to imagine that ected of late a frame of some new reli- urniture whereof we should not have from our enemies, lest they should af- ough and *gibe* at our party. *Hooker*.—

en he saw her toy, and *gibe*, and geer,
s the bounds of modest merry-make,
ance he despis'd.

Spenser.

Why that's the way to choke a *gibing* spirit,
Whose influence is begot of that loose grace
Which shallow laughing hearers give to fools.

Shakespeare.

Thus with talents well endu'd

To be scurrilous and rude,

When you perty raise your snout,

Flee and *gibe*, and laugh and flout. *Swift.*

GIBEAH, a city of Benjamin, lying N. of Je- rusalem about 20 or 30 furlongs, and built upon a hill, as its name imports. This city gave birth to Saul, the first king of Israel, for which reason it is often called *Gibeab of Saul*.

GIBEL, or **MONT GIBELLO**, the modern name given to Mount *Ætna* by its inhabitants. See *ÆTNA*, and *ETNA*.

GIBELIN, a town of Palestine, 8 m. E. of Gaza.

GIBELINS, or } See **CONRAD III**, **GERMANY**,
GIBELLINS, } § 14, and **GUELPHS**.

(1.) **GIBELLO**, a town of Italy, in the Palavi- cin, 2½ miles NE. of Buffetto.

(2.) **GIBELLO**, **MONT**. See **GIBEL**.

GIBELYN, Count, a French author born in 1725, who wrote a celebrated work entitled, *Le Monde Primitif comparé a Monde Moderne*; for which the French Academy twice awarded him their annual prize of 1200 livres. He died in 1784.

GIBEON, a city seated on an eminence about 40 furlongs N. of Jerusalem, and not far from Gi- beah. See **GABA**. It was the capital of the **GIBONITES**.

GIBEONITES, an ancient nation of Canaan, who, hearing of Joshua's great conquests, saved their lives at the expence of their liberty by a repre- sentation of their belonging to a very remote country, and their desire of making an alliance with the He- brews. See **Joshua**, ix. 3—27. The Gibeonites were descended from the **HIVITES**, and possessed 4 cities; viz. Chephirah, Beeroth, Kirjathjearim, and Gibeon; which were afterwards given to the Benjamites, except the last, which fell to the tribe of Judah. The Gibeonites continued subject to those burdens which Joshua had imposed on them, and were very faithful to the Israelites, till the dispersion of that nation.

* **GIBER. n. f.** [from *gibe*.] A sneerer; one who turns others to ridicule by contemptuous hints; a scoffer; a taunter.—You are well under- stood to be a more perfect *giber* of the table, than a necessary benchman of the capitol. *Shak. Cor.*—

He is a *giber*, and our present business

Is of more serious consequence. *B. Jonf. Cat.*

* **GIBINGLY. adv.** [from *gibe*.] Scornfully; contemptuously.—

His present portance.

Gibingly and ungravely he did fashion

After th' inveterate hate he bears to you. *Shak.*

(1.) * **GIBLETS. n. f.** [According to *Minsheu* from *gobbet*, *gobbet*; according to *Junius* more properly from *gillet*, game, Fr.] The parts of a goose which are cut off before it is roasted.—

'Tis holyday: provide me better cheer:

'Tis holyday; and shall be round the year:

Shall I my household gods and genius cheat,

To make him rich who grudges me my meat?

That he may loll at ease; and pamper'd high,

When I am laid, may feed on *giblet* pie? *Dr. Perf.*

(2.) **GIBLETS** include the heart and liver, with

See

the salt, gizzard, &c. Giblets make a considerable article in cookery: they are boiled and stewed; made into ragouts, giblet-pies, &c.

GIBLOU. See GEMBOUR.

GIBOLDEHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and territory of Eichsfeld; 6 miles N. of Duderstadt.

GIBON, a town of Cuba, 22 m. NE. of Bayamo.

GIBRALEON, a town of Spain, in Seville, on the Odier, 44 miles W. of Seville. Lon. 9. 45. E. 46. Tenersse. Lat. 37. 20. N.

(1. 1.) GIBRALTAR, a famous promontory, or rather peninsula, of Spain, in Andalusia, but belonging to Great Britain. By the ancients it was named *Gaiura*, and was also called one of the *Pillars of Hercules*; by the Arabians it is called *Gebel Tarek*, that is, "the mount of Tarek," from *Tarek*, the name of the Saracen general who conquered Spain in the beginning of the 8th century. The whole is an immense rock, rising perpendicularly about 440 yards, measuring from N. to S. about two English miles, but not above one in breadth, from E. to W.

(2.) GIBRALTAR, a town on the above promontory, (N. 1.) which lies along the bay on the W. side of the mountain on a decline; by which the rains pass through it, and keep it clean. The old town was considerably larger than the new, which at present consists of between 400 and 500 houses. Many of the streets are narrow and irregular: the buildings are of different materials; some of natural stone out of the quarries, some of a facitious or artificial stone, and a few of brick. The people are supplied with fresh provisions chiefly from the coast of Barbary, with fruit, roots, and vegetables of all sorts from thence, or from their own gardens. Besides what is properly called the town, there are several spacious and commodious public edifices; such as barracks for the soldiers, apartments for their officers, magazines of different kinds, storehouses for provisions, &c. The town may be said to have two ports; the first lying to the N. and proper only for small vessels; the other is very commodious for large vessels, and has a fine stone quay. It lies 16 miles N. of Ceuta, 45 SE. of Cadiz, and 70 S. of Seville. Lon. 5. 17. W. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(3.) GIBRALTAR, BAY OF. The bay is very beautiful and capacious, being in breadth about 5 miles, and in length 8 or 9, with several small rivers running into it. It is very advantageous to the place. There is no ground to be found in the middle of it at 100 fathoms depth, so that a squadron may lie there in great safety; the breezes from it are very refreshing; and it contributes likewise to the subsistence of the inhabitants, by supplying them with plenty of fish.

(4.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL ITS CAPTURE BY JOHN DE GUZMAN, IN 1462. This important fortress seems to have been first particularly noticed as a place of consequence in the year 712. At that time the general of the caliph Al Walid landed with an army of 12,000 men, on the isthmus between Mons Calpe and the continent; and that he might secure an intercourse with Africa, ordered a castle to be built on the face of that hill. Part of the building still remains: and from an inscription discovered above the principal gate, ap-

pears to have been finished in 725. It was in the possession of the Saracens till 1462, when it was taken by Perez de Guzman, under Ferdinand IV, king of Castile. In 1533, it was surrendered to the son of the emperor Fez, who came to the assistance of the king of Granada. An attempt was made in 1549 by Alphonso XI, king of Castile, when the fortress had been reduced to extremity, a pestilential fever broke out in the camp, which carried off the king and great part of his army; after which the place was abandoned. The fortress continued in possession of the Saracens of Fez, until when it was taken by Joseph III, king of Granada. A design of attacking it was formed by de Guzman in 1435; but the enterprise miscarried through his imprudence, he was defeated and slain. However, it was at length taken, after a gallant defence, by his son, Guzman in 1462; since which time it has been in the hands of the Christians.

(5.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL IT WAS TAKEN BY THE ENGLISH. In 1540, it was surprised and pillaged by Piali Hay of Barbarossa's corsairs; but the pirates fallen in with some Sicilian galleys, were defeated, and all either killed or taken. In the reign of Charles V. the fortifications of it were modernised, and such additions made to render them almost impregnable. But in consequence of the resolution adopted by the court of Britain, to assist the archduke Charles in his pretensions to the Spanish crown, Sir John Rooke was sent with a powerful fleet to the Mediterranean, and an attempt on Gibraltar resolved upon. On the 21st of July, 1704, 11 ships of the line, 10 frigates, and 10 transports were landed upon the isthmus under the command of Sir John Rooke; and on the refusal of the governor to surrender, a cannonade was begun between the fleet and the town, which lasted in 5 or 6 hours the Spaniards were driven from many of their guns, especially at the rear. The admiral perceiving, that by this part of the fortification, the reduction of the town would be facilitated, ordered out some boats to take possession of it. On their approach the Spaniards sprung a mine, which destroyed part of the works, killed two lieutenants, and wounded about 60 more. Notwithstanding this disaster, the assailants kept possession of the work, and took a small bastion, (now the gun battery,) half way between the mole and the town. On this the governor capitulated, and the prince of Hesse took possession of the town on the 24th. The garrison, consisting of 130 men, was ordered out with the honours of war; and the Spaniards who chose to remain were allowed the privileges they had enjoyed under Charles V. The works were found very strong, and the place provided with ammunition and military stores; yet the capture was held of little value to the British court. See ENGLAND, § 72.

(6.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL THE END OF THE SIEGE IN 1704—5. This was achieved with the loss of about 600 men, and 116 wounded on the part of the English; the prince of Hesse remained governor; and

were left at Lisbon under the command of Sir John Leake, to succour the garrison if there was an occasion. The loss of such an importance, however, having alarmed both the courts of Madrid and Paris, orders were sent to the Marquis de Villadarias, a Spanish grandee, to go to it. The prince of Hesse immediately wrote to Sir John Leake for assistance; but he had no time to comply with his request. A French fleet arrived, and debarked six thousand men to assist the Spaniards; after which they retired to the westward, leaving only six frigates in the bay. The trenches were opened on the 10th, about which time Sir John arrived with five English and Dutch ships; but hearing the French were about to attack him with a superior force, he returned to refit. Having left Lisbon to make preparations for this purpose, he accomplished the work with such exactness that on the 29th he returned, and sent forth the bay 3 frigates, a fire ship, two frigates, a tartan, and a store ship. After receiving some reinforcements, supplied the garrison with six months provisions, and sent on board sailors to assist in repairing the breaches. The Spaniards supposing that the garrison would be able to hold their guard, on account of the vicinity of the sea, formed the rash design of attempting to retake the place though the British admiral forbade it. In this mad attempt 300 brave men, associated, taking the sacrament never to be taken unless they accomplished their purpose, were conducted by a boat-herd to the south side of the rock near the cave-guard. This they did, and lodged themselves the first night in the ruins of St. Michael: the next they scaled the King's Wall; surprised and massacred the garrison on the hill; where afterwards, by ropes and pulleys, several hundreds of the party designed to retake the place were hauled up; but being surprised they were attacked by a party of grenadiers, all either killed or taken. Notwithstanding these misfortunes the Spaniards continued their operations, and fitted out a strong squadron of ships, to intercept the provisions sent to the garrison, expecting that, on the arrival of their reinforcements, they would be obliged to retire, and the place would surrender. They continued their fire with additional fury, dismounted many guns, and did essential injury to the works in several different places. The prince of Hesse, ever, exerted his utmost to disappoint their operations. As it was probable that they would not storm the curtain, a curvette was sent to the ditch, which was filled by the tide, and a row of palisades placed parallel to the ditch, the chambers of the mine under the ditch were loaded; but on a sudden the Spaniards changed their design, and threatened an attack on the flank the garrison had on the declivity of the rock. While affairs were in this situation, the succours they had long expected arrived in the bay, Dec. 7, 1704; and in two days the remainder came in with near 2000 men and a proportionable quantity of ammunition. These had sailed from Cape St. Vincent, and were in danger of falling into the hands of the enemy, whose fleet they mistook for their own; but escaped by being becalmed, so that they could not get up to them. Sir John Leake, having thus powerfully reinforced the garrison, set sail for Lisbon, where he arrived about the end of the year. In the beginning of 1705, the Spaniards were reinforced by a considerable body of infantry, and on the 11th Jan. made an attack on the King's Lines, but were repulsed. The attack was renewed next day by 600 grenadiers, French and Walloons, supported by 1000 Spaniards, under lieutenant-general Fuy. They showed an intention to storm a breach which had been made in the Round Tower at the extremity of the King's Lines, and another in the entrenchment on the hill. The retrenchment which covered the latter, with part of the entrenchment joining the precipice of the rock, was defended at night by a captain, 3 subalterns, and 90 men; but the captain usually withdrew, with two subalterns and 60 men, at day-break. The Round Tower was defended by 180 men, commanded by a lieutenant-colonel. The marquis, by deserters from the garrison, had obtained intelligence of the strength of these posts, and planned his attack accordingly. The detachment for the upper breach mounted the rock at midnight, and concealed themselves in the clefts until the captain had withdrawn; after which, advancing to the point of the entrenchment, they threw grenades on the subaltern and his party, so that they were obliged to leave the place. At the same time 300 men stormed the Round Tower, where lieutenant-colonel Bar made a vigorous defence, though the enemy annoyed them on the flanks with great stones and grenades. Observing, however, the Spaniards marching down to cut off his retreat from the town, he retired; and, by getting over the parapet of the King's Lines, descended into the covered way, where the English guards were posted. Thus the garrison were alarmed; all the regiments were assembled at their proper posts; and captain Fisher endeavoured to stop the progress of the enemy with 17 men, but they were repulsed, and himself taken prisoner. At last, however, the Tower was retaken by lieutenant-colonel Moncal at the head of 400 or 500 men, after it had been in the possession of the enemy upwards of an hour. The garrison were now farther reinforced by six companies of Dutch troops and 200 English soldiers, with provisions and stores. The assailants, however, were still determined to go on. The marquis de Villadarias was superseded by Marischal Tesse a Frenchman, with whom Admiral Pointis was desired to co-operate in blocking up the place. The Marischal joined the army with 4 fresh battalions, besides 8 companies which had been sent before; the ordnance, which had been greatly injured, was exchanged, and the works put into the best repair. On the part of the English, a reinforcement was ordered under Sir Thomas Dokes and Sir John Hardy, to join Admiral Leake at Lisbon: which being effected, the whole fleet, consisting of 28 English, 4 Dutch, and 8 Portuguese men of war, having on board two battalions of land forces, set sail from Lisbon. And happily for the besieged, the incessant rains and storms had retarded the operations of the land forces, and great-

ly distressed the enemy's fleet; 8 of their ships having been forced from their anchors. At this critical period Sir John Leake, with the allied fleet, entered the straits, when the few remaining French ships put out to sea, and he immediately gave chase. Three men of war were taken; the admiral's ship and another driven on shore, and burnt; and the rest made the best of their way to Toulon. The garrison was now so well supplied, that Marischal Tessé withdrew his troops from the trenches, and formed a blockade, drawing an intrenchment across the isthmus to prevent the garrison from ravaging the country. The prince of Hesse remained for some time in the place, where he repaired the batteries, and made fortifications; after which he joined the archduke Charles at Lisbon. As the latter, however, was resolved to try his fortune with the earl of Peterborough in Valencia and Catalonia, the prince was sent back to Gibraltar to prepare part of the garrison for embarkation, and soon after was followed by the whole fleet. Major General Ramos was now appointed governor of Gibraltar, in which only two new battalions were left, as nothing was to be feared from the enemy. In the course of this siege the Spaniards lost 10,000 men including those who died of sickness; while the garrison lost only 400. The new governor brought with him 400 men for the greater security of the place; but soon resigned his government to Col. Roger Elliot, during whose time Gibraltar was made a free port by a special order from queen Anne.

(7.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL THE END OF THE SIEGE IN 1727. Col. Elliot was succeeded by Col. Congreve before 1714, and he by Col. Cotton soon after. In 1720 the Spaniards threatened another attack, but the design was abandoned. At last, however, in the end of 1726, they assembled an army near Algeiras, encamping, on the 26th Jan. 1727 on the plain below St. Roche, and erecting a battery on the beach to protect their camp. Though Adm. Hopson was then at anchor in the Bay of Gibraltar, yet, as he had not heard of the commencement of hostilities between Britain and Spain, he allowed the boats of the latter to pass with provisions, arms, and ammunition, between Algeiras and the camp, at the same time that brigadier Kane, who had been a second time sent from Minorca, lay under similar embarrassments. The operations of the Spaniards, however, seemed to evidently to tend towards an attack, that the governor thought proper to order no part of the militia as yet to enter the town to leave it, and to send nothing more to either under his guns. The comte de Les Domes, commander of the Spanish force, knowing of near 2000 men and 10000 arms and 10000 camp, he advanced within 1000 of the garrison. The governor sent out a detachment to keep out of his reach, and with 1000 men to follow him; but so little the Spanish commander expected, that he thought only to attack the enemy's orders, and having no other expectation, he did not, however, move. On the 1st Feb. 1727, the governor sent out a detachment of 1000 men to the beach, and the British army, which had been sent out, was ordered to follow him, and to keep out of his reach, and to follow him; but so little the Spanish commander expected, that he thought only to attack the enemy's orders, and having no other expectation, he did not, however, move.

Spanish general had commenced hostilities, encroaching so far on the liberties of the British. Still, however, the governor sent to the Spaniards to know the reason of breaking ground upon the British garrison; but received for answer, that it was in his master's territories, and was not subject to any other person for his conduct. This the governor opened the batteries of the New Mole and those of Willis upon the Spaniards; however, they persisted in carrying on their operations, and at night marched a detachment to the Devil's Tower, where they began to open communication with their other works. The governor was now informed by some deserters that the enemy were forming a mine in a trench near Willis's Battery, with a design to blow it up. The plot being thus discovered, a party was immediately stationed to cut off the communication. On the 22d Feb. the Spaniards opened on the garrison with 17 pieces of cannon and mortars; and the day following brought a reinforcement of 1000 men. On the 2d of March the enemy opened a new battery of 22 guns, on the Old Mole; on the 8th another of 15 guns, built upon the same Mole, the guns of which were directed upon the western flank of their approach. At this time the garrison had kept up a constant and well directed fire from the batteries upon the works of the enemy: but the shells being old frequently burst; by which the Spaniards suffered more than from the fire of the batteries. The latter were also greatly distressed by the fire of the enemy's ships. Under Adm. Hopson and Sir Charles W. Boscawen, since the beginning of the siege, had been stationed their home bound ships, and greatly benefited the garrison by bringing tea, prizes into the harbour, and the arrival of a reinforcement from England. They fired to the westward, leaving the garrison to defend themselves the best way they could. The enemy continued to augment their batteries, and erect new ones, until they amounted to 62 cannon besides mortars: and on the 15th of May, the governor received intelligence that a general assault was intended. However, it was deferred on the 16th, when news was received that the preliminaries of a general peace were signed. The course of this siege, therefore, is now computed at near 3000 men, besides the British garrison, which could not be ascertained. The garrison amounted only to 3000; a very small number, considering that during the siege the enemy had 62 cannon besides 30 mortars, both on the batteries,

(8.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, THE
TORIES OVER THE SPANISH FLEET.
For upwards of half a century, no facts
were made on Gibraltar: but the hosti-
lities by the Spanish ambassador
of London, at the commencement of the
war, was soon followed by an inter-
communication betwixt Spain and G.
direct intention of attacking it, howe-
infected till the 10th of July 1794, we
was completely blocked up by a fleet
of 20 gun ships, several frigates, galleys
days after they began to form a camp
below St. Rocco, 3 miles from the G.
garrison at this time consisted of 2,500

officers, with a company of engineers and artillery; but the greatest expectations were formed from the abilities and valour of Gen. Eliott, governor. See ELIOTT. As soon as the breaking of the communication with Spain indicated approaching hostilities, the governor took every precaution that could be suggested by military men; but though informed of the rupture between the two courts, and though he beheld the operations of the enemy, he used no means to interrupt them till the 12th Sept. when the batteries of Green's Lodge, Willis, and Queen Charlotte were opened for a few hours, with a view to disturb the workmen. From this time to the arrival of 1780 the enemy continued the blockade both by sea and land, but without doing any damage to the works or garrison; and it was not till the 12th of January that a single person was killed. This happened to be a woman, who, sitting near one of the houses, was slightly hurt by a shot from the enemy. In the mean time, however, the usual supplies of provisions being cut off, the garrison began to feel all the horrors of famine. All the necessaries of life were very scarce, and to be procured only at most exorbitant prices. Veal, mutton, and beef, sold at from 1s. to 4s. per lb. fresh pork from 2s. to 3s. 1d. beef and pork 1s. 6d. fowls 18s. per couple; 21s.; fire wood, 8s. per cwt.; a pint of brandy and water, 1s. 6d.; a small cabbage, 5s.; and a small bunch of outer leaves, 1s. 6d.; Irish butter 2s. 6d. per lb.; and eggs 6d. each. The rock, however, is almost surrounded by water, it was natural to suppose, that in such a situation of other provisions great benefit would have been derived from the ocean; but the fishermen being all foreigners, and under no regulation, took advantage of the scarcity in the garrison, and exacted a most exorbitant price for the fish. Matters remained long in this state, the fortress must have fallen into the hands of the enemy. They were however, effectually relieved in consequence of the repeated victories gained by Admiral Rodney over the Spanish fleets, on the 8th and 16th Jan. 1780: (See ENGLADD, § 102.) proved equally serviceable to the garrison and a mortal blow to the enemy, who were now in great want of provisions and materials for shipping. News of the last of these important victories reached at Gibraltar on the evening of the 17th, and two days more the garrison was completely relieved by the arrival of the fleet and convoy; they were farther reinforced by a regiment of Highlanders, consisting of 1051 men, officered by Lord. An opportunity was also taken of sending with the fleet all the invalids and women in the garrison; with whom they set sail on the 10th leaving in the bay only the Edgar and Panther ships of the line, with two frigates.

GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEPARTURE OF THE BRITISH FLEET. On the departure of the British fleet the blockade was immediately resumed; and notwithstanding the supplies lately received, the garrison soon began again to experience the want of fresh provisions. It had hitherto received these in abundance from the coast of Barbary; but the friendship of the emperor of Morocco was now trans-

ferred from Great Britain to Spain in a manner totally unprecedented. His partiality towards the latter was the more surprising, as Britain had given no provocation, and the enmity between Spain and Morocco seemed to be founded on such causes as could never cease to operate. Thus, however, the garrison became daily more and more distressed, from being obliged to make constant use of their salt provisions, and even this with the strictest economy. The industry and resolution of the brave British seamen and officers, indeed, sometimes overcame all obstacles, so that they found means to procure the necessary refreshments; though in so doing they were exposed to the utmost danger from the enemy. At the same time the defence of the garrison was so vigorous, that while it continued to be supplied even in this scanty manner, the Spaniards began to lose all hope of reducing it; for which reason they formed a project of burning all the British shipping in the bay. The night fixed for executing this scheme was the 6th of June 1780, when ten fire ships, favoured by an uncommon darkness, stood over from the Spanish to the British side of the bay. Their design was to set fire to the store-houses and shipping nearest the water side; but having been too precipitate in firing their ships, they met with a very heavy cannonade, and the attempt was frustrated. On this occasion the skill and intrepidity of the British seamen was eminently displayed. Having manned their boats, they grappled the fire-ships already in flames; and, notwithstanding the danger of their exploding, towed them clear of the vessels under the walls, and extinguished them. The failure of this project was a grievous disappointment to Don Barcelo the Spanish admiral, who lay ready with his squadron to intercept the British vessels that might attempt to escape; while the batteries on their lines were ready to bombard the town, if the fire-ships had succeeded in causing any conflagration on shore. The failure of this attempt was soon followed by other disasters. As soon as they had, with great labour, constructed new batteries, they were destroyed by the besieged; and their mortification on these occasions was the greater, as the governor allowed them to complete their works before he commenced his destructive operations. Thus the labour of many days was often lost in a few hours, and was again resumed with as little prospect of success as before. The garrison were now considerably annoyed by the Spanish gun-boats, to which indeed the shipping were equally exposed. These were vessels from 30 to 40 tons burden, constructed so that they lay low in the water, which rendered them difficult to be aimed at. They had 15 oars on a side, carried 40 or 50 men, with a 26 pounder on the prow; and, from the facility of managing them, two were deemed, in calm weather, to be a match for a frigate of moderate size. All their efforts, however, could only reduce the garrison to great straits for want of provisions; and to this dreadful inconvenience the British submitted with the most stoical resignation. From Adm. Rodney's departure in Feb. 1780 to October, almost the only provisions in the garrison were such as tended to produce the scurvy; which accordingly re-

ged in such a manner as to threaten the most fatal consequences. The allowance of salt provisions had hitherto continued undiminished; but now it was judged necessary to reduce the allowance of bread and meat, and to enforce the strictest economy with regard to food. Every thing of this kind that could be practised, however, seemed insufficient to preserve the garrison from absolute want. In the beginning of 1781 provisions became exceedingly scarce, by the almost total expenditure of the public stores, and the vigilance of the enemy's cruisers. About the middle of February the bakers left off work for want of flour; and many of the poorer sort wanted bread. The price of fresh provisions again rose to a most enormous height. Small pigs sold at two guineas: turkeys at three; geese at 30s.; fowls and ducks at 10s.; damaged biscuit 1s. per lb.; pease, 18d.; and all other necessaries in proportion; while the scarcity of fuel was such, that it was sometimes scarcely procurable in quantity sufficient to dress their victuals. The garrison had hitherto derived assistance occasionally from the gardens on the neutral ground, though vast quantities of vegetables had been removed thence by the enemy. Towards the end of October 1780, however, the Spaniards expelled the British from these gardens entirely. From this time the supply of vegetables depended entirely upon cultivation; which, happily for the garrison, was attended with such success, that the produce came at last to be nearly equal to the demand. At last, on the 12th April 1781, supplies were brought by the British fleet under Adm. Darby, Digby, and Ross, though they could not be got in without great difficulty. The gun boats were now much increased in number and strength; infesting the bay in such a manner as greatly to interrupt the debarkation of the stores. As no vessels of the same kind had been prepared to oppose them, they could scarce be prevented from effecting their purpose of burning the storeships. With this view they had approached them every morning in hazy weather to the number of between 20 and 30, several of them carrying mortar-pieces; and as they used both sails and oars, they eluded all pursuit, by withdrawing on the rise of any breeze. To keep off these troublesome guests several stout frigates were stationed along the bay to protect the shipping; but notwithstanding the activity of the British sailors, it was seldom that they could come near enough to do them any damage. In spite of all their endeavours, however, the garrison was effectually relieved; which so irritated the court of Spain, that they determined to exert their utmost force rather than fail in obtaining their favourite object. The works before the town were therefore carried on with more vigour than ever, and the most tremendous preparations made to cause the obstinate garrison feel their resentment. Their batteries were mounted with guns of the heaviest metal, and mortar-pieces of the largest size; the number of the former augmented to near 200, of the latter to upwards of 80. For 3 weeks this prodigious artillery continued to pour forth an almost incessant shower of shot and shells, insomuch that they consumed 200,000 lb. of gunpowder, and threw into the town 4, or 5,000 shot and

shells every 24 hours. By such an bombardment the town was almost totally ruined. The inhabitants experienced every that could arise from the destruction of habitations: several of them were killed or forced to leave the town, and take their tents with what accommodation could be had for them in such scenes of horror and confusion. Numbers took the opportunity with the fleet; while many that remained reduced from a state of opulence to want. The conduct of Governor Eliott humane and compassionate, allowing them a free passage to England, and supplying provisions for the voyage. During this time, not only the greater part of the effigies to the inhabitants were destroyed, but confiscations were in many places greatly injured; the remainder was destroyed by the soldiers had arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness they neither regarded nor would obey the laws. They were incited to this destructive conduct by the advice of some of the inhabitants, who hoarded up and concealed a quantity of articles, to procure an advanced price for them now, therefore, kept no bounds in waste, and extravagance; a remarkable proof of which is given by Captain Drake, that he roasted a pig by a fire made of gunpowder. To put a stop to these atrocious proceedings measures were of necessity adopted; it was intimated, that any soldier caught being drunk or asleep upon his post, or marauding, should be immediately executed. The loss of human lives during this bombardment was less than might have been expected. By the beginning of June 1781, the enemy relaxed considerably in their firing, seldom firing 600 shot in a day; and continued gradually to diminish this number so remarkably, that by the end of August they seldom fired in and only discharged 6 or 7, and sometimes none at all, in the night. The batteries, however, were succeeded by the gun-boats, renewed their attacks every day, keeping the garrison in continual alarm, and never failing to execute more or less execution. To restrain the force, a battery of guns capable of throwing shot to a great distance was erected as near as possible to the enemy; and as it reached the camp, it was determined to open it upon them as often as the gun-boats made their attack being soon perceived, they thought it prudent to desist in some measure from that mode of attack. They continued still, however, to improve their works, and for this purpose employed engineers both of France and Spain; so that by the end of November 1781, they had them brought to such a state of perfection, as filled the Spaniards with the most sanguine expectations. Gov. Eliott, however, far from being dismayed at these formidable bulwarks, sufficient to proceed without molestation to the execution of his scheme, that he might in a moment do the labour of so many months, and thus render the disappointment the greater. In the night of 27th Nov. a chosen party of 2000 men landed, by the assistance of the Spaniards, and

and their success was equal to their most
 expectation. They marched out in great
 and silence about 3 o'clock A. M. under
 general Ross; after which they proceed-
 in the same circumspection, but with the ut-
 elerity, to the enemy's works, which they
 and overthrew with astonishing rapidity.
 paniards were instantly thrown into confu-
 and fled on every side; the guns and mor-
 the batteries were all spiked up; and the
 y-men, artificers, and sailors, exerted them-
 vigorously, that in an hour the magazines
 down up, the storehouses of arms, ammu-
 and military implements, and all the works
 had been constructed, were set on fire, and
 consumed; the whole damage done on this
 being estimated at upwards of two mil-
 sterling. For several days after this disaster
 paniards continued inactive, without even
 any attempt to extinguish their batteries,
 still continued in flames; but in the begin-
 December, as if suddenly aroused from
 torie, upwards of 1000 men were set to
 prepare a great number of fascines, from
 it was concluded that they designed to
 their works. In this they proceeded with
 perseverance and diligence; but as the
 methods of attack had constantly failed, it
 was, that if the place could be reduced at
 all be by some means hitherto unattempt-
 for the reduction of this single fortress,
 the monarch determined to employ the
 strength of his empire. Among the various
 formed, that of the chevalier D'Arcon, a
 engineer, proved the most acceptable,
 the expence attending it was immense.
 was to construct such floating batteries as
 either be liable to be sunk nor set on fire.
 view their bottoms were made of the
 timber, and their sides of wood and cork
 and in water, with a layer of wet sand be-
 tween. Their thickness was such, that they
 were impenetrable to cannon shot; and to prevent
 the escape of red-hot balls, a number of pipes were
 fitted to carry water through every part of the
 and pumps sufficient to furnish a constant
 for the purpose. The people at the batte-
 were sheltered from the bombs by a rope-net-
 work sloping, that they might roll off, and
 with wet skins to prevent fire. Ten of these
 were constructed out of the hulls of large
 ships of 50 or 60 guns, cut down for that
 purpose and carrying from 10 to 28 guns each.
 The half as many in reserve, in case of ac-
 tion. Each gun was served by 36 artillery-
 men. These floating batteries were to be se-
 cured by 80 large boats carrying guns and mor-
 tar heavy metal; a great number of ships of
 the line, frigates, with some hundreds of small
 boats to accompany them with troops, for
 the execution of what might be judged ne-
 cessary. On this occasion upwards of 1000 pieces
 and 80,000 barrels of gunpowder were
 sent. A body of 12,000 of the best troops of
 the army were now added to the Spanish army be-
 sieging; the body of engineers was the best
 the kingdom could produce; and numbers
 of the best families in both, attended
 them. Many military gentlemen also came

from various parts of Europe, to be witnesses of
 what passed at this celebrated siege, which was
 now compared to the most famous recorded in
 history. The conducting of it was committed to
 the duke of Crillon; who had distinguished himself
 by the conquest of Minorca. Two princes of the
 blood royal of France, the count of Artois, and
 the duke of Bourbon, came to be witnesses of this
 extraordinary enterprise. These behaved with the
 greatest politeness both to the governor and garrison.
 The count of Artois transmitted a packet of letters
 for various individuals in the garrison, which had
 been intercepted and carried to Madrid, and which
 he requested that he might be the means of convey-
 ing to those for whom they were designed. Both
 he and the duke of Bourbon signified to general
 Elliott the high regard they had for his person and
 character; and the duke of Crillon expressing the
 same sentiments, intreated him to accept of some re-
 freshments. Gen. Elliott returned a polite answer,
 but accepted of the present with reluctance, and re-
 quested him for the future not to confer any favours
 of that kind upon him. Such a prodigious armament
 raised the confidence of the besiegers so high, that
 they looked upon the conquest of the place as an
 absolute certainty; and the commander in chief
 was thought by far too modest, when he said, that
 the garrison might hold out a fortnight. "It ap-
 peared (says Captain Drinkwater) that they meant,
 previous to their final efforts, to strike if possible
 a terror through their opponents, by displaying an
 armament more powerful than had probably ever
 been brought before any fortress. Forty-seven sail
 of the line, including three inferior two deckers;
 ten battering ships, deemed perfect in design, and
 esteemed invincible, carrying 212 guns; innumera-
 ble frigates, xebecs, bomb ketches, cutters, gun
 and mortar boats, and smaller craft for disembark-
 ing men, were assembled in the bay. On the land
 side were most stupendous and strong batteries and
 works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance,
 and protected by an army of near 40,000 men,
 commanded by a victorious and active general. In
 their certainty of success, however, the enemy
 seemed entirely to have overlooked the nature of
 that force which was opposed to them; for though
 the garrison scarcely consisted of more than 7000
 effective men, including the marine brigade, they
 forgot that they were now veterans in this service,
 had long been habituated to the effects of artille-
 ry, and were by degrees prepared for the arduous
 conflict, that awaited them. We were at the
 same time commanded by officers of approved
 courage, prudence, and activity; eminent for all
 the accomplishments of their profession, and in
 whom we had unbounded confidence. Our spirits
 too were not a little elevated by the success attend-
 ing the firing of red hot shot, which in this attack
 we hoped would enable us to bring our labours to
 a conclusion, and relieve us from the tedious cruel-
 ty of a vexatious blockade." This was suggested
 by lieutenant-governor Boyd, and on the 8th Sept.
 1782, their advanced works were almost destroy-
 ed by it. But as a prelude to the dreadful storm
 which was about to be poured forth on this gar-
 rison, the enemy on the 9th Sept. opened a bat-
 tery of 64 of their largest cannon, accompanied
 with a terrible fire from other batteries, and a
 great

great number of mortars. On this and the following day an attack was made upon the batteries erected on EUROPA POINT, which at that time were entirely under the management of Captain Curtis of the Brilliant frigate, who had distinguished himself, and commanded a brigade of seamen by whom the batteries were served. By these the fire of the Spaniards was so warmly returned, that they not only could make no impression, but were forced to retire, after being so much damaged, that two of their principal ships were obliged to withdraw to the bay of Algeiras to refit. On the 12th the enemy made preparations for their grand and decisive attack. Accordingly, on the morning of the 13th, the 10 floating batteries came forward, under Don Buenventura de Moreno, a Spanish officer of great gallantry, who had signalled himself at the capture of Minorca. Before ten o'clock they had all got into their proper stations, anchoring in a line about 1000 yards from the shore. They then began a heavy cannonade, and were seconded by all the cannon and mortars in the enemy's lines and approaches, at the same time that the garrison opened all its batteries both with hot and cold shot from the guns, and shells from the howitzers and mortars. This terrible fire continued on both sides without intermission until noon; when that of the Spaniards began to slacken, and the fire of the garrison to obtain a superiority. About two o'clock the principal battering ship, commanded by Don Moreno was observed to emit smoke as if on fire, and some men were seen busy upon the roof, searching from whence it proceeded. The fire from the garrison was now kept up without the least intermission or diminution, while that from the floating batteries was perceived sensibly to decrease: so that about 7 P. M. they fired but few guns, and these only at intervals. At midnight the principal's ship was seen on fire, and an hour after was completely in flames. Eight more of these batteries took fire successively; and on the signals of distress made by them, the multitude of relances, launches, and boats, with which they were surrounded, all came to their assistance, and began to take the men out of the burning vessels. Captain Curtis, who lay ready with the gun-boats to take advantage of any favourable circumstance, came upon them at two A. M. and forming a line on the enemy's flank, advanced upon them with such expedition as to throw them into immediate confusion. At this unexpected attack they were so astonished and disconcerted, that they fled precipitately with all their boats, totally abandoning their floating batteries to be burnt, and all who were in them to perish in the flames. This would undoubtedly have been their fate, had not Capt. Curtis extricated them from the fire at the imminent risk of his own life and that of his men. In this work he was so eager, that while his boat was along-side of one of the largest batteries, it blew up, and the fragments of the wreck spreading all around to a vast distance, some heavy pieces of timber fell into his boat and pierced through its bottom, killing one man and wounding several others. He escaped with difficulty out of this boat, which was sunk, as well as another, by the accident. The floating batteries were all consumed; and the violence with which they exploded was such, that

doors and windows at a great distance on shore burst open. About 400 people were saved; many of whom were picked up from rafts and pieces of timber. Indeed the blow of the batteries as the flames reached their rooms, and the discharge of the guns in such as the metal became heated by the fire, rendered an attempt to save them very dangerous. This catastrophe took place in sight of the fleets of France and Spain. It had been proposed that they should co-operate upon this important occasion, by attacking the garrison at Europa and such places as appeared most exposed to tempt by sea: which must have occasioned a partial division of the garrison's force, and have weakened considerably the vigorous defence used in those parts which were attacked. The reason assigned for this was the want of wind.

(10.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TO THE YEAR 1783. Though this terrible repulse convinced the Spaniards that Gibraltar could be taken by force, some hope still remained without any further exertions on their part the garrison would be obliged to surrender from want of ammunition and provisions. With this they continued to blockade it closely, and cut off all communication, flattering themselves that Britain would not be able to collect a fleet sufficient to drive their fleet from the bay. The fortress was reduced to extremity; and they imagined must be the case in a few days. Such diligence, however, had been used by a part of the British, that a fleet was already assembled at Portsmouth, consisting of 25 sail of the line, in excellent condition, and filled with the best officers and sailors in Europe. The command was given to Lord Howe, accompanied by Admirals Barrington, Milbank, Hood, Sir John Hughes, and commodore Hotnam, all of whom were of their profession. At the same time a large fleet of merchantmen had just arrived from the Baltic; and a Dutch squadron had been cruising on their own coasts, unable to penetrate southwards to join the British, had retired into port, and given up the idea of effecting any junction for that season. At the same time the progress of the ships was delayed by contrary winds, and it was not until they had reached the southern coast of Portugal, that they received information of the defeat of the enemy's fleet on the 13th Sept. On the 11th Oct. Lord Howe entered the Straits, and several of the ships destined for Gibraltar came fire to anchor, and the cannon of the fort, without any molestation from the enemy. The combined fleet in the bay had been much damaged by a storm; two more were driven out of the bay into the Mediterranean; others lost their masts, and many of them suffered considerably. One in particular, a ship of 70 guns, was carried by the storm to the bay, and ran aground under the works of Gibraltar, where she was taken by the garrison. Her whole complement of men, consisting of 1000, notwithstanding the endeavours of the British to destroy her, she was safely got off, and repaired. The combined fleet, however,

the 13th, with a view to prevent the rest of the ships that had overshot the bay to the making good their entrance into it; and the time to rejoin the two ships that had separated from the main body by the storm. At the advantage of the wind, they bore down upon the British fleet, which drew up in battle to receive them; but notwithstanding their superiority, they declined coming to an action. On the wind becoming more favourable the next day, Lord Howe took the opportunity to bring in the storeships that were in command the day following the remainder were sent to Gibraltar, the troops for the reinforcement of the garrison were landed, with a supply of powder, and provisions. As they passed through the Straits they were threatened with engagement by the combined fleets; but the latter had a superiority of 12 ships of the line, they kept at a wary distance. Some action indeed took place, but it was attended with no effect on either side. This last relief proved decisive; for though the blockade continued, news arrived of the preliminaries of peace signed, in the beginning of February, 1783, no attack was made. The news of the peace were received with the utmost joy by the British. Mutual civilities passed between the commanders in chief, and the duke of Crillon by handsome compliments to the governor of Gibraltar for their noble defence; declaring that he had exerted himself to the utmost of his ability and though he had not proved successful, was happy in having his sovereign's approbation of his conduct.

GIBRALTAR, IMPORTANCE OF, TO GREAT BRITAIN. Gibraltar is esteemed of very great consequence to Britain. It not only gives the command of the Straits, and their navigation, but affords refreshment and accommodation to our fleets in time of war, and to our merchantmen at all times. It hinders a ready communication by sea between the different ports of France and Spain, it hinders the junction of their fleets and squadrons, or at least renders it so difficult as to put a perpetual check upon the ambition of these powers.

It awes also the piratical states of Barbary, and the emperor of Morocco; insomuch, that commerce is more safe than that of any other European power, which gives us great advantage in point of freight. It is otherwise highly valuable to our trade in the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. It procures us the respect of the Indian and other powers; who, though far distant, consider this as an instance of her power, and do not hurt or assist them. It also saves us the expense of squadrons and convoys, upon any disturbances that may happen among the powers, and which would otherwise be necessary for the protection of our navigation.

GIBRALTAR, POPULATION OF. The inhabitants, exclusive of the British subjects dependent on the garrison, or who reside there from occupation, consist of some Spaniards, a few Genoese, a considerable number of Genoese, but as many Jews; making in the whole, according to Dr Campbell, between 2, and 3,000, not reckoning the garrison, which usually con-

sists of between 3, and 4,000 men; but during the last siege was double that number.

(13.) **GIBRALTAR, STRAITS OF,** a narrow sea, which forms the communication between the Atlantic ocean and the Mediterranean, thereby dividing Europe from Africa; and runs from W. to E. about 13 leagues. In this strait there are 3 remarkable promontories or capes on the Spanish side, and as many opposite to them on the Barbary side. The first of these, on the side of Spain, is Cape Trafalgar, opposite to which is Cape Spartel; and in the neighbourhood of this stood the fortress of Tangier, once in the possession of the British. The next on the Spanish side is Tarifa; and over against it lies Malabata, near the town of Alcazar, where the straits are about 5 leagues broad. Lastly, Gibraltar, facing the mountain of Abyla, near the fortress and town of Ceuta, which make the eastern entry of the straits.

(11.) **GIBRALTAR,** a town of South America, in Terra Firma, and prov. of Venezuela, E. of Lake Maracaibo; famous for excellent cocoa and tobacco. It was burnt by the French in 1679. It lies 50 miles SSE. of Maracaibo. Lon. 49. 50. W. of Ferro. Lat. 10. N.

(1.) **GIBSON,** Dr Edmund, bishop of London, was born at Knipe in Westmoreland, in 1669. He early displayed his knowledge in several writings and translations, which recommended him to the patronage of Abp. Tension, who appointed him his domestic chaplain; and soon after rector of Lambeth, and archdeacon of Surry. Becoming thus a member of the convocation, he defended his patron's rights, as president, in 11 pamphlets; he then completed his scheme of the legal duties and rights of the English clergy, under the title of *Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani*, in folio. Abp. Tension dying in 1715, and Dr Wake, bishop of Lincoln being made Abp. of Canterbury, Dr Gibson succeeded him in the see of Lincoln, and in 1720 was promoted to the bishopric of London. He was extremely jealous of the privileges of the church; and therefore, continually opposed all attempts to repeal the test acts. But his laudable opposition to those licentious assemblies, called *masquerades*, gave great umbrage at court, and effectually excluded him from all further favours. He spent the latter part of his life in publishing letters, charges, occasional sermons, and tracts against the prevailing immoralities of the age. His pastoral letters are justly esteemed masterly productions against infidelity and enthusiasm. His other publications are, 1. An edition of Drummond's *Polemica Middinia*, and James V's *Canonica Rustica*, with notes. 2. The *Chronicon Saxonum*, with a Latin translation, and notes. 3. *Reliquia Spelmaniana*, the posthumous works of Sir Henry Spelman, relating to the laws and antiquities of England. 4. An edition of *Quintilian de Arte Oratoria*, with notes. 5. An English translation of Camden's *Britannia*, with additions, 2 vols. folio: and, 6. A number of small pieces, that have been collected and printed in 3 vols. folio. He died, aged 70, in Sept. 1748. With regard to his character, he was a true friend to the established church and government, and as great an enemy to persecution. He was usually consulted by the most learned and exalted personages in church and state, and the greatest

greatest deference was paid to his judgment. He possessed the social virtues in an eminent degree; his beneficence was very extensive; and he had so much justice as well as generosity, that he freely gave 2,500*l.* left him by Dr Crow, who was once his chaplain, to Crow's own relations, who were very poor.

(2.) GIBSON, RICHARD, an English painter, commonly called the *Dwarf*, was originally page to a lady at Mortlake; who, observing that his genius led him to painting, generously got him instructed in that art. He devoted himself to Sir Peter Lely's manner, and copied his pictures to admiration. His paintings in water colours were also esteemed. He was in great favour with Charles I. who made him his page of the back-stairs; and he had the honour to instruct in drawing Q. Mary II. and Q. Anne, when they were princesses. He married Anne Shepherd, who was also a dwarf; on which occasion K. Charles I. honoured their marriage with his presence, and gave away the bride. Mr Waller wrote a poem on this occasion, intitled "The Marriage of the Dwarfs;" in which are these lines:

"Design or chance makes others' wife,
"But nature did this match contrive;
"Eve might as well have Adam fled,
"As the deny'd her little bed
"To him, for whom heav'n seem'd to frame
"And measure out this only dame."

Mr Fenton, in his notes on this poem, observes that he had seen this couple painted by Sir Peter Lely; and that they were of an equal stature, each being 3 feet 10 inches high. However, they had 9 children, 5 of whom arrived at maturity, well proportioned, and of the usual standard of mankind. But what nature denied this couple in stature, she gave them in length of days; for Mr Gibson died in the 75th year of his age; and his wife, having survived him almost 20 years, died in 1709, aged 89.

* GIBSTAFF. *n. f.* 1. A long staff to gage water, or to shove forth a vessel into the deep. 2. A weapon used formerly to fight beasts upon the stage. *Dub.*

* GIDDILY. *adv.* [from *gidly*.] 1. With the head seeming to turn round. 2. Inconstantly; unsteadily.—

To roam

Giddily, and be every where but at home,
Such freedom doth a banishment become. *London.*

3. Carelessly; heedlessly; negligently.—

The parts that fortune hath bestow'd upon her,
Tell her, I ho'd as *giddily* as fortune. *Shakefp.*

* GIDDINESS. *n. f.* [from *giddy*.] 1. The state of being giddy or vertiginous; the sensation which we have when every thing seems to turn round.—Merrims and *giddiness* are rather when we rise after long sitting, than while we sit. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—This blessed thistle, which is so sovereign a medicine against the *giddiness* of the brain; 'tis thus will settle it. *Holyday.*

Vain show and noise intoxicate the brain,

Begin with *giddiness*, and end in pain. *Young.*

2. Inconstancy; unsteadiness; mutability; changeableness.—There be that delight in *giddiness*, and count it a bondage to fix a bias. *Bacon.* 3. Quick rotation; inability to keep its place.—The indig-

nation of Heaven rolling and turning length such a *giddiness* seized upon; that it fell into the very dregs of *lethargy*.

4. Frolic; wantonness of life.—

Thou, like a coquette painter
Charitably warn'd of thy fine, do't
These vanities and *giddinesses*.

GIDDRI, a town of Albania, 2 *m* Alessio.

* GIDDY. *adj.* [*gidig*, Sax. I know whether this word may not come from *guder*, to be in motion, *gad*, *gid*, *giddy*,] ginous; having in the head a whirl, of circular motion, such as happens by drunkenness.—

Them rev'ling thus the Tentyri
By *giddy* heads and flagg'ring legs;
Tate

1. Rotatory; whirling; running round rotary.—

As Ixion fix'd, the wretch shall
The *giddy* motion of the whirling mill

3. Inconstant; mutable; unsteady; ch
Our fancies are more *giddy* and un
More longing, wavering, sooner lost
Than womens are. *Shakefp. Temp.*

—It may be gnats and flies have their
more mutable and *giddy*, as small birds
have. *Bacon.*—

Thanks to *giddy* chance, which we
That mortal birds should last for length
She cast us headlong from our high
And here in hope of thy return we sit
Dryden

The *giddy* vulgar, as their fancies
With noise say nothing, and in parts
Dryden

—You are as *giddy* and volatile as eve
verse of Pope, who hath always loved a
life. *Swift to Gay.* 4. That which cau
sees.—

The frequent errors of a pathless way
The *giddy* precipice, and dang'rous fall

5. The sylpha through mystic mazes
way,

Through all the *giddy* circle they purf
5. Heedless; thoughtless; uncautious;

Too many *giddy* foolish hours are g
And in fantastick measures danc'd awa
—How inexcusable are those *giddy* creatu
in the same hour, leap from a parent's w
a husband's bed. *Clarissa.* 6. Tuttering;

As we have pac'd along

Upon the *giddy* footing of the hatches,
Methought that G. o'fter stumbled.

7. Intoxicated; elated to thoughtlessne
come by any overpowering intoxicment.—
not *giddy* with the fash'on too, that thou ha
out of thy tale into telling me of the fashio

Like one of two contending in a pri
That thinks he hath done well in peopl
Hearing applause and universal shout,
Giddy in spirit, gazing still in doubt,
Whether those peals of praise be his or n

* To GIDDY. *v. n.* [from the noun.]
quick. Obsolete.—

A sodaine North-wind secht,

extreme sea, quite about againe.
 ble endeavours; and our courtes constrain
 round.

GIDDYBRAINED. *adj.* [*giddy* and *brain*.] thoughtless.—Turn him out again, you y, useless, *giddy-brain'd* ass! *Osway's* *ferret*.

GIDDEADED. *adj.* [*giddy* and *head*.] thought or caution; without steadiness.

Sooner may a gulling weather spy,
 ring forth heav'n's scheme delirious
 than 'd hats or ruffs, or furs, next year,
 discarded antick youth will wear. *Deane*.
 en are so misaffected, melancholy, *giddy*—
 ar the testimony of Solomon. *Burton on*

GIDYACED. *adj.* [*giddy* and *pace*.] Motion regularity.—

than light airs, and recollected turns,
 most brisk and *gidyaced* times. *Shak*.
 J, a town of Asia, in Cabulistan; 50 m.
 bul.

GIN, [גין, Heb. *i. e.* a destroyer.] the
 son, a Manassite, who had a very extra-
 tali to deliver the Israelites from the op-
 of the Midianites. Having effected their
 by supernatural aid, he was chosen
 Isra-1, A. M. 2759, and died in 2793.
 s vi. vii. and viii.

HEHRI, a town of Natolia.

HA, a town of Russia, in Viborg.

a town of France, in the department of
 miles N. of Orleans.

CHENSTEIN, a town of Lower Sax-
 e duchy of Magdeburg, 1 m. N. of Halle.

KULISZKI, a town of Samogitia, 24 m.
 enne.

LOYCE, a town of Lithuania, in Wilna,
 6 NW. of Wilna.

INGEN, a town of Norway, in Chris-
 18 miles NW. of Stavanger.

UM, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus,
 J. of Christiania.

a town of France, in the dep. of Loiret,
 rovince of Orleans, on the Loire; con-
 out 4,200 citizens. It is 33 miles SE. of
 and 76 of Paris. Lon. 2. 43. E. Lat. 47.

JEN, an imperial town of Suabia, on
 z; 20 miles W. of Donauwert, and 28
 Augsburg. Lon. 27. 51. E. Ferro. Lat.

OR, or } a town of Barbary, in Tripoli,
OR, } 10 miles S. of Tripoli.

a river of France, which runs into the
 miles below Lyons.

CE, an episcopal town of Naples, in
 Itra, containing 13 churches, and 4 mo-
 34 miles N. of Reggio, and 62 SSW. of
 l.

NONY, a town of Lithuania, in Wilna,
 E. of Lida.

EAGLE. *n. s.* [Sometimes it is written
 An eagle of a particular kind.—These
 not be eaten, the swan and the pelican,
 r-eagle. *Lev. xi. 18.*

PART II.

GIESCHENHAGEN, a town of Germany, in
 Holstein, 1 mile NW. of Segeborg.

GIESIM, a town of Nubia, between Sennaar
 and Abyssinia, 150 miles ESE. of Sennaar.

GIESMANSDOERF, a town of Sicilia, in Neisse,
 3 miles WNW. of Neisse.

GIESSEN, a strong town of Germany in Hesse
 Cassel, on the Lahn, with a citadel, arsenal, and
 university. It is 6 miles E. of Wetzlar, 16 WSW.
 of Marburg, and 36 NE. of Mentz. Lon. 8. 41.
 E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

GIÉZ, a river of France, in the dep. of Rhone
 and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnais.

GIÉZIN, a town of Samogitia, 22 miles ESE.
 of Rokenne.

GIFANIUS, Obertus, or Hubert, LL. D. a
 learned critic and civilian, born at Bueren in Guel-
 derland, in 1534. He studied at Louvain and Pa-
 ris, and erected the German Library at Orleans,
 where he took his degree, in 1567. He taught
 civil law and philosophy at Strasburg, Altdorf, and
 Ingoldstadt, and wrote several tracts, besides com-
 ments on ancient authors. Though bred a Pro-
 testant, he turned Roman Catholic, and was made
 counsellor to the Emperor Rodolph. He was very
 avaricious, and is accused of suppressing the MSS.
 of Fruterius, a youth of extraordinary genius,
 who died at Paris, aged 25, and left them to his
 care. Gifanius died at Prague in 1604.

GIFFAUMONT, a town of France, in the dep.
 of the Marne, 12 miles SE. of Vitry.

GIFFEN, or **GUFFEN,** a river of Wales, in
 Caernarvonshire, running into the Conway.

(1.) **GIFFORD,** Andrew, D. D. an eminent
 English divine and antiquarian, born Aug. 17th,
 1700. He was the son of Emanuel Gifford, mi-
 nister of the Baptist church at Bristol, and was e-
 ducated at Tewksbury, under the rev. Mr Jones,
 and the celebrated Dr Ward. He joined his fa-
 ther's church, and was baptised in 1723; preach-
 ed to the meeting at Nottingham in 1725; and
 was ordained and settled at London, Feb. 5, 1730.
 In 1731, Sir Richard Ellys appointed him his
 chaplain. In 1754, the Marischal college of Ab-
 berdeen presented him with a diploma, creating
 him D. D. He was also admitted a member of
 the Society of Antiquaries, and, in 1757, was ap-
 pointed assistant Librarian to the British Museum.
 He was much esteemed as a pathetic and evange-
 lical preacher; and died 19th June, 1784, leaving
 his museum and library to the Baptist Academy at
 Bristol.

(2.) **GIFFORD,** a village of Scotland, in East Lo-
 thian, in Yester parish, containing about 400 in-
 habitants in 1790.

(3.) **GIFFORD,** a small river in East Lothian, re-
 markable for an extraordinary flood on the 4th
 Oct. 1755, which carried down many trees and
 most of the bridges in the parish of Yester, though
 no uncommon quantity of rain had previously
 fallen.

GIFHORN, a town of Germany, in Lunen-
 burg-Zell, on the Aller, 19 miles E. of Zell.

GIFONI, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra,
 7 miles ENE. of Salerno.

(1.) * **GIFT.** *n. s.* [from *give*.] 1. A thing given
 or bestowed; something conferred without price.

H h h

—Thy

—They presented unto him *gifts*, gold, and frankincense and myrrh. *Mat. ii. 11.*—

Recall your *gift*, for I your pow'r confess;
But first take back my life, a *gift* that's less.

Dryd. Aureng.

3. The act of giving.—

Creator bounteous, and benign,
Giver of all things good, but fairest this
Of all thy *gifts*, nor envyest. *Milton.*

Ther all things living gaze on, all things thine
By *gift*. *Milton.*

4. The right or power of bestowing.—

They cannot give;

For had the *gift* been theirs, it had not here
Thus grown. *Milton.*

—No man has any antecedent right or claim to that which comes to him by free *gift*. *South.* 4. Oblation; offering.—Many nations shall come with *gifts* in their hands, even *gifts* to the king of heaven. *Job. xiii. 17.* 5. A bribe.—Thou shalt not wrest judgment, thou shalt not respect persons, neither take a *gift*; for a *gift* doth blind the eyes of the wise. *Deut. xvi. 19.* 6. Power; faculty.—

And if the boy have not a woman's *gift*,
To rain a shower of commanded tears,
An onion will do well for such a shift. *Shak.*

She was lovely to attract

Thy love, not thy subjection, and her *gifts*
Were such as made government well seem'd
Unseemly to bear rule. *Milton.*

—He who has the *gift* of ridicule, finds fault with every thing that gives him an opportunity of exerting his talent. *Addison.*

(1.) *GIFT*, (*Donatus*) in law, is a conveyance which passeth either in lands or goods; and is of a larger extent than a grant, being applied to things moveable and immoveable; yet as to things immoveable, when taken strictly, it is applicable only to lands and tenements given in tail; but *gift* and *grant* are too often confounded.

(2.) *GIFTS*, NEW YEAR'S. See *STRENÆ*, and *YEAR*.

* *GIFTED*. *adj.* [from *gift*.] 1. Given; bestowed.—

Maid of my enemies the scorn and gaze,
To grind in brazen fetters, under task.
With my heav'n *gifted* strength. *Milt. Agon.*

2. Endowed with extraordinary powers. It is commonly used ironically.—Two of their *gifted* brotherhood, Hacket and Coppinger, got up into a pease cart, and harangued the people to dispose them to an insurrection. *Dryden*.—There is no talent so pernicious as eloquence, to those who have it not under command: women, who are so liberally *gifted* by nature in this particular, ought to study the rules of female oratory. *Add. Freeb.*

(1.) * *GIO*. *n. f.* [Etymology uncertain.] 1. Any thing that is whirled round in play.—Playthings, as tops, *gigs*, and battledores, should be procured them. *Locke*. 2. [*Gigia*, *Islandic*.] A riddle. Now out of use.

(2.) *GIG*, } *GIGG*, or *JIG*, in music or dance.

(1.) *GIGA*, } cing, a gay, brisk, sprightly composition, and yet in full measure, as well as the *minuet*, which is more serious. *Manège* takes the word to arise from the Italian *giga*, a musical instrument mentioned by *Dante*. Others suppose it to be derived from the Teutonic *gig*, or *glugke*,

“a riddle.” This is a favourite air in nations of Europe: its characteristic is a marked $\frac{6}{8}$, or $\frac{12}{8}$: it consists of two bars out any determinate number of bars.

(2.) *GIGA*, in geography. See *GIGANTICK*. *adj.* [*gigantes*, Lat.] to a giant; big; bulky; enormous; like ed; atrocious.—

Others from the wall descend
With dart and jav'lin, stones, and fire;
On each hand slaughter and *gigantic*

I dread him not, nor all his giant brood
Two' fame divulg'd him father of fire
All of *gigantick* race, Goliath chief.

The son of Hercules he justly seen
By his broad shoulders, and *gigantic* De.

The Cyclopean race in arms arise
A lawless nation of *gigantick* foes.

GIGANTOMACHY, *n. f.* in the war of the giants. See *GIANT*, §

GIGEAU, a town of France, in the Hérault, 7 miles S. of Montpellier.

GIGG. See *GIG*.

* To *GIGGLE*. *v. n.* [*gigelen*, D.] laugh idly; to titter; to grin with mirth. It is retained in Scotland.—

We flew our present joking, *giggle*
True joy consists in gravity and *grin*
Garrick

* *GIGGLER*. *n. f.* [from *giggle*.] a titterer; one idly and foolishly merry
A tad wife vaunter is the brave cox
That leads the van, an' i swallows up
The *giggler* is a milk-maid, whom
Or the fir'd beacon, frighteth from

GIGGLEWICK, a town in the W. Yorkshire, half a mile from Settle, on a moor, at the foot of a mountain, is a most noted in England for ebbing & sometimes thrice in an hour, and the tides three quarters of a yard at the red the sea is 30 miles off. At this town next free grammar school; and near it of flags, slate, and stone, with a good

(1.) *GIGHA*, *GIGA*, or *GIGO*, a Scotland, on the W. coast of Kintyre shire, 11 miles ESE. of Ilay; 7 miles NE. to SW. and 2½ broad. The soil is arable. The W. coast is high and the E. there are several dangerous inlets well as some good harbours for small fish, particularly lobsters, crabs, cod-zor or spout fish, abound on the shore, weighing from 6 to 16 lb. each, ling, large haddocks, &c. also about high duty on salt prevents any export from being carried on. In 1790, 3 b men were employed in this fishing, a sent to market, and in 1791, 8 bo 60 people are employed in the ber There is a regular ferry between *Gig tyre*. Before the late repeal of the carried coastwise, fuel was so scarce, prietors allowed the people to cut

d meadow grounds; and "in many
ys the rev. Mr W. Frazer, "the rocks
scalped, so as to make the sight very
e to the eye." The population in 1792,
fer's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 592;
of horses was 160, and that of black

There are several caves and cairns on
and it abounds with excellent spring wa.
it has neither lakes nor rivers. Nothing
the view from Gigha in variety and
affording a prospect of Ireland, Ilay,
ba, Dana, Mull, Arran, Cowal, Kin-
the Atlantic Ocean, with ships con-
ng in different directions. Lon. 2. 35.
n. Lat. 55. 40. N.

SHA AND CARA, a parish of Scotland,
ire, consisting of these two islands. See
1 N° 1. In both, the soil is fertile, ve-
rick, and the air salubrious. Oats, bar-
otatoes, are produced more than suffi-
he inhabitants; besides pot herbs, and
is spun and sold. The total population
ish in 1792, was 614 souls; and had in-
so, since 1755. The total number of
165, and that of black cattle 570. A
and swine are also reared. All the in-
are of the established church, and most
the names of Galbraith and McNeil.
uage is the Gaelic.

L.E.T. *n. f.* [*geyrl* Saxon; *gyl*, Dutch;
utth, is still retained.] A wanton; a
girl. Now out of use.—

ing Talbot was not born
the pillage of a *giglet* wench. *Shak.*
fam'd Cassibelan was once at point,
let fortune! to master Cæsar's sword.

Shak Cymbel.
with those *giglets* too, and with the other
te companion. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*

O, an island on the coast of Sienna in
15 miles W. of Port Hercole, and 33
Alva. Lon. 11. 16. E. Lat. 42. 23. N.

AC, a town of France, in the dept. of
seated on the Herault, 13½ miles W. of
er. Lon. 21. 23. E. Ferro. Lat. 43.

Y, a town of France, in the dept. of Ju-
e Surain; 7½ miles SW. of Orgelet.

. See GIGHA, N. 1.

OT. *n. f.* [French.] The hip joint. It
mean in *Chapman* a joint for the spit.—

The inwards slit,
roil'd on coales, and eate: the rest, in
ots cut, they split. *Chapman.*

LUM, a small island of Scotland, be-
gha and Cara.

N, in ancient geography, one of the ri-
nadiæ: according to Wells, the eastern
the Euphrates, into which it divides af-
ction with the Tigris.

I, a sea port of Spain, in Asturia, with
t castle; formerly the residence of K.
and his successors. It is 18 miles N. of

Lon. 11. 5. E. Teneriff. Lat. 43. 32. N.

J, or GHILAN, a considerable province
lying on the SW. side of the Caspian
s supposed to be the HYRCANIA of the

It is very agreeably situated, having

the sea on one side and high mountains on the o-
ther; and there is no entering it but by narrow
passes, which may easily be defended. The sides
of the mountains are covered with many sorts of
fruit trees, and in the highest parts of them there
are deer, bears, wolves, leopards, and tigers;
which last, the Persians have a method of taming,
and hunt with them as we do with dogs. Gilan
is one of the most fruitful provinces in Persia;
and produces abundance of silk, oil, wine, rice,
and tobacco, besides excellent fruits. The inha-
bitants are brave, and of a better complexion than
the other Indians; and the women are extremely
handsome. Resht is the capital.

GILARZA, a town of Sardinia, SE. of Bosa.

GILATTELK, a town of Transylvania.

GILBERT, or William, a physician, born
(1.) GILBERT, at Colchester, in 1540, the
eldest son of the recorder of that borough. Ha-
ving spent some time in both universities, he went
abroad; and at his return settled in London, where
he practised with considerable reputation. He
became a member of the college of physicians,
and physician in ordinary to Q. Elizabeth, who
gave him a pension. He was also physician to K.
James I. He died in 1603, aged 63, in Colches-
ter, where a handsome monument was erected to
his memory. His books, globes, instruments,
and fossils, he bequeathed to the college of phy-
sicians, and his picture to the school gallery at Ox-
ford. He wrote, 1. *De Magnete, magneticisque corpo-
ribus, et de magno magnete tellure, physiologia nova*;
Lond. 1600, fol. 2. *De mundo nostro sublanari, phi-
losophia nova*; Amsterdam, 1651, 4to. He also in-
vented two mathematical instruments for finding
the latitude at sea without the help of sun, moon,
or stars. A description of these instruments was
afterwards published by Thomas Blondenille in
his *Theoriques of the planets*.

(2.) GILBERT, Sir Humphrey, a brave officer
and skilful navigator, born about 1535, in Devon-
shire, of an ancient and honourable family. He
inherited a considerable fortune from his father.
He was educated at Eaton and Oxford. Being
introduced at court by his aunt Mrs Catherine
Ashley, then in the queen's service, he was diver-
ted from the study of the law, and commenced
soldier. Having distinguished himself in several
military expeditions, particularly that to Newha-
ven, in 1563, he was sent over to Ireland to assist
in suppressing a rebellion; where, for his signal
services, he was made commander in chief and
governor of Munster, and knighted by the lord
deputy, Sir Henry Sidney, Jan. 1, 1570. He re-
turned soon after to England, where he married
a rich heiress. In 1572, he sailed with a squadron
of 9 ships to reinforce Colonel Morgan, who me-
ditated the recovery of Flushing. In 1576, he
published his book on the NW. passage to the
East Indies. In 1578, he obtained an ample pa-
tent, empowering him to possess in N. America
any lands then unsettled. He sailed to Newfound-
land, but soon after returned to England without
success; nevertheless, in 1583, he embarked a se-
cond time with five ships, the largest of which put
back on account of a contagious distemper on
board. He landed on Newfoundland on the 31
Aug. and on the 5th took possession of the har-
bour

bour of St John's. By virtue of his patent, he granted leases to several people; but though none of them remained there at that time, they settled afterwards in consequence of these leases; so that Sir Humphrey deserves to be remembered as the real founder of the vast N. American empire. On the 20th of Aug. he put to sea again on board a small sloop; which on the 27th foundered in a hard gale of wind. Thus perished Sir Humphrey Gilbert; a man of quick parts, a brave officer, a good mathematician, a skilful navigator, and of a very enterprising genius. He also was remarkable for his eloquence, being much admired for his patriotic speeches in the English and Irish parliaments. His work entitled "A discourse to prove a passage by the north-west to China and the East Indies," is a masterly performance, and is preserved in Hakluyt's collection of voyages, vol. iii. p. 21. The style is superior to most, if not to all, the writers of that age; and shows the author to have been a man of considerable reading.

GILBERTINES, an order of religious, thus called from St Gilbert of Sempringham, in Lincolnshire who founded it about 1148: The monks observed the rule of St Augustine; and were accounted canons; and the nuns that of St Benedict. The founder erected a double monastery, or rather two contiguous to each other, the one for men, the other for women, but separated by a very high wall. He founded 23 monasteries of this order, viz. 4 for men alone, and 9 for men and women together, which had in them 700 brethren and 1500 sisters. At the dissolution there were about 25 houses of this order in England and Wales.

GILBERT'S ISLAND, an island near the SW. coast of Terra del Fuego. Lon. 71. 7. W. Lat. 55 13. S.

GILBERTSTOWN, a town of Virginia, 30 m. N. of Charlottesville.

GILBOA, in ancient geography, mountains of Samaria, stretching from W. to E. on the confines of the half tribe of Manasseh, and of the tribe of Issachar; and to the S. of the valley of Jezreel, beginning westward at the city of Jezreel, at the foot of these mountains, reaching almost quite to the Jordan, 6 miles from Scythopolis. They are famous for the death of Saul and Jonathan, and the defeat of the Israelites by the Philistines.

GILCHRIST, Dr Ebenezer, an eminent Scots physician, born at Dumfries in 1707. He studied medicine at Edinburgh, London and Paris; and obtained the degree of M. D. from the university of Rheims. In 1732, he returned to Dumfries, where he practised medicine till his death. Few physicians of the 18th century have exercised their profession in a manner more respectable or successful than, Dr Gilchrist. Endowed by nature with an acute judgment and an active genius, he soon distinguished himself by departing from established but unsuccessful modes of practice. Several of his improvements have procured him great and deserved reputation at home and abroad. His usefulness was not confined to his own neighbourhood. He was often consulted by letter from the most distant parts of the country. In different collections are to be found several of his valuable performances: But those which do him the great-

est honour, are two dissertations on Nerves, in the Medical Essays and Observations published by a Society in Edinburgh; and on the use of Sea voyages in medicine; in 1757, and 1771. By the former, the art of physicians was first turned to a track which is now found to prevail universally in every country; and the liberal use of wine, was the first among the moderns to be adopted in these fevers; and has since been adopted in these fevers by judicious physicians of the present age. His use on sea voyages proves from experience its utility in various distempers, particularly the scurvy. Dr Gilchrist died in 1774.

GIL'D, or GILD. See GILD.

* To GILD, v. a. pret. *gilded*, or *gilt* Saxon; 1. To wash over with gold, with tinctured gold.—

The room was large and wide,
As it to me *gilt* or solemn temple was
Many great gilded pillars did uprear
The misty roof.

To *gilt* refined gold, to paint the
To throw a perfume on the violet.

Shak

And the *gilded* ear of day
His glowing axle doth allay
In the deep Atlantick stream.

Partaking with our time and we
We seek our freedom in a *gilded* snare

When Britain, looking with a just
Upon this *gilded* majesty of Spain,
And knowing well that empire must
Whose chief support and sinews are

Her joy in *gilded* chariots, when all
And love of ombre after death pursues

2. To cover with any yellow matter.—

Thou did'st drink

The stale of horses and the *gilded* pux
Which beasts would cough at.

Shak. Ant

3. To adorn with lustre.—

No more the rising sun shall *gild* th
Nor evening Cynthia fill her silver horn

Pope

4. To brighten; to illuminate.—The
passion of joy was not that trivial, van
pericious thing, that only *gilds* the app
and plays upon the surface of the so
5. To recommend by adventitious orna

For my part, if a lie may do thee
I'll *gild* it with the happiest terms I can

Shak

Yet, oh! th' imperfect piece move
light;

'Tis *gilded* o'er with youth, to catch
Dryden's

GILDAS, surnamed *the Wise*, a celest
tish monk born in Wales in 512. Who
educated is uncertain. Some say he was
Ireland; others, that he visited France
All agree, that after his return to E
became a most assiduous preacher of t
Du Pin says he founded a monastery at
Britain. Gildas is the only British au
6th century whose works are printed.
ry of Britain is valuable on account of

as containing the only information we concerning the times of which he wrote; his style is inelegant.

MEHAUSZ, a town of Germany, in the Westphalia, 3 miles SW. of Benheim.

GILDER. *v. s.* [from *gild*.] 1. One who lays the surface of any other body.—*Gilders* have a piece of gold in their mouth, to be the spirit of the quick-silver. *Bacon's Nat. Ve* have here a *gilder*, with his anvil and *Broome*. 2. A coin, from one shilling hence, to two shillings. *Phil.*—

I am bound

et fia, and want *gilders* for my voyage. *Shak.*

GILDING. *v. s.* [from *gild*.] Gold laid surface by way of ornament.—Silvering ly and canker more than *gilding*, which, ight be corrected with a little mixture of here is profit. *Bacon's Phys. Rem.*—The of the Annunciation, all but one corner covered with statues, *gilding*, and paint. *on Italy.*—

ould laureate Dryden Pimp and Fry'rengage, I not strip the *gilding* off a knave, plac'd, unpension'd, no man's heir or slave?

Pope.

GILDING signifies also the art of spread-covering a thing over with gold, either in liquid.

GILDING, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS AND MODS OF. This art was known among the *Es*, though it never arrived among them at *fection* to which the moderns have carried *ney* assures us, that the first gilding seen at *was* after the destruction of Carthage, under *eforship* of Lucius Mummius, when they to gild the ceilings of their temples and *;* the Capitol being the first place on *this* enrichment was bestowed. But he *that* luxury advanced on them so hastily, *a* a little time you might see all, even *nd* poor persons, gild the very walls, vaults, *f* their houses. We need not doubt but *nd* the same method with us, of beating *nd* reducing it into leaves; though they *carry* it to the same height. Pliny relates, *hey* only made 750 leaves of four fingers out of a whole ounce. But he adds, *hey* could make more; that the thickest *alled* *bractes Prænestine*, from a statue of *ne* at Prænestine gilt with such leaves; and *he* thinner sort were called *bractes quæstoræ*. *ncients* had no way to lay the gold on *ho* *nt* would not endure the fire, but with whites *or* size, neither of which will endure the *;* so that they could only gild such places *re* sheltered from the moisture of the weather. *Greeks* called the composition on which they *nd* their gilding on wood *LEUCOPHÆUM* or *serum*; which is described as a sort of gluticom-pound earth, serving in all probability *ke* the gold stick and bear polishing. But *rticulars* of this earth, its colour, ingredients. antiquaries and naturalists are not a-
apon.

GILDING, MODERN METHODS OF. The *ne* gilders also use gold leaves of divers thick-
; but there are some so fine, that a thou-

sand do not weigh above 4 or 5 drachms. The thickest are used for gilding on iron and other metals; and the thinnest on wood. But we have another advantage over the ancients in the manner of using or applying the gold: the secret of painting in oil, discovered in later ages, furnishes us with means of gilding works that shall endure all the injuries of time and weather, which to the ancients was impracticable. The lustre and beauty of gold have occasioned several inquiries, and discoveries concerning the different methods of applying it to different substances. Hence the art of gilding is very extensive, and contains many particular operations and various management. It is divided into true and false gilding.

i. **GILDING, FALSE.** A colour of gold is given by painting and by varnishes, without employing gold. Thus a very fine golden colour is given to brass and to silver, by applying upon these metals a gold-coloured varnish, which, being transparent, shows all the brilliancy of the metals beneath. Many ornaments of brass are varnished in this manner, which is called *gold lathering*, to distinguish them from those which are really gilt. Silver leaves thus varnished are put upon leather, which is then called *gilt leather*. See **LACKER**. Amongst the false gilding may also be reckoned those which are made with thin leaves of copper or brass, called *Dutch leaf*. In this manner are made all the kinds of what is called *gilt paper*.

ii. **GILDING, TRUE.** In the true gilding, gold is applied to the surface of bodies. The gold intended for this purpose ought in general to be beat into thin leaves, or otherwise divided into very fine parts.

(1.) **GILDING OF METALS.** One method of applying gold upon metals is this: The surface of the metal to be gilt is first to be cleaned; and then leaves are to be applied to it, which, by means of rubbing with a polished blood-stone, and a certain degree of heat, are made to adhere perfectly well. In this manner silver leaf is fixed and burnished upon brass in the making of what is called *French plate*, and sometimes also gold leaf is burnished upon copper and upon iron. Gold is applied to metals in several other manners. One of these is by previously forming the gold into a paste or amalgam with mercury. To obtain a small amalgam of gold and mercury, the gold is first to be reduced into thin plates or grains, which are heated red-hot, and thrown into mercury previously heated, till it begins to smoke. Upon stirring the mercury with an iron rod, the gold totally disappears. The proportion of mercury to gold is generally as 6 or 8 to one. With this amalgam the surface of the metal to be gilded is to be covered; then a sufficient heat is to be applied to evaporate the mercury: and the gold is lastly to be burnished with a blood-stone. This method of gilding by amalgamation is chiefly used for gilding copper, or an alloy of copper with a small portion of zinc, which more readily receives the amalgam; and is also preferable for its colour, which more resembles that of gold than the colour of copper. When the metal to be gilt is wrought or chased, it ought to be previously covered with quicksilver before the amalgam is applied, that this may be easier spread: but when the surface

be sufficiently durable: the upper chimney may reach above a foot and a half the level of the fire: over this is a large tube, leaving an interval of six or eight inches all round between it and the chimney, rising to the height of 10 or 12 feet, the better. The external air, passing between the chimney and the outer pipe, prevents from being much heated, so that the fumes will condense against its sides. Quicksilver, which, falling down to the bottom, is there caught in a hollow rim, forming inwards a portion of the lower chimney, conveyed, by a pipe at one side, into a receiver. Some metals, particularly silver, may be gilt in the following manner: Let gold be dissolved in aqua regia. In this solution pieces of silver may be dipped, and burnt to black ashes, being rubbed on the surface of the silver with a wet linen rag, apply the particles of gold which they contain, and which by this means adhere very well. The remaining silver is to be washed off; and the surface of the silver, which in this state does not reflect light, is to be burnished with a blood-stone, to acquire a fine colour of gold. This gilding is very easy, and consumes a small quantity of gold. Most gilt ornaments, such as boxes, and other toys of much value, are nothing but silver gilt.

GILDING OF UNMETALLIC BODIES. As gold does not adhere well merely by contact to other unmetallic substances, when gold is applied to the surface of an unmetallic substance, the surface must be previously covered with a sticky and tenacious substance by which the gold may be made to adhere. These substances are called *sizes*. Some of these are animal and vegetable glues, and others of mineral and drying matters. Upon them the gold is applied, and pressed down with the finger or a hard's foot: and when the work is to be finished and polished, a hard instrument, called a *dog's tooth*,

When the work is required to be capable of resisting rain or moisture, it ought to be prepared with a composition of drying oil and turpentine ground together: otherwise a water varnish, which is prepared by boiling turpentine or white leather in water, and adding to this some chalk or whiting: several layers of this size must be laid upon the wood, and a layer of the same size mixed with red lead. Lastly, another mixture called *gold size*, applied above these; upon which the gold leaf is to be fixed. This gold size, the purpose of which is to make the gold leaf capable of adhering, is composed of tobacco-pipe clay mixed with some ruddle or black lead, and thickened with a little tallow or oil of olives. The surface may be gilt by applying first a very thin varnish, upon which the gold leaf is to be laid when the varnish is hardened, may be removed. This varnish is prepared by boiling turpentine with linseed oil in a brass vessel over a slow fire, and by diluting the varnish with 4 or 5 times its quantity of oil

of turpentine; and that it may dry sooner, it may be ground with some white lead. Gold leaf may also be applied to glass, porcelain, and other vitrified matters. As the surface of these matters is very smooth, and consequently is capable of a very perfect contact with gold leaves, these leaves adhere to them with some force, although they are not of a metallic nature. This gilding is so much more perfect, as the gold is more exactly applied to the surface of the glass. The pieces are then to be exposed to a certain degree of heat, and burnished slightly to give them lustre. A more substantial gilding is fixed upon glass, enamel, and porcelain, by applying to these substances powder of gold mixed with a solution of gum arabic, or with some essential oil, and a small quantity of borax; after which a sufficient heat is to be applied to soften the glass and the gold, which is then to be burnished. With this mixture any figures may be drawn. The powders for this purpose may be made, 1. By grinding gold leaf with honey, which is afterwards to be washed away with water. 2. By distilling to dryness a solution of gold in aqua regia. 3. By evaporating the mercury from an amalgam of gold, taking care to stir the mass near the end of the process. 4. By precipitating gold from its solution in aqua-regia, by applying to it a solution of green vitriol in water, or some copper, and perhaps some other metallic substances.

(1.) GILEAD, the son of Machir, and grandson of Manasseh. His posterity had their inheritance allotted them in the mountains of Gilead, so named from him.

(2.) GILEAD, a descendant of the above mentioned patriarch, and the father of JEPHTHAH.

(3.) GILEAD, BALM OF. See N° 4. and AMYRIS, y 3, 4.

(4.) GILEAD, MOUNTAINS OF. The mountains of Gilead were part of that ridge which runs from Mount Lebanon southward, on the east of the Holy Land; gave their name to the whole country which lies on the east of the sea of Galilee, and included the mountainous region, called in the New Testament, TRACHONITIS. Jer. (xxii. 6.) seems to say, that Gilead begins from mount Libanus. Jacob, at his return from Mesopotamia, came in six days to the mountains of Gilead, (Gen. xxxi. 21. &c.) where this patriarch, with Laban his father-in-law, raised a heap of stones, in memory of their agreement and covenant, and called it *Galead*, i. e. "an heap of witnesses," and which Laban called *Jegar jubadutba*. These mountains were covered with trees abounding with gum, called the *balm of Gilead*, which the Scripture commends much. (Jer. viii. 21. xvi. 11. li. 8.) The merchants who bought Joseph came from Gilead, and were carrying balm into Egypt, Gen. xxxvii. 25.

GILEADITES, the descendants of GILEAD. Being invaded by the Ammonites, &c. they chose Jephthah for their general, who vanquished all their enemies.

(1.) GILES, John, D. D. and M. D. a native of St Albans, who flourished in the 13th century, and was the first Englishman who entered among the Dominicans. He was physician in ordinary to

... of Montpellier.
... *Egidius*.
... of Edinburgh,
... in the 6th cen-
... illustrious family.
... gave all his estate
... France, where he
... the conflux of the
... there 3 years.
... of extraordinary
... were attributed to him;
... in Languedoc, known
... of *St Giles's*. In the reign
... of Gorton, whose descen-
... in the country of Edin-
... of an arm of this saint;
... to the church of Edin-
... for this donation, the magis-
... charter in favour of Mr Preston's
... the nearest heir of the name of
... to carry it in all processions.
... themselves to found an altar in
... *St Giles's*, and appoint a chaplain
... in annual mass for the soul of Mr
... likewise, that a tablet containing his
... account of his pious donation, should
... the chapel.

AI, in ancient geography, a place be-
... and Jordan, noted for the first en-
... of the Israelites on this side Jordan, a-
... from Jericho. It sometimes also de-
... Josua xii. 23.

AIT, a town of Prussia, in Smoland.

ALPNBURG, a town of Prussia, in Ober-
... SSW. of Königsberg.

AMER, or **GELMER**, a prince of the
... descended of Genesic. See **BARBARY**,

ANSTAIN, a town of Cheshire.

JOHN, D. D. a Protestant dissent-
... of the Baptist denomination, the son
... Gill, a deacon of the Baptist church at
... in Northamptonshire, was born at
... Nov. 23, 1697. He was early sent to
... school in the neighbourhood; where
... soon surpassed boys much his seniors.
... through the common school books,
... of the Latin classics, and made great
... in the Greek language. His celebrity
... scholar, and his strong attachment to books,
... observed by the neighbouring clergy,
... met and conversed with him at a
... schooler's shop, to which he almost constantly
... for reading; which gave rise to a pro-
... saying, "Such a thing is as certain, as
... John Gill is in the bookseller's shop." He
... the grammar school, however, early, owing
... the bigotry of his master, who insisted, that
... children of dissenting parents, as well as those
... that belonged to the establishment, should attend
... him to church. To pave the way, therefore,
... for the completion of his studies, without such
... conformity, efforts were made by several mini-

... of different denominations, to get him upon
... funds in London. But the same spirit
... red these applications fruitless.
... of learning, however, being in-

vincible, these difficulties could neither
... ardent desire of knowledge, nor damp
... application. For though his time was
... voted to the business of his father; yet
... far improved his leisure hours, as to be
... he was 19, to read all the Greek au-
... thors that fell in his way. He studied
... toric, moral and natural philosophy;
... the Hebrew language so as to read it
... without any other assistance than Bux-
... mar and lexicon. Neither the pursu-
... ing, however, nor his other necessary
... could eradicate those religious impres-
... ved in early life. On Nov. 1, 1716,
... public profession of his faith before
... church at Kettering, and was baptiz-
... Thomas Wailis. Of this church Mr
... been long a member before he was ca-
... ministry: soon after which, he removed
... am Ferrers, to pursue his studies un-
... vis; but his stay there was soon inter-
... invitation to London, to preach to
... church at Horslydown, over which he
... ed pastor, in 1719, which office he ful-
... wards of 51 years. Mr Gill had not be-
... London before rabbinical learning, of
... had acquired considerable knowledge,
... object of pursuit. To facilitate his
... through the intricacies of this labyrinth,
... traced an acquaintance with one of
... learned Jewish rabbis. He read the
... the Talmuds, the Rabbot, their ancient
... taries, the book Zohar, and whatever
... kind he was able to procure. Of the
... languages he made himself a complete
... flant, there was no branch of know-
... could either enlarge or enrich biblical
... which he did not attempt and attain:
... be truly affirmed, that in this line, the
... literature do not exhibit a character by
... was excelled. In 1743, he published a
... tary on the New Testament, in 5 vols.
... immense reading and learning, discovery,
... arduous work, attracted the attention
... richal College and University of Aber-
... procured for him, without either his
... or his knowledge, a diploma, creating
... This intelligence was communicated to
... in the most handsome terms by professor
... and Pollock; who declared, "that
... of his knowledge of the scriptures, of
... tal languages, and of Jewish antiquity,
... learned defence of the scriptures against
... Infidels, and the reputation gained by
... works; the university had, without
... unanimously agreed to confer on him
... of Doctor in divinity." Dr Gill's senti-
... a divine, were Calvinistic: "And perhap
... (says the rev. Mr Toplady, a minist
... church of England) since the days of A
... written so largely in defence of the
... grace; and certainly no man has treated
... mentous subject in all its branches, more
... judiciously, and successfully. What was
... Edward the Black Prince, that he never
... battle which he did not win; what has
... marked of the great Duke of Marlborough,
... he never undertook a siege which he did

justly accommodated to our great and divine; who, so far as the distinctions of the gospel are concerned, I an error which he did not force upon holds, nor ever encountered an error he did not baffle and subdue. and labours, were exceeded only by the sanctity of his life and conversation. His entrance on the ministry to the dissolution, not one of his most industrious was ever able to charge him with shadow of immorality. Himself, his writings, demonstrated that the race does not lead to licentiousness."

sums up Dr Gill's character by observing "while true religion and sound sense are a single friend remaining in the British works and name of Gill will be revered." He died at Camberwell, 18, aged 73 years, 10 months and 10 days. 18 the Doctor married Mrs Elizabeth whom he had many children, two of whom survived him. Mrs Gill died in 1764. 1. A Commentary on the Old and New Testament, in 9 vols fol. 2. A Body of Divinity, 4to. 3. The Cause of God and Man, 8vo. 4. A Treatise concerning the Prophecies of the Old Testament respecting the Messiah. 5. A Dissertation on the antiquity of the Hebrew Language, Letters, Vowel Points, &c. 6. Sermons on the Canticles, folio; a great number of sermons and controversies on different subjects.

GILL. *n. f.* [*agulla*, Spanish; *gula*, Lat.] The gill-plates at each side of a fish's head.—

The leviathan,
like a promontory, sleeps or swims,
as a moving land, and at his gills
spouts out a sea.

Milton.
The form of respiration under water by the gills. He hath two gill fins; not behind the most fishes, but before them. *Walton*.
The eye, of farther passage quite bereft,
The mesh with gills entangl'd left.

King's Fisherman.
The gills that hang below the beak of a fowl. A cock hath great and swelling gills, a hen hath less. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 3. The gill of the chin.—In many there is no pale, but, contrariwise, redness about the gills, which is by the sending forth of the appetite to revenge. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 4. The long bag of flesh hanging down from the chin of the people in Piedmont. *Swift*. 4. [From *gillian*, Latin.] A measure of liquids, the fourth part of a pint.—Every bottle rinsed with wine: some, out of the cask, will rinse a dozen with the wine at every second bottle: some enough. *Swift*. 5. A kind of measure used by the tanners.—They measure their beer by the gill, which containeth a pint. In the northern counties it has half a pint for a measure. 7. [From *gillian*, the old name of writing *Julian*, or *Jubana*.] The name of a woman in ludicrous language.—
PART. II.

I can, for I will,
Here at Burley o' th' Hill,
Give you all your fill,
Each Jack with his Gill. *Ben Jonson's Gypsies*.
8. [*Ciclidonium*.] The name of a plant; ground ivy. 9. Malt liquour medicated with ground ivy. (3.) GILL, in geography, a township of Massachusetts in Hampshire county, on the W. bank of the Connecticut.

(4.) GILLS of Fish. See ZOOLOGY.

GILLEM'S BAY, a bay on the S. coast of St Christophers, half a league W. of Basseterre.

GILLES, Peter, a learned and enterprising French author, born at Albi, in 1490. After studying the Latin and Greek languages, philosophy, natural history, &c. he travelled through France and Italy. In 1533, he dedicated a work to Francis I, wherein he advised that monarch to send learned men to travel into foreign countries for the improvement of science; in consequence of which the king sent Gilles into the Levant. But having received no remittances from France, during his journey, he was at last obliged to enlist for subsistence in the army of Soliman II. In another voyage he was taken by a pirate, and carried into Algiers. By the generosity of cardinal Armagnac, he obtained his liberty; after which he went to his benefactor at Rome; where he died in 1555.

GILLESKAAL, a town of Norway.

(1.) GILLESPIE, the rev. James, D. D. an eminent divine of the church of Scotland, late Princ. of St Mary's College, in the University of St Andrews. He was the son of Mr Jas. Gillespie, Minister of Arngask; born in 1722, and studied at St Andrews, where he received all his academical honours. He was ordained minister of Abdie, in Fifeshire, on the 18th March, 1747; translated to Dumbarny, about 1750; and thence to St Andrews, Nov. 3d, 1757. This charge he resigned, on being appointed Principal, on the 14th Sept. 1779. He married, 1st. Isabella Dick, daughter of Mr W. Dick, minister of Cupar in Fife, in 1748, by whom he had 11 children: and 2d Jean Fortune, daughter of Capt. Geo. Fortune, in 1772, by whom he had 4 children. Of these 12 have survived him. He died 2d June, 1791, aged 69. Twelve Sermons, selected from his MSS. by his successor, Dr G. Hill, and which, (to use the Doctor's words,) form "a valuable accession to the stores of sacred literature," were published after his death, at Perth, in 8vo, 1796; with a prefatory advertisement, from which we extract the following brief sketch of his character, drawn more at large by Dr Hill, in his funeral sermon:—"In the private intercourse of life, he was gentle and amiable. Although little disposed to obtrude himself in conversation, he contributed to the cheerfulness of every company, both by his polished address, and by the happy art of introducing, in the most pleasing manner, something suited to the time, the place, and the persons. His long experience in the management of affairs led him to disapprove of rash and violent measures, and he was always a counsellor of peace. Yet he was ever ready to make allowance for those who did not listen to the counsels, which he mildly suggested. Forbearing, fair, and candid, he never failed to put the best construction upon the motives and actions of

of all around him. He studied to gain his brother by kindness, and he knew how to turn away wrath by a soft answer. The world can ill spare spirits such as his."

(1.) GILLESPIE, the rev. Thomas, a late pious and popular divine of the church of Scotland, who, in consequence of a very singular and unprecedented stretch of ecclesiastical power, by the ruling party in that establishment, was deposed in May 1752, not for any immorality, but merely for acting according to his conscience; and became afterwards the founder of the sect, since denominated the Church or Presbytery of Relief. See RELIEF. Mr Gillespie was born at Cleithurn in the parish of Duddingstone, 3 miles SE. of Edinburgh, where his father kept a brewery. After receiving the rudiments of his education at Edinburgh, he completed his studies under the rev. Dr Doddridge at Northampton. He was ordained minister of Carnock, in Fifeshire, in 1741, and had been 10½ years minister of that parish, when he was ejected. His friends soon after built a church for him in Dunfermline, and Mr Boston of Jedburgh and some others joined in communion with him. He lived about 20 years after this, during which period he saw many Relief churches planted in different parts of the kingdom. He published a small tract, entitled *An Essay on the Continuance of Immediate Revelations of Facts and Future Events, in the Christian Church*; and after his death was published his *Treatise on Temptation*. The rev. Dr Erskine of Edinburgh wrote prefaces to both these tracts. Mr Gillespie married Miss Rickale, but they had no children. He died in April 1775. The following character of him is extracted from *Historical Sketches of the Relief Church*, published in 1771, soon after his death, by the rev. Mr James Smith, who succeeded him in the Relief church at Dunfermline. "This good man was acknowledged even by his enemies, to be eminently pious. Though his natural faculties were no way uncommon, he was exceedingly diligent in the discharge of his duty; he was remarkably zealous for religion. Though his pulpit talents were not the most shining, yet his zeal, his piety, and the persecution he suffered, rendered him very popular. His manners were rigid; his mind austere. The integrity of his heart made him liable to imposition. Little acquainted with the world, he was far from being a scheming politician, insinuating flatterer, or calculated to take a lead in society. To a warmth of temper was added an inflexibility of mind, which inclined him to adhere tenaciously to all his opinions: convinced that he suffered for righteousness' sake, he gloried in his persecution. His ejection out of the church was the mean of bringing him into public view. He once was tainted with Independent principles, yet afterwards heartily approved of the Presbyterian scheme," &c.

* GILLHOUSE. *n. f.* [*gill* and *house*.] A house where *gill* is sold.—

Three shall each alchouse, three each *gillhouse* have.

And as they sing ginshops sower sighs return. *Pope*.

GILLIES, John, D. D. a late learned and pious divine of the Church of Scotland, author of a History of the propagation of the Gospel in America, during the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries. He was

born in 1712, and after having passed the usual course of study, at the university, was ordained one of the ministers of Glasgow 19th July, 1738. He died at Glasgow 29th March, 1796, in the 84th year of his ministry, much regretted by the congregation and numerous acquaintance. He was fond of literature, his manners, and zealous for Christ. liberal to Christians of all denominations. He wrote notes on *Alison's Paradise Lost*.

(1.) GILLINGHAM, a parish of Kent, 3 miles below Chatham, and on the side of the Medway. Part of Chatham is in this parish; and here is a castle well furnished with guns that command the river, there being more than 170 embrasures for cannon; which the progress of any enemy who should be driven to the sea, before they could reach here are almost impossible. At this place many who came over with the prince of Wales, were barbarously murdered by the king. It was in remote times the property of the Bishops of Canterbury, who had here an elegant old hall at which is now converted to a school.

(2.) GILLINGHAM, a parish of English fethire, on the Stour, near the forest, is one of the largest parishes in the county, 41 miles in circuit, and containing 64 hamlets on the borders of Wilts and Dorset NW. of Shaftsbury. It has a manufactory. Near it are the traces of an ancient of Norman or Saxon king, 320 feet long and broad, surrounded by a rampart of earth. It resided here, and king John repaired the expense of the county. Edward I. Christ is here in 1270; the house was of the latter L, in length 180 feet by and the foot of the letter 48 by 40. The house contained 168,000 square feet encompassed by a moat, now dry, in 19 feet deep, and 20 broad. The ramparts have been 30 feet thick. In 1694, received damage of near 4000l. by a fire.

(3.) GILLINGHAM FOREST, an ancient Dorsetshire, near the above parish, (1) miles long, and one broad; famous for the Dines by King Edmund Ironside.

GILLORI, an island of W. Florida.

GILLSAY, an island of Scotland, betwixt Lewis and N. Uist.

(1.) GILLY, or LOUGH GILLY, a lake, in Sligo county, 2 miles W. of Sligo.

(2.) GILLY SUR LOIRE, a town of the dep. of Saone and Loire, 4½ miles S. from Lancy.

(1.) * GILLYFLOWER. *n. f.* (Either from *July-flower*, or from *grosse*, Fr.) C or rather *July-flowers*, so called from the time they blow in, may be reduced to these and white, purple and white, scarlet and *Mortimer's Flybundry*.—In July come 3 of all varieties. *Baron*.—

Fair is the *gillyflower* of gardens (in Fair is the *marygold*, for pottage meat).

(2.) GILLYFLOWER. See CHALKWORTH.

GILMANTOWN, a township of N.

Strafford county; containing 775 citizens and 2613 in 1790.

SILOLO, a large island of the Pacific Ocean of the Moluccas, lying between 1° Lat. 2° Lat. N. and between 125° and 128°

It belongs to the Dutch; but does not contain any of the fine spices, though it lies near the islands. The natives are fierce and cruel.

SILOLO, the capital of the above island.

SILPIN, Bernard, an eminent English divine, descended from an ancient and honourable family in Herefordshire, and born in 1517. Being bred in the Roman Catholic religion, he for some time studied at Oxford, and at Oxford held a disputation with the Jesuits, afterwards bishop of Worcester, and afterwards for the Protestant faith; but was afterwards another disputation with Peter Martyr, and again seriously to examine the contested points.

Being presented to the vicarage of Northampton, he resigned it, and went abroad to visit eminent professors on both sides: and after years absence returned a little before the death of Q. Mary I. satisfied in the doctrines of the reformation. He was kindly received by the Dr. Tonstall, Bp. of Durham; who soon afterwards presented him the archdeaconry of Durham, and the rectory of Essington. Though the persecution was at its height, he boldly preached against the errors, and corruptions of the times, especially in the clergy; on which a charge consisting of 13 articles was drawn up against him, presented in form to the bishop. But Dr. Tonstall dismissed the cause in such a manner as that his nephew, without endangering himself, soon after presented him to the rich living of Houghton-le-Spring. He was again accused by the bishop, and again protected; when his enemies, enraged at this second defeat, laid their complaint before Dr. Bonner, Bp. of London; who immediately gave orders to apprehend him. Upon this Mr. Gilpin bravely prepared for martyrdom, and ordering his steward to provide him a garment that he might make a decent appearance at the stake, set out for London. Luckily, however, he broke his leg on the journey; which retarded his arrival until the queen's death. Immediately set at liberty, he returned to Northampton, where he was received by his parish with the sincerest joy. Upon the deprivation of the Popish bishops, he was offered the see of Northampton, which he declined; and confining himself to his rectory, discharged all the duties of a minister in the most exemplary manner. He was satisfied with the advice he gave in public, and used to instruct in private; and made his parishioners come to him with their difficulties. He was in a most engaging manner towards those whom he thought well-disposed; his very reproof was softened, that it seldom gave offence; the gentleness, with which it was urged, made it appear the effect of friendship. By these means in a few years he made a great change in the neighbourhood, and gave an evidence what reason a single man may effect, when he has it. He was particularly anxious to improve the minds of the younger part of his flock; pressing them to mix religion with their labours, and

amidst the cares of this life to have a constant eye upon the next. He attended to every thing which might be of service to his parishioners, and was very assiduous in preventing law-suits. His hall is said to have been often thronged with people, who came to him about their differences. Though little acquainted with law, he decided equitably, and that satisfied: nor could the royal commission have given him more weight than his own character gave him. His hospitable manner of living was the admiration of the whole country. He spent in his family every fortnight 40 bushels of corn, 20 bushels of malt, and a whole ox; besides a proportionable quantity of other provisions. Strangers and travellers found a cheerful reception. All were welcome that came; and even their beasts had so much care taken of them, that it was said, "If a horse was turned loose in any part of the country, it would immediately make its way to the rector of Houghton's." Every Sunday, from Michaelmas to Easter, was a public day with him. During this season he wished to see all his parishioners and their families. For their reception, he had three tables well covered: the first for gentlemen, the second for husbandmen, and the third for day-labourers. This piece of hospitality he never omitted, even when losses, or a scarcity of provision, made its continuance rather difficult. When he was absent from home, no alteration was made in his family expences; the poor were fed, and his neighbours entertained as usual. Notwithstanding the extent of his parish, Mr. Gilpin thought the sphere of his benevolence too confined. It grieved him to see everywhere, in the parishes around, so great a degree of ignorance and superstition, occasioned by the negligence of the clergy in those parts. To supply, as far as he could, what was wanting in others, every year he regularly visited the most neglected parishes in Northumberland, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland; and that his own parish in the mean time might not suffer, he was at the expence of a constant assistant. In each place he stayed 2 or 3 days, called the people about him, and laid before them, the danger of leading wicked or even careless lives; explaining to them the nature of true religion: instructing them in the duties they owed to God, their neighbour, and themselves: and showing them how greatly a moral and religious conduct would contribute to their present as well as future happiness. As he had all the warmth of an enthusiast, though under the direction of a very calm judgment, he never wanted an audience, even in the wildest parts; where he roused many to a sense of religion, who had contracted the most inveterate habits of inattention to every thing serious. And wherever he came, he used to visit all the gaols, few in the kingdom having then any appointed minister. By his labours, and affectionate manner of behaving, he is said to have reformed many very abandoned persons in those places. He employed his interest likewise for criminals, whose cases he thought attended with any hard circumstances, and often procured pardons for them. There are two tracts upon the borders of Northumberland, called READSDALE and TINEDALE, of all barbarous places in the north at that time

the most barbarous. Before the Union, these places were called the *debatable land*, as subject by turns to England and Scotland, and the common theatre where the two nations acted their bloody scenes. They were inhabited by a kind of desperate banditti, rendered fierce and active by constant alarms; who lived by theft and plunder on both sides of the barrier; and what they plundered on one side, they exposed to sale on the other; thus escaping justice on both sides. In this dreadful country, where no man would even travel who could avoid it, Mr Gilpin never failed to spend some part of every year. He generally chose the Christmas holidays, because he found the people at that season most disengaged, and most easily assembled. He had set places for preaching, which were as regularly attended as the assize towns of a circuit. If he came where there was a church, he made use of it: if not, of barns, or any other large buildings; where great crowds of people were sure to attend him, some for his instructions, and others for his charity.— This was a very difficult and laborious employment. The country was so poor, that what provision he could get, extreme hunger only could make palatable. The inclemency of the weather, and the badness of the roads, through a mountainous country, and at that season covered with snow, exposed him likewise often to great hardships. Sometimes he was overtaken by the night, the country being in many places desolate for several miles together, and obliged to lodge out in the cold. At such times, he made his servant ride about with his horses, whilst he himself on foot used as much exercise as his age and the fatigues of the preceding day would permit. All this he cheerfully underwent, esteeming such services well compensated, by the advantages which he hoped might accrue from them to his uninstructed fellow creatures. The disinterested pains he took among these barbarous people, and the good offices he was always ready to do them, drew from them the warmest and sincerest expressions of gratitude. Indeed, he was little less than adored among them, and might have brought the whole country almost to do what he pleased. One instance is related, that shews how greatly he was revered. By the carelessness of his servants, his horses were one day stolen. The news was quickly propagated, and every one expressed the highest indignation at the theft. The thief was rejoicing over his prize, when by the report of the country, he discovered *whose* horses he had taken. Terrified at what he had done, he instantly came trembling back, confessed the fact, returned the horses, and declared “he believed *the devil would have seized him directly*, had he carried them off knowing them to have been Mr Gilpin’s.” The value of Mr Gilpin’s rectory was about 400 l. a-year: an income, indeed, at that time considerable, but yet in appearance very disproportionate to the generous things he did: Indeed, he could not have done them, unless his frugality had been equal to his generosity. His friends, therefore, could not but wonder to find him, amidst his great and continual expences, propose to build and endow a grammar-school: a design, however, which his exact economy soon en-

abled him to accomplish, though the cost it amounted to upwards of 5000 l. His no sooner opened, than it began to flourish: there was so great a resort of young people that the town was soon not able to accommodate them. He put himself, therefore, to the inconvenience of sitting up a part of his own that purpose, where he seldom had fewer than 30 children. Some of these were persons of distinction, whom he board rates; but the greater part were poor, whom he not only educated, but maintained: he was at the expence of boarding in the town many other poor. He used to bring several every year from parts where he preached, particularly from Tinedale. As to his school, he needed able masters in it, whom he procured from Oxford, but himself likewise constant in it. To encourage and quicken the assiduity of his boys, he always took particular notice of the most forward: he called them *his sons*, and sent for them often into his study to examine them himself. When he met a poor man on the road, he made trial of his capacity by questions, and if the answers pleased him, he provided for his education. Besides those sent from his own school to the university, there wholly maintained, he likewise supported others, who were in circumstances too indigent for themselves, what farther assistance he could give. By these means he induced many to allow their children a liberal education, which otherwise would not have done it. He did not think it enough to afford the means of an academical education to these young men, but he endeavoured to make it as beneficial as he could. With this view he held correspondence with their tutors; and the youths themselves frequently wrote to give him an account of their studies. Every other year he made a journey to the university to inspect their behaviour. This care was not fruitless; for many of them became ornaments to the church, and instances of piety. Every Thursday of the year, a very large quantity of bread was sold wholly for the poor: and every Sunday what quantity of bread they wanted, four of the poorest were supplied with it. Four times in the year a dinner was given to them; when they received from him a certain quantity of corn, and a sum of money. At Christmas they had always an ox killed for them. In his walks abroad, he was always home with him poor people, and he was clothed as well as fed. He took great pains to inform himself of the circumstances of the poor, that the modesty of the sum might prevent his relief. But the money was, in his opinion, that which chiefly relieved them. It was one of his greatest pleasures to see the faces of his laborious neighbors brightened up by their taking under them. If he had lost a beast, he would send him a new one; if a farmer had had a bad year, he would send him an abatement in his tythes. If he was able, he took the misfortune

elf; and, like a true shepherd, exposed his flock. But he was most forward of those who had large families; such never parted with his bounty, when they wanted their children in the world. In the villages where he preached, as well as in the neighbourhood, his generosity and beneficence continually exercised; particularly in the parts of Northumberland. "When on his journey," says an old MS. life of him, "he would have 10l. in his purse; and, at home, he would be 20 nobles in debt, but would always pay within a fortnight after the gaols he visited, he was not only to give the prisoners proper instructions, but to purchase for them likewise what they wanted. Even upon the public-house he never let slip an opportunity of doing good. He has often been known to take off his hat, and give it to an half-naked traveller; and when he has had scarce money enough in his pocket to provide himself a dinner, yet would give away part of that little, or the whole, if any who seemed to stand in need of it. On returning home, he saw in a field several people crowding together; and judging something extraordinary had happened, he rode up, and found that one of the horses in a team had dropped down dead. The owner of it, being how grievous a loss it would be to him, he bade him not be disheartened: "I'll have," says he, "honest man, that horse of pointing to his servant's.—" Ah! mistaken the countryman), my pocket will not reach a beast as that." "Come, come (said the man,) take him, take him; and when I de- y money, then thou shalt pay me." This man, divine, who deservedly obtained the glo- ries of the Father of the Poor, and the As- the North, died in 1583, in the 66th year of his age.

GIMON, a township of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county.

GILT. *n. f.* [from *gild*.] Golden show; laid on the surface of any matter. Now ob- served in the

our gayness and our *gilt* are all besmirch'd, in rainy marching in the painful field. *Shak.* Thou wast in thy *gilt*, and thy perfume, deckt thee for too much curiosity: in thy thou knowest none, but art despis'd for the y. *Shak.*

GILT. The participle of **GILD**, which signifies here the *gilt* chariot never mark'd its way. *Pope.*

GILT-HEAD. *n. f.* [*gilt* and *head*.] 1. A bird. 2. A bird.—He blended together the *gilt-heads*, the brains of pheasants and peacocks, and the tongues of phenicopters, and the melts of the. *Hakewill.*

GILT-HEAD, in ichthyology. See **SPARUS**.

GILT-TAIL. *n. f.* [*gilt* and *tail*.] A worm from his yellow tail.

GIM. *adj.* [An old word.] Neat; spruce; effed.

BAR, a town of Cuba, 6 m E. of Havannah.

BORN, a lordship and citadel of Ger- in Westphalia, 8 m. SSW. of Wipperfurt.

* **GIMCRACK**. *n. f.* [Supposed by *Skinner*, to be ludicrously formed from *gin*, derived from *engine*.] A slight or trivial mechanism.—

For tho' these *gimcracks* were away,
However, more reduc'd and plain,
The watch would still a watch remain;
But if the horal orbit ceases,
The whole stands still, or breaks to pieces.

Prior.

—What's the meaning of all these transgrams and *gimcracks*? Jumping over my master's hedges, and running your lines cross his grounds? *Arbutnot's John Bull.*

GIMESCH, a town and castle of Hungary, 10 miles W. of Buckans.

GIMIGLIANO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 10 miles E. of Nicastro.

* **GIMLET**. *n. f.* [*gibelet*, *guimbelet*, Fr.] A borer with a screw at its point.—The *gimlet* hath a worm at the end of its bit. *Moxon.*

* **GIMMAL**. *n. f.* [Supposed by *Skinner* and *Ainsworth* to be derived from *gimellus*, Lat. and to be used only of something consisting of correspondent parts, or double. It seems rather to be gradually corrupted from *geometry* or *geometrical*. Any thing done by occult means is vulgarly said to be done by *geometry*.] Some little quaint devices, or pieces of machinery. *Hanmer.*—

I think by some odd *gimmals* or device
Their arms are set like clock-, still to strike on,
Else they could not hold out so as they do.

Shak. Henry VI.

* **GIMMER**. *n. f.* [See **GIMMAL**.] Movement; machinery.—The holding together of the parts of matter has so confounded me, that I have been prone to conclude with myself, that the *gimmers* of the world hold together not so much by geometry as some natural magick. *More.*

GIMONE, a river of France, which runs into the Garonne, near Riviere Verdun.

GIMONT, a town of France, in the department of Gers, 12 miles E. of Auch.

* **GIMP**. *n. f.* [See **GIM**. *Gimp*, in old English, is neat, spruce.] A kind of silk twist or lace.

(1.) * **GIN**. *n. f.* [from *engine*.] 1. A trap; a snare.—

As the day begins,
With twenty *gins* we will the small birds take,
And pastime make. *Sidney.*

Which two, thro' treason and deceitful *gin*,
Have slain sir Mordant. *Spenser.*

So strives the woodcock with the *gin*;
So doth the coney struggle in the net. *Shak.*

Be it by *gins*, by snares by subtilty. *Shak.*

If those, who have but sense, can shun
The engines that have them annoy'd;
Little for me had reason done,

If I could not thy *gins* avoid. *Ben Jonson.*

I know thy trains,
Though dearly to my cost; thy *gins* and toils
No more on me have pow'r, their force is
null'd. *Milton.*

He made a planetary *gin*,
Which rats would run their own heads in,
And come on purpose to be taken,
Without th' expence of cheese and bacon.

Hudibras.
Keep

Keep from flaying scourge thy skin,

And ankle free from iron *gin*. *Hudibras*.

2. Any thing moved with screws, as an engine of torture.—

Typhæus' joints were stretched on a *gin*.

Shak.

3. A pump worked by rotatory sails.—The delfs would be so flown with waters, it being impossible to make any adits or foughs to drain them, that no *gins* or machines would suffice to lay and keep them dry. *Ray*.—A bituminous plate, alternately yellow and black, formed by water driving on the outside of the *gin* pump of Mostyn coalpits. *Woodw. on Fossils*. 4. [Contracted from GENEVA, which see.] The spirit drawn by distillation from juniper berries.—

This calls the church to deprecate our sin,
And hurls the thunder of our laws on *gin*.

Pope.

Gin shops sourer sighs return.

Pope.

(2.) *GIN*, in mechanics, a machine for driving piles, fitted with a windlass and winches at each end, where eight or nine men heave, and round which a rope is reeved that goes over the wheel at the top: one end of this rope is seized to an iron-monkey, that hooks to a beetle of different weights, according to the piles they are to drive, being from eight to thirteen hundred weight; and when hove up to a cross-piece, near the wheel, it unhooks the monkey, and lets the beetle fall on the upper end of the pile, and forces the same into the ground: then the monkey's own weight overhauls the windlass, in order for its being hooked again to the beetle.

(3.) *GIN*. See GENEVA, N° V, § i, ii.

(4.) *GIN*, in geography, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Fetcheli, 10 miles S.E. of Chun-te.

GINAIRI, a town of Africa, in Kumbo.

GINASERVIS, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 9 miles N.W. of Barjols.

GINERCA, a town of Corsica, seated on a small bay, so named, 13 miles S. of Calvi.

GINESTAS, a town of France, in the dep. of Aude, 7½ m. N.W. of Narbonne, and 9 E. of Axille.

GINGEE, a town of Indostan, on the coast of Coromandel, formerly capital of a kingdom of that name. It is seated on a mountain whose top is divided into 3 points, on each of which is a castle; 34 m. N.W. of Pondicherry, and 70 S.W. of Madras. Lon. 79. 56. E. Lat. 12. 16. N.

GINGEN, an imperial town of Suabia, 16 m. N. of Ulm. Lon. 10. 13. E. Lat. 48. 39. N.

(1.) * *GINGER*. *n. f.* [*zingiber*, Lat. *gingero*, Italian.] The flower consists of five leaves, shaped somewhat like those of the iris: these are produced in the head or club, each coming out of a separate leafy scale. The ovary becomes a triangular fruit, having three cells which contain seeds. *Miller*.—The root of *ginger* is of the tuberous kind, knotty, crooked, and irregular; of a hot, acrid, and pungent taste, though aromattick, and of a very agreeable smell. The Indians eat both the young shoots of the leaves and the roots themselves. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

Or waiting *ginger* round the streets to go,
And visit alehouse where ye first did grow.

Pope's Dunciad.

(2.) *GINGER*. See AMOMUM.

(3.) *GINGER*, in geography, one of Islands belonging to Britain, 10 miles Virgin Gorda.

* *GINGERBREAD*. *n. f.* [*ginger* and kind of farinaceous sweetmeat made of that of bread or biscuit, sweetened with and flavoured with ginger and some other tick seeds. It is sometimes gilt.—An' one penny in the world, thou should'st buy *gingerbread*. *Shak.*—

Her currans there and gooseberries
spread,

With the enticing god of *gingerbread*.

King

—'Tis a loss you are not here, to part a
weeks frost, and eat *gingerbread* in a
fire upon the Thames. *Swift*.

* *GINGERLY*. *adv.* [I know not derived.] Cautiously: nicely.—

What is't that you

Took up so *gingerly*?

* *GINGERNESS*. *n. f.* Niceness; tenderness.

GINGIDIUM, in botany, a genus of gynia order, belonging to the pentandry plants. The calyx is an involucre, near leaves; the corolla consists of 5 or 6 petals; the stamens are 5 filaments; the antheræ roundish; the pericarpium truncated fruit, with 8 striæ; there are 8 seeds, in some places plane, and convex.

GINGIRO, or ZINDERO, a barbarous name of Africa, S.W. of Abyssinia. See AFRICA.

GINGIVÆ, the gums. See GUMS.

* *GINGIVAL*. *adj.* [*gingiva*, Lat.] relating to the gums.—Whilst the Italians fix a thread in their pronunciation between so to sweeten it, they make the occlusal especially the *gingival*, softer than we do a little of perviousness. *Holzer*.

* *GINGLE*. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A resounding noise. 2. A fluctuation in the periods.

(1.) * *To GINGLE*. *v. t.* To shake sharp shrill clattering noise should be made.

Her infant grandame's whistle next

The bells the *gingled*, and the whistle

(2.) * *To GINGLE*. *v. n.* 1. To utter clattering noise; to utter a sharp noise succession.—

The foot grows black that was with
brown'd,

And in thy pocket *gingling* halfpence.

Gay

Once, we confess, beneath the patriot
From the crack'd bag the dropping gun
And *gingling* down the backstairs, told
Old Cato is as great a rogue as you.

2. To make an affected sound in periodence.

* *GINGLYMOID*. *adj.* [*ginglymus*, a Resembling a ginglymus; approaching to lymus.—The malleus lies along, fixed to panum, and on the other end is joined to

gle, or *ginglymoid* joint. *Holder's Elements*.

GLYMUS. *n. f.* A mutual indenting into each others cavity, of which the instance. *Wise man*.

GLYMUS. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

a town of Germany, in Pomerania, of Bergen.

a town of Germany, in the county of Munzenburg, 3 miles WNW. of the Maine, and 11 W. of Hanau.

See **MAURITIA**.

a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, of Teram.

G. *n. f.* [*γῆς*.] A nag; a mule; a breed. Hence, according to some, erroneously, a Spanish *gennet*, imputed for *ginnet*.

in botany: A genus of the monodelicous, belonging to the dodecandria class of the natural method ranking with the order is doubtful. The calyx 5 parts; the petals six; the capsule adnate, divided, coloured, and polyspermous.

GENG. *n. f.* [I suppose *Chinefe*.] A root brought into Europe, of a brownish colour, and somewhat yellowish within; and fine, that it seems almost transparent; a very agreeable and aromatick taste, not very strong. Its taste is acrid, and has somewhat bitter in it. It comes from China and America. The Chinese root at three times its weight in oil.

GENG, in botany. See **PANAX**.

STORFF, a town of Austria, 5 miles of Ebenfurth.

STORFF, a town of Austria, 6 miles of Erford.

a town of Scotland, on the N. coast of pinshay.

a town of Turkey in Diarbek.

or **GEDDAH**, a sea-port of Arabia, ft of the Red Sea. It is the port of carries on a good trade. Lon. 39. 30. N.

a town of Transylvania, near Maros, of Mlilenbach.

or **BEMBO**, Flavio, the celebrated Mariner's Compass. See **BEMBO**.

IA, two towns of Naples: 1. in the zzo Ultra, 7 miles SE. of Celano: 2. lari, 14 miles SSW. of Conversano. 3. town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 4. Vicotera.

IO, Lucas. See **JORDANO**.

I, a town of Walachia, on the N. of the Danube; near which the Russians defeated the Turks, on the 2d June, 1771; killing 5000 Turks, and taking 180 pieces of cannon, with arms for 30,000. It is 40 miles SW. and 235 NNW. of Constantinople.

IO, ST, or ST GEORGE, a strong Alpine republic, and suburb of Mantua, of Mincio. It was taken by the Bonaparte, on the 15th Sept. 1796,

after an obstinate resistance from the Austrians, who lost 2500 men and 20 pieces of cannon. On the 15th Jan. 1797, Gen. Provera penetrated thus far with 6000 men to relieve Mantua, but was forced to surrender next day, with his whole troops, provisions, ammunition, &c.

(2.) **GIORGIO**, ST, a village of Maritime Austria, in Dalmatia, in the isle of Lefina. Roman urns are found in a hill near it.

(3, 4.) **GIORGIO**, ST, a commune and village of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese.

(5.) **GIORGIO**, ST, IN ALGA, an island of Maritime Austria, W. of Venice; so named from the sea-ware on its coast. It is inhabited by Carmelite friars. Its church and convent were burnt in 1716.

(6.) **GIORGIO**, ST, MAGGIOR, a beautiful island of Maritime Austria, on the coast of Venice, inhabited by Benedictine Monks since A. D. 982. It has a magnificent church with a marble front, fine statues and paintings; a convent and library.

GIORGIONE, an illustrious Venetian painter, born in 1478. He received his first instructions from John Bellino; but studying afterwards the works of Leonardo da Vinci, he soon surpassed them both, being the first among the Lombards, who found out the admirable effects of strong light and shadows. Titian became his rival in this art; and excelled him. The most valuable piece of Giorgione in oil is that of Christ carrying his cross, now in the church of San Rovo in Venice; where it is held in great veneration. He died of the plague, in 1511.

GIORNICO, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Uri; 13 miles N. of Bellinzona.

GIOSEPPINO, an eminent painter, so called by way of contraction from *Giuseppe d' Arpino*, i. e. *Joseph of ARPINO*, the town where he was born, in 1560. Being carried to Rome very young, and employed by painters then at work in the Vatican to grind their colours, he soon made himself master of the elements of design. His wit and humour gained him the favour of popes and cardinals, who employed him. Gregory XIII. showed him great respect; and Lewis XIII. made him a knight of St Michael. He acquired a light and agreeable manner of designing, though De Piles says, his style neither partook of true nature nor of the antique. His battles in the Capitol are the most esteemed of all his pieces. He died at Rome in 1640.

GIOSTAH, a town of Africa, in Mozambique, on a bay near Sofala.

GIOTTO, an ingenious painter, sculptor, and architect of Florence, born in 1276. He was the disciple of Cimabue; but far superior to his master in the air of his heads, the attitude of his figures, and in the tone of his colouring; though he could not express liveliness in the eyes, tenderness in the flesh, or strength in the muscles of his naked figures. He was principally admired for his works in mosaic; the best of which is over the grand entrance of St Peter's church at Rome. Alberti says, that in that piece, the expression of fright and amazement of the disciples, at seeing St Peter walk upon the water is so excellent, that each of them exhibits some characteristic sign of his

his terror. He died in 1336, and the city of Florence honoured his memory with a statue of marble over his tomb.

GIOVANAZZO. See **GIOVENAZZO**.

(1.) **GIOVANNI**, ST., a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Lario.

(2.) **GIOVANNI**, ST., a village of Maritime Ancona, in the isle of Brazza, in Dalmatia.

GIOVELLINO, a town of the French republic, in the island and dep. of Corsica; 25 miles E. of Corte.

GIOVENAZZO, a town and fort of Naples, in the province of Bari, near the sea; 11 miles ESE. of Trani. Lon. 16. 50. E. Lat. 41. 26. N.

* **To GIP.** *v. a.* To take out the guts of heri-
rings. *Boiler.*

(1.) **GIPPING**, a river of Suffolk, which joins the Orwell, and falls into the Stoure.

(2.) **GIPPING**, a small town in Suffolk.

* **GIPSY.** *n. f.* [Corrupted from *Egyptian*; for when they first appeared in Europe, they declared, and perhaps, truly, that they were driven from Egypt by the Turks. They are now mingled with all nations.] 1. A vagabond who pretends to foretell futurity, commonly by palmistry or physiognomy.—The butler, though he is sure to lose a knife, a fork, or a spoon every time his fortune is told him, shuts himself up in the pantry with an old *gipsy* for above half an hour. *Addison.*

A frantick *gipsy* now, the house he haunts,
And in wild phrases speaks dissembled wants.

Prior.

In this still labyrinth around her lie
Spells, philters, globes, and spheres of palmistry;
A sign in his hand the *gipsy* bears,
In th' other a prophetick sieve and sheers.

Garth's Dispensat.

I, near yon stile, three fallow *gipsies* met;
Upon my hand they cast a poring look,
Bid me beware, and thrice their heads they
shook. *Gay.*

2. A reproachful name for a dark complexion.—
Laura, to his lady, was but a kitchen-wench;
Dido a dowdy; Cleopatra a *gipsy*; Helen and He-
ro hidings and harlots. *Shak.* 3. A name of slight
reproach to a woman.—The widow play'd the
gipsy, and so did her confidant too, in pretending
to believe her. *L'Estrange.*

A slave I am to Clara's eyes:
The *gipsy* knows her pow'r and flies. *Prior.*

GIRAFFE. See **CERVUS**, § I, N° iii.

GIRAGLIA, a small island near the N. coast
of Corsica, 23 miles N. of Bastia.

GIRALD BARRY, or } See **BARRY**, N° 4.

GIRALD OF WALES, }

(1.) **GIRALDI**, Lilio Gregorio, an ingenious
critic, and one of the most learned men that mo-
dern Italy has produced, born at Ferrara in 1479.
He was at Rome when it was plundered by the
emperor Charles V.; and having thus lost all he
had, and being tormented by the gout, he strug-
gled through life with ill fortune and ill health. He
wrote, nevertheless, 17 performances, which were
collected and published at Basil, in 2 vols folio in
1580, and at Leyden in 1696. Cassaubon, Thua-
nius, and other authors of the first rank, have be-
stowed the highest eulogies on him.

(2.) **GIRALDI**, John Baptist Cantio, an Italian

poet of the same family with the pre-
ceding, born in 1504. He was secretary
of Ferrara, and professor of Rhetoric;
died in 1573. His works, which com-
prised tragedies, were collected and published
by his son Celso Giraldi, in 1583, with
him among the best tragic writers in-
duced.

GIRALDUS CAMBRENSIS. See **GIRAN**.

GIRAN, a town of Algiers, 25 m. S.

GIRANCOURT, a town of France
of Vosges, 5 miles W. of Epinal.

GIRAPIETRA, a town of the N.
16 miles SW. of Settia.

GIRAR, a fort of Indostan, in M.

GIRARDON, Francis, a celebra-
chitect and sculptor, born at Tru-
Lewis XIV, being informed of his
sent him to Rome with a pension of
At his return into France, he labo-
royal palaces, and the gardens of
Trianon; where there are many of
bronze and in marble, from the des-
le Brun. The mausoleum of cardinal
in the Sorbonne, and the equestrian
is XIV. at the Place de Vendome,
tue and horse are cast in one piece,
his best performances. He was pro-
and chancellor, of the Academy of
Sculpture; and inspector-general of
done in sculpture. He died in 1733.

* **GIRASOLE.** *n. f.* [*girafol*,]
herb turnsol. a. The opal stone.

GIRCH, a river of N. Wales, in
shire, running into the sea near Puff

GIRCHSBECK, a town of Hol-
36W. of Segeborg, and 6 SSW. of

* **GIRD.** *n. f.* [from the verb.]
pang: it may come from the sensati-
a bandage or girdle drawn hard sud-
ward is now seldom used, unless the
mology be admitted.—

Sweet king! the bishop hath a
For shame, my lord of Winchester

SE
—Conscience by this means is free
fearful *girds* and twinges which the
Tillotson.—He has the glory of
when he doth well, to set against the
girds of it when he doth amiss. *Good*

(1.) * **To GIRD.** *v. a.* pret. *girded*,
dan, Saxon.] 1. To bind round.—I
earth upon their heads, and *girded* th
sackcloth. 2 *Mac.* 2. 3. 2. To put
round or bind.—Cords of the big
thread were fastened to bandages, w
men had *girt* round my neck. *Swift*
ten by binding.—He *girt* his waist
lum. 1 *Mac.* iii. 25.—

My bow and thunder, my arm
Gird on, and sword upon thy po

No, let us rise at once, *gird* on
And, at the head of our remanin
Attack the foe.

The combatant too late the *gird*
When now the sword is *girded* to

n, and set your knee against my foot;
 uerdon of that duty done,
 with the valiant sword of York.

Shak. Henry VI.

The son appear'd,
 omnipotence. *Milton's Par. Lost.*
 o habit; to clothe.—I girded thee a-
 e linen, and I covered thee with silk.

one there keeps the ward,
 fine-line gown, by night and day,
 of the souls that pass the downward

Dryden.

round as a garment.—
 with what skill they had, together
 ir waist: vain covering, if it hide
 , and dreaded shame! *Milton.*

; to equip.—
 e coast of Jordan he directs
 ps, girded with snaky wiles. *Milton.*
 ; to incircle.—

That Nysician isle,
 he river Triton, where old Cham
 hea and her florid son
 chus, from his stepdame Rheas's eye.

Milton.

ch; to gibe.—
 ov'd, he will not spare to gird the

Shak.

ARD. *v. n.* [Of this word in this sense
 he original; it may be formed by a
 ry transposition from *gride* or *cut*.]
 cornful jest; to gibe; to sneer.—

ondred error growth
 out critics gird. *Drayton.*

sorts take a pride to gird at me: the
 looth compounded clay, man, is not
 it any thing that tends to laughter
 invent, or is invented on me: I am
 y in myself, but the cause that wit is

Shak. Henry IV.

DER. *n. f.* [from *gird*.] In architecture,
 ee of timber in a floor. Its end is u-
 d into the summers, or breast sum-
 e joists are framed in at one arm to
 Harris.—The girders are also to be of
 tling the summers and ground-plates
 the back girder need not be so strong
 nder. *Moxon's Mech. Exer.*

ighty girders which the fabrick bind,
 robust and vast in order join'd.

Blackmore.

RS. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*. By
 rebuilding London, they must not lie
 inches into the wall, and their ends
 ys laid in loam, &c.

DI.E. *n. f.* [*gyrde*, Saxon.] 1. Any
 round the waist, and tied or buckled.
 ill I make the beds of roses,
 usand fragrant posies;
 awers, and a girdle,

'd all with leaves of myrtle. *Shak.*
 eive there is somewhat amiss, until
 heir girdle. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*—
 his mantle, girdle, sword, and bow,
 ART II.

On him his heart and soul he did bestow.

Cowley.

2. Enclosure; circumference.—

Suppose within the girdle of these walls
 Are now confin'd two mighty monarchies.

Shak. Henry V.

3. The zodiack.—Great breezes in great circles,
 such as are under the girdle of the world, do re-
 refrigerate. *Bacon.*

(2.) The GIRDLE, [*Cingulus* or *Zona*,] in anti-
 quity, was a belt or band of leather or other mat-
 ter, tied about the reins to keep that part more
 firm and tight. It was anciently the custom for
 bankrupts and other insolvent debtors to put off
 and surrender their girdle in open court. The
 reason was, that our ancestors used to carry all
 their necessary utensils, as purse, keys, &c. tied
 to the girdle; whence the girdle became a symbol
 of the estate. History relates that the widow of
 Philip I. duke of Burgundy, renounced her right
 of succession by putting off her girdle upon the
 duke's tomb. The Romans always wore a girdle
 to tuck up the tunica when they had occasion to
 do any thing: this custom was so general, that
 such as went without girdles, and let their gowns
 hang loose, were reputed idle, dissolute, persons.

(3.) GIRDLE, MAIDEN'S, or VIRGIN'S. It
 was the custom among the Greeks and Romans
 for the husband to untie his bride's girdle. Ho-
 mer, lib. xi. of his *Odyssey*, calls the girdle *μαρ-
 τήριον ζώνον, maid's girle*. Festus relates, that it was
 made of sheep's wool, and that the husband un-
 tied it in bed: he adds, that it was tied in the
 Herculean knot; and that the husband unloosed
 it, as a happy presage of his having as many chil-
 dren as Hercules, who at his death left 70 behind
 him.

(4.) GIRDLE OF VENUS. The poets attributed
 to Venus a particular kind of girdle called *CESTUS*,
 to which they annexed a faculty of inspiring the
 passion of love. See *CESTUS*, § 2.

* To GIRDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To
 gird; to bind as with a girdle.—

Lay the gentle babe, girdling one another
 Within their innocent alabaster arms. *Shak.*

2. To inclose; to shut in; to environ.—

Those sleeping stones,
 That as a waist do girdle you about. *Shak.*

Let me look back upon thee, O thou wall,

That girdlest in those wolves. *Shak. Timon.*

* GIRDLEBELT. *n. f.* [*girale* and *belt*.] The
 belt that encircles the waist.—

Nor did his eyes less longingly behold
 The girdlebelt, with nails of burnish'd gold.

Dryden's Æneid.

GIRDLE NESS, a cape on the E. coast of Scot-
 land, 2 miles E. of Aberdeen.

* GIRDLER. *n. f.* [from *girdle*.] A maker of
 girdles.

* GIRE. *n. f.* [*gyrus*, Latin.] A circle describ-
 ed by any thing in motion. See *GYRE*.

GIREST, or } a town of Persia, in Kerman;
 GIRET, } 30 miles S. of Ferabat. Lon.
 57. 55. E. Lat. 27. 30. N.

GIRGASHITES, or GERGESENES, an ancient
 people of Canaan, whose habitation was beyond
 the sea of Tiberias, where we find some relics of

K k k

their

their name in the city of GERUSA, upon the lake of Tiberias. The Jewish rabbies inform us, that when Joshua first came into the land of Canaan, the Gergashites resolved rather to forsake their country than submit to the Hebrews, and accordingly retired into Africa. Nevertheless, it is certain that a great number of them staid behind, since Joshua (xxiv. 11.) informs us, that he subdued the Gergashites, and they whom he overcame were certainly on this side Jordan. See GADARENES.

GIRGEE, a town of Egypt, capital of Said, 400 yards from the Nile, and 4 miles in circumference. It has several mosques, bazars, and squares; and lies 160 miles N. of Syene, and 215 S. of Cairo. Lon. 49. 8. E. of Ferro. Lat. 26. 10. N.

GIRGENTI, a town of Sicily, which occupies part of the site of the ancient AGRIGENTUM. It has only one street fit for carriages, though it has about 15,000 inhabitants. The only antiquities are a Latin inscription of the time of the Antonines, relative to some association between Agrigentum and Lilybæum, and a piece of ancient masonry in the foundations of a church said to be the remains of a temple of Jupiter. At some distance, on the old ground in the vale, stands the cathedral, a clumsy building patched up by barbarous architects with various discordant parts. The baptismal font is made out of an ancient sarcophagus faced with very beautiful lava-reheves. This see is the richest in Sicily, but is less enlightened than the rest of the island. Among the curiosities belonging to the cathedral is an Etruscan vase of rare size and preservation. There are also some golden pateras of extreme rarity. The monastery of San Nicolo is admirably situated on a little eminence in the centre of the city. The range of hills towards the SE. sinks gradually, so as to admit a noble reach of sea and of plain, terminated on each side by thick groves of fruit-trees. Above appear the remains of ancient grandeur, wonderfully contrasted with the humble straw cottages built at their feet. In the orchard of this convent is a square building with pilasters, supposed to have been part of the palace of the Roman prætor. Girgenti has a harbour, formed by a pier carried out in 3 sides of an octagon, with a battery at the head; the light-house is erected on the cliffs on shore. The work is strong and neat, but the Sirocco commands it entirely, and drives in great quantities of sand, which will in time choak up the port. Ships of burden find it difficult to get in, but the magazines in the rocks along the shore are very spacious. Girgenti is seated on the St Rafe, 3 miles from the sea, and 47 S. of Palermo. Lon. 23. 24. E. Lat. 37. 28. N.

GIRIA, a town in Cefalonia.

* GIRL. *n. f.* [About the etymology of this word there is much question: *Merie Casaubon*, as is his custom, derives it from *garrula* of the same signification; *Minsheu* from *garrula*, Latin, a prattler, or *girella*, Italian, a weathercock: *Junius* thinks that it comes from *berlode*, Welsh, from which, says he, *barlot* is very easily deduced. *Skinner* imagines that the Saxons, who used *ceorl* for a man, might likewise have *ceorla* for a women, though no such word is now found. Dr *Hicks* derives it most probably from the Islandick *karlinna*, a wo-

man.] A young woman, or female of unblest days was my wife a girl.

I will love thee ne'er the less,

The foole Amphimachus, to
golde to be his wracke,

Proude girl-like, that doth ever
upon her backe,

A weather-beaten lover, but as

Is sport for every girl to practise

Tragedy should blush as much

To the low mimic follies of a fa

As a grave matron would to dant

A boy, like thee, would make

But oh! a girl, like her, must be

* GIRLISH. *adj.* (from *girl*.) A youthful.—In her girlish age she beg moor. *Carrey.*

* GIRLISHLY. *adv.* [from *girl*.] in manner.

* To GIRN. *v. n.* It seems to be of *grm.* It is still used in Scotland, to a crabbed, capacious, or peevish

GIROMAGNY, a town of France of the Upper Rhine; 6 miles NW.

(1.) GIRON, a town of Africa

(2.) GIRON, *fr.* a town of France, in the dep. of Ariège, and chief of Couserans, 3 miles S. of St Litz. E. Lat. 42. 53. N.

GIRONA. See GERONA.

(1.) GIRONDE, a dep. of France part of the ci-devant province of Gui ed on the NE. by the dep. of Lower the E. by those of Dordogne, and ronne; on the S. by that of Landes W. by the Sea. Bourdeaux is the

(2.) GIRONDE, a river of France, ed by the union of the Garonne and miles N. of Bourdeaux, and runs th bove department (N° 1.) into the a course of 27 miles NNW.

(3.) GIRONDE, a town of France, (N° 1.) 4½ m. W. of Reolles, and 9

GIRONDISTS, a political party who flourished in the first stage of the so named from the department of which their leading members were re called also BRISSOTINS, from *Brissot* *rallyists* from their wishing for a federal See REVOLUTION.

GIRONELLA, a town of Spain 7 miles ENE. of Solsona.

GIRONNA. See GERONA.

GIRONNE, or } in heraldry a co
GIRONNY, } vided into giron lar figures, meeting in the centre and alternately colour and metal.

* GIRROCK. *n. f.* [see *major* fish. *Dis.*

GIRSBY, a village in Yorkshire

rum.

(1.) * GIRT. *part. pass.* (from *g*

(2.) * GIAT. *n. f.* (from the verb by which the saddle or burthen is t horse.—

es old Hubson, death has broke his
; alas! hath laid him in the dirt.

Alison.

r bandage.—The most common way
is by that of the *gird*, which *gird* hath
the middle, and the ends are latched
her. *Weyman's Surg.*

r. v. n. [from *gird*.] To gird; to
to encircle. Not proper.—

spread ocean, undulating wide
the radiant line that *girts* the globe.

Thomson.

H. n. f. [from *gird*.] 1. A band by
middle is fixed upon the horse —

iddle turn'd round, or the *girths*
;

in the ground, woe for his sake,

is found. *Ben Jonson's Underwoods.*

girths could bear the load,

high celestial road;

oppress'd, would break his *girth*,

he lumber from the earth. *Swift.*

to gallops on alone;

are with his follow'rs shorn;

ke the *girth*, and that a bone. *Swift.*

pals measured by the girdle, or en-

lage.—He's a lusty jolly fellow that
t three yards in the *girth*. *Addison.*

r. n. v. a. To bind with a girth.

AN, a parish of Scotland, in Kirkcud-

6 miles NW. of Kirkcudbright; a-

s long from N. to S. and from 3 to

he climate, soil, and surface are very

the air is pure and healthy. Agri-

uch improved. About 1000 acres are

gardens, orchards, and plantations.

ion, in 1792, stated by the rev. Mr

n his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was

had increased no less than 1363 since

3 to the cotton and other manufac-

ted at GATEHOUSE, which contained

ants, in 1792.

Town, an Indian town of the Uni-
the North Western Territory.

AN, a parish of Scotland, in Air-

s long from SW. to NE. and from

. Two thirds of the surface are hilly,

reen. The soil is various, but chiefly

ould. In the low grounds the air is

d, and the crops early; but in the

e climate is cold and moist, and vege-

Husbandry is much improved, and

s are mostly inclosed. Oats, barley,

, and potatoes are the chief produce.

bounds, but is little used. Sea ware

n the coast, and is used both for ma-

p. The population, in 1791, stated

as. Thomson, in his report to Sir J.

1725, and had increased 532 since

number of sheep was 4280, and of

1700.

AN, a river of Scotland, which rises

art of Airshire, and runs into the sea

Girvan, N° 3.

n, a post town and burgh of barony in

ish, (N° 1.) at the mouth of the Gir-

pposite to Ailsa. Its harbour is good

but might be much improved. Vessels can get
out to sea with almost any wind. Girvan contains
above 1000 inhabitants, and is governed by two
barlies and a council of ten. Above 100 looms
were employed in weaving cotton cloth, in 1791.
Leather and shoes are also manufactured. Gir-
van lies 14 miles SSW. of Ayr, and is 27 NNW.
of Wigton.

GIRY, Lewis, a French lawyer, and one of the
first members of the French academy, was born
at Paris, in 1595. He translated Tertullian's A-
pology and several other works; and died in 1665,
aged 70.

GISBORN, a town in the West Riding of
Yorkshire, 37 miles SE. of Manchester, 60 W.
of York, and 219½ NNW. of London. Lon. 2.
22. W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

GISBOROUGH, a town of England, in the
N. Riding of Yorkshire, on the road from Whit-
by to Durham, 4 miles from the mouth of the
Tees, where is a bay and harbour for ships. It
had formerly an abbey, and a church, which, from
its ruins, seems to have been equal to the best ca-
thedrals in England. The soil is fertile, and has
a constant verdure, adorned with field flowers al-
most all the year. There is some iron and mines
of alum, which were first discovered in the reign
of K. James I. and have been since very much im-
proved. Sir Paul Pindar, who first farmed them,
paid rents to the king 12,000l. to the Earl Mus-
grave 1640l. and to Sir William Penniman 600l.
and had 800 men by sea and land in constant pay;
yet he was a considerable gainer, as there was
then scarce any other to be had, and the price
was 26l. a ton; but as there are now several o-
ther alum works in this country, the works here
have for some years lain neglected. Gisborough
is 11 miles E. of Stockton, and 22 NW. of Whit-
by; but its distance from London, by some stated
at 224 miles, is by Mr Cruttwell, said to be 248
N. and by Dr Brookes and J. Walker, only 155
N. by W. Lon. 0. 55. W. Lat. 54. 35. N.

GISCO, son of Hamilco the Carthaginian gene-
ral, was banished from Carthage by the influence
of his enemies. Being afterwards recalled, he was
made general in Sicily against the Corinthians, a-
bout A. A. C. 309; and by his success and intre-
pidity, he obliged them to sue for peace. See
CARTHAGE, § 5.

* To GISE Ground. v. n. Is when the owner
of it does not feed it with his own stock, but takes
in other cattle to graze. *Bailey.*

GISGI, a town of Transylvania, near Maros.

GISHUBEL, a town of Bohemia, 20 miles E.
NE. of Koniggratz.

GIZING, a town and fort of Hungary.

GISLAVY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

* GISLE. Among the English Saxons, signifies
a pledge: thus *Fredgile* is a pledge of peace;
Gislebert an illustrious pledge, like the Greek *Ho-*
merus. *Camden.*

GISLEN, Auger, lord of Busbec, a man il-
lustrious on account of his embassies, was born at
Commines, in 1522; and educated at the univer-
sities of Louvain, Paris, Venice, Bologna, and
Padua. He was engaged in several important ne-
gociations, and particularly was twice sent am-
bassador by the king of the Romans to the empe-

for Soliman. He collected inscriptions, bought MSS. searched after rare plants, inquired into the nature of animals, and, in his 2d journey to Constantinople, carried with him a painter, that he might be able to communicate to the curious the figures of the plants and animals that were little known in the west. He wrote a Discourse of the state of the Ottoman empire, and a relation on his two journeys to Turkey, which are much esteemed. He died in 1592.

GISORS, a town of France, in the dept. of Eure, and ci-devant province of Normandy, seated on the Ept; 27 miles NE. of Evreux, and 28 SE. of Reuen. Lon. 1. 43. E. Lat. 49 17. N.

GISSA, in ancient geography, an island of Dalmatia, now called Pago.

GISTAIN, a town of Spain, in Arragon, among the Pyrenees, near France, 15 miles N. of Ainsa.

GISTITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Bolellau, 4 miles N. of Nimburn.

GISUND, a town of Norway, in Drontheim, 44 miles NW. of Drontheim.

GITH. *n. f.* [*nigella*]. An herb called Guinea pepper.

GITI, a town of Asia, in Thibet, 254 miles NNE. of Delhi. Lon. 79. 16. E. Lat. 31. 10. N.

GITSCHIN, a town of Bohemia, 22 miles N. W. of Koniggratz, and 44 NE. of Prague.

GITTAIM, a city of Benjamin, to which the Reerothites fled after the death of K. Saul. It was rebuilt after the return from the captivity.

GITTITES, the people of Gath. See GATH.

GITTITH, a Hebrew word occurring frequently in the Psalms, and generally translated *vine press*. Some think it signifies a sort of musical instrument; others, that the psalms with this title were sung after the vintage; and others, that the hymns of this kind were invented in the city of Gath. Calmet is of opinion, that they were sung by virgins born in Gath: Psal. viii. 1. lxxxii. 1. lxxxiv. 1. Dr Hammond thinks that the psalms with this title were all set to the same tune, and made on the defeat of Goliath the Gittite.

GIVA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 31 miles SE. of Mileta.

GIVANIROTONDO, a town of Naples, in the Capitanata, 9 miles W. of Mont St Angelo.

GIUBA, FORT, an old castle of Maritime Austria, in the Isle of Pago, and prov. of Quarnaro.

GIUDECCA, a district of Venice.

GIUDUCCA, or ZUSCCA. See ZUSCCA.

(1.) * To GIVE. *v. a.* preter. *gave*; part. pass. *given*. [*gifan*, Saxon.] 1. To bestow; to confer without any price or reward; not to sell.—I had a master that gave me all I could ask, but thought fit to take one thing from me again. Temple.

Constant at church and change; his guins were sure,
His *givings* rare, five farthings to the poor.

Pope.

While tradesmen starve these Philomels are gay;

For gailyous lords had rather give than pay.

Young.

Half useless doom'd to live,
Pray's and advice are all I have to give. Horat.

2. To transmit from himself to another in speech, or writing; to deliver, whom thou gavest to be with me of the tree, and I did eat. Gen. were eating and drinking, marrying marriage. Matt xiv 38.—Those I did not only every week, but also count of the whole year was give Thursday before Christmas. *Gave* an account of these phenomena. Aristotle advises not poets to put false and impossible into their poems, licence to run out into wilds.

3. To put into one's possession; to import; to communicate.—*Gave* for our lamps are gone out. *Makke* gives us many children and friends away; but takes none away to gain. Temple—*Gave* me, says Arch to stand firm, and I will remove the—If the agreement of men fill any one's hands, or put a crown that almost must direct its course.

4. To pay a price or reward, or more that a man hath will he give for his

If you did know to whom I go

If you did know for whom I got

And would conceive for what I got

And how unwillingly I left the

You would abate the strength of

sure.

—He would give his nuts for a p and exchange his sheep for shells, sparkling pebble. Locke. 1. To yield hold.—Plato, Alexander's father, against a prisoner at a time when he and seemed to give small attention, after sentence was pronounced, I the king, somewhat stirred, said, you appeal? The prisoner answered, when he gave no ear, to Ph shall give ear. Bacon—Constantia for having so tamely given an ear to Spectator. 6. To give; to yield place, then stranger, to an honourable.

7. To confer; to impart.—I will give thee a son also of her. Gen. : can give that to another which is Bramb. against Hobbes—What be some places, I give to others, who not originally. Dryden's Fub. 8. yield without retention.—

All clad in skins of beasts the

Give to the wanton winds their

9. To grant; to allow.—

'Tis given me once again to bet

—He has not given Luther fairer pl

10. To yield; not to deny.—

I gave his wife proposal w

Nay, urg'd him to go on; the st

Will ruin him. Row's Amb

11. To afford; to supply.—This

the fear of death in them which w

and gave them courage to all adven

—Over us also sacrifices and burnt

offerings

sacrifice unto the Lord. *Ex. x. 25. 12.*
 power; to commission.—

Prepare
 the libation and the solemn pray'r;
 give thy friend to shed the sacred wine.

Pope's Odyss.
 noble.—God himself requireth the lifting
 of hands in prayers; and hath given the
 power to understand, that the wicked, although
 they shall not be heard. *Hooker.*—

Give me to know
 this foul rout began, who set it on. *Shak.*
 some weak shoot, which else would poor-
 ly rile,
 the tree adopts, and lifts into the skies;
 the new pupil fost'ring juices flow,
 forth the gems, and give the flow'rs to
 glow. *Tickel.*

say.—The applause and approbation I give
 your speeches. *Shak. Troil. and Cress. 15.*
 r; to vent; to pronounce.—

you must be the first that gives this sen-
 ence,

as that suffers. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*

Rhodians seeing their enemies turn their
 gave a great shout in derision of them.

Hist.—Let the first honest discoverer give
 about, that Woe's halfpence have been

and caution the poor people not to re-
 sem. *Swift. 16.* To exhibit; to shew.—

ance gives the impossibility of an eternal
 e in any thing essentially alterable or cor-
 rupt. *Hale. 17.* To exhibit as the product of

action.—The number of men being divided
 number of ship-, gives 424 men a piece.

108. 18. To do any act of which the con-
 ce reaches others.—As we desire to give no

our selves, so neither shall we take any at-
 tention of judgment in others. *Barnet. 19.*

hibit; to send forth as odours from any bo-
 oranges the ripping of the rind giveth

or finel more. *Bacon. 20.* To addict; to

—The Helots, of the other side, shutting
 tes, gave themselves to bury their dead,

their wounds, and rest their wearied bo-
 dies.—After man began to grow to num-

ber, the first thing we read they gave themselves
 as the tiling of the earth and the feeding

er. *Hooker.*—Groves and hill altars were
 made, in regard to the secret access which

superstitiously given, might have always
 into with ease. *Hooker.*—

the duke is virtuous, mild, and too well gi-
 ven,

ream on evil, or to work my downfall.

Shak.
 or him not, Cæsar, he's not dangerous:

a noble Roman, and well given. *Shak.*

name is Falstaff: if that man should be
 given, he deceives me; for, Harry, I see

in his looks. *Shak.*—Huniades, the scourge
 of Turks, was dead long before; so was alio-

so: after whom succeeded others, given all to
 and ease. *Knolles's Hist.*—Though he was

pleasure, yet he was likewise desirous of
Bacon's Hen. VII.—He that giveth his mind

law of the most High, will seek out all the
 of all the ancients. *Eccles. xxxix. 1.*—He

is much given to contemplation, and the viewing of
 this theatre of the world. *More against Atheism.*

—They who gave themselves to warlike action
 and enterprises, went immediately to the palace

of Odin. *Temple.*—Men are given to this licentious
 humour of scoffing at personal beauties and de-

fects. *L'Estrange.*—Besides, he is too much given
 to horseplay in his raillery; and comes to battle,

like a dictator from the plough. *Dryden.*—I have
 some business of importance with her; but her

husband is so horribly given to be jealous. *Dryd.*

Span. Fygar.—What can I refuse to a man so cha-
 ritably given? *Dryd. 21.* To resign; to yield up

—Lining ourselves in the midst of the greatest
 wilderness of waters, without victual, we give

ourselves for lost men, and prepared for death
Bacon's New Atl.—

Who say, I care not, those I give for lost;
 And to instruct them will not quit the cost.

Herbert.

Virtue giv'n for lost,
 Dearest and overthrown, as seem'd;
 Like that self-begott'n bird
 From out her airy womb now teem'd.

Milton's Agon.

Since no deep within her gulph can hold
 Immortal vigour, though oppress'd and fail'n,
 I give not Heaven for lost. *Milt. Par. Lyz.*

—For a man to give his name to Christianity in
 those days, was to let himself a martyr. *South.*—

One gives himself for gone; you've watch'd
 your time,

He fights this day unarm'd, without his rhyme.
Dryden.

—The parents, after a long search for the body,
 gave him for drowned in one of the canals. *Spekt.*

—As the hinder feet of the horse stuck to the
 mountain, while the body reared up in the air,

the poet with great difficulty kept himself from
 sliding off his back, in so much that the people

gave him for gone. *Guardian. 22.* To conclude;
 to suppose.—

Whence came you here, O friend, and whi-
 ther bound?

All gave you lost on far Cyclopean ground.
Garth's Ovid.

23. To Give away. To alienate from one's self;
 to make over to another; to transfer.—The more

he got, the more he shewed that he gave away
 to his new mistress, when he betrayed his promi-

ses to the former. *Sidney.*—

If you shall marry,
 You give away this hand, and that is mine;
 You give away heav'n's vows, and those are

mine;
 You give away myself, which is known mine.

Shak.

Honest company, I thank you all,
 That have beheld me give away myself
 To this most patient, sweet, and virtuous wife.

Shak.

—I know not how they sold themselves; but thou,
 like a kind fellow, gav'st thyself away gratis, and

I thank thee for thee. *Shak. Henry IV.*—Love
 gives away all things, that so he may advance the

interest of the beloved person. *Taylor's Rule.*—

But we who give our native rights away,
 And our enslav'd posterity betray.

Are now reduc'd to beg an alms, and go

On holidays to see a puppet-show. *Dryd. Juv.*

—Alas, said I, man was made in vain! How is he *given away* to misery and mortality! *Addison.*

—Theodosius made a private vow never to inquire after Constantia, whom he looked upon as *given away* to his rival, upon the day on which their marriage was to have been solemnized. *Addison.*

—Whatsoever we employ in charitable uses, during our lives, is *given away* from ourselves: what we bequeath at our death, is given from others only, as our nearest relations. *Atterbury.*

24. *To GIVE back.* To return; to restore.—

Their vices perhaps *give back* all those advantages which their victories procured. *Atterbury.*

25. *To GIVE forth.* To publish; to tell.—Soon after it was *given forth*, and believed by many, that the king was dead. *Hayward.*

26. *To GIVE the hand.* To yield pre-eminence, as being subordinate or inferior.—

Lessons being free from some inconveniences, whereunto sermons are more subject, they may in this respect no less take than in others they must *give the hand*, which betokeneth pre-eminence. *Hooker.*

27. *To GIVE over.* To leave; to quit; to cease.—

Let novelty therefore in this *give over* endless contradictions, and let ancient customs prevail. *Hooker.*

—It may be done rather than that be *given over.* *Hooker.*

Never *give her o'er*;

For scorn at first makes after love the more.

Shak.

—If Desdemona will return me my jewels, I will *give over* my suit, and repent my unlawful solicitation. *Othello.*

—All the soldiers, from the highest to the lowest, had solemnly sworn to defend the city, and not to *give it over* unto the last man.

Knolles's Hist.—Those troops which were levied, have *given over* the prosecution of the war. *Clarendon.*

—But worst of all to *give her over*,

'Till she's as desperate to recover. *Hudibras.*

—A woman had a hen that laid every day an egg: she fancied that upon a larger allowance this hen might lay twice a day; but the hen grew fat, and

gave quite over laying. *L'Estrange.*

—Many have *given over* their pursuits after fame, either from the disappointments they have met, or from their experience of the little pleasure which attends it.

Spectator. 28. *To GIVE over.* To addict; to attach to.—

Zelmane, govern and direct me; for I am wholly *given over* unto thee. *Sidney.*

—When the Babylonians had *given themselves over* to all manner of vice, it was time for the Lord,

who had set up that empire, to pull it down. *Grew's Cosmol.*

—I used one thing ill, or *gave myself so much over* to it, as to neglect what I owed either to God or the world. *Temple.*

29. *To GIVE over.* To conclude lost.—

Since it is lawful to practise upon them that are forsaken and *given over*, I will adventure to prescribe to you. *Suckling.*

'Tis not amiss, e'er y' are *giv'n o'er*,

To try one desp'rate med'cine more;

And where your case can be no worse,

The desp'ratest's the wisest course. *Hudibras.*

—The abbess, finding that the physicians had *given her over*, told her that Theodosius was just

gone before her, and had sent her his benediction.

Spectator.—Her condition was now *rate*, all regular physicians, and her relations, having *given her over.* *Arbutnot.*

Yet this false comfort never *gives*

That, whilst he creeps, his vig'rou can soar.

Not one foretell's I shall recover;

But all agree to *give me over.*

30. *To GIVE over.* To abandon.—

The uniformity throughout all churches, in order of indifferent ceremonies, will be

and therefore best to *give it over.* *Hooker.*

—He, as one weary of the world, gave

and betook himself to a solitary life, as a monk. *Knolles.*

Sleep hath forsook, and *giv'n me*

To death's benumbing opium, as my

The cause for which we fought and

So boldly, shall we now *give o'er*?

31. *To GIVE out.* To proclaim; to putter.—

The father's *gave it out* for a whatsoever Christ is said in Scripture to

received, the same we ought to apply to the manhood of Christ. *Hooker.*

It is *given out*, that, sleeping in me

A serpent stung me. So the whole c mark

Is, by forged process of my death, Rankly abused. *Shak.*

One that *gives out* himself prince of

Son of Polixenes, with his princels.

—It hath been *given out*, by an hypocrite

who was the first master of my ship, that

with me out of England 22,000 piece per piece. *Raleigh.*

—He *gave out* general for the assembly of his council for

Knolles's Hist.—The night was distilling

the orders which he *gave out* to his a

they should forbear all insulting of their

Addison. 32. *To GIVE out.* To show appearance.—

His *givings out* were of an infinite c

From his true meant design.

She that, so young, could *give c*

seeming,

To seal her father's eyes up close as c

33. *To GIVE up.* To resign; to quit;

—The people, weary of the miseries

would *give him up*, if they saw him thrin

He has betray'd your business, and

For certain drops of salt, your city R

—The sun, breaking out with his cheer

revived many, before ready to *give up*

for cold, and gave comfort to them all.

Hist.—He found the lord Hopeton in the

loss of the regiment of foot at Alton,

the unexpected assurance of the *giving up*

del-castle. *Clarendon.*—Let us *give oursel*

ly *up* to Christ in heart and desire. *Tayl*

—Such an expectation will never come

therefore I'll e'en *give it up*, and go and

self. *Collier.*—I can *give up* to the hist

your country the names of so many gen

heroes which croud their annals. *Dryd.*

—He declares himself to be now satisfied to the

in which he has *given up* the cause.

s made between several states disown-
n to the land in the other's possession,
common consent, *given up* their pre-
their natural right. *Locke*.—If they *give*
o their reasons, then they with them
l earth and farther enquiry, and think
o such thing as certainty. *Locke*.—We
him *give up* again to the wild common
whatever was more than would supply
iciencies of life. *Locke*.—

s surrender, since his father's death,
give up Africk into Cæsar's hands,
ke him lord of half the burning zone.

Addis. Cato.

to be honest men, *give up* your leaders,
don shall descend on all the rest. *Cato*.
h priest threatened to excommunicate a
erland squire, if he did not *give up* to
urch lands. *Addison's Freeholder*.—He
lestial deities acting in a confederacy a-
n, and immediately *gave up* a cause
excluded from all possibility of success.
—An old gentleman, who had been en-
n argument with the emperor, upon his
ling him he wondered he would *give up*
on when he had the better, I am never
says he, to be confuted by one who is
fifty legions. *Spectator*.—He may be
o *give up* the clearest evidence. *Atterb.*
stant health and longevity of men must
p also. as a groundless conceit. *Bentley*.
the physicians *giv'n up* all their hopes ;
they add a few days to a monarch ?

Roscoe.

people were obliged to demand peace,
p to the Romans all their possessions in
butb.—Every one who will not ask for
et of God in the study of religion, has
n to fear he shall be left of God, and
prey to a thousand prejudices, that he
onsigned over to the follies of his own
its.—*Give yourselves up* to some hours

Watts. 34. *To GIVE up.* To abandon.
be *given up* to believe lies, some must
given up to tell them. *Stillingfl.*—Our
urally *give themselves up* to every diver-
b they are much accustomed to ; and we
id that play, when followed with assidu-
esses the whole woman. *Guardian*.—A
t no sooner communicates his works,
imagined he is a vain young creature
to the ambition of fame. *Pope*.—I am
: this time to *give up* my whole applica-
mer. *Pope*.—Persons who, through mis-
chuse not to dress, should not, however,
ratness. *Clarissa.* 35. *To GIVE up.* To
And Joab *gave up* the sum of the num-
e people to the king. 2 *Sam.* xxiv. 9.—
ants were confused, and he could not
them up. *Swift.* 36. *To GIVE away.*
; not to resist ; to make room for. Pri-
ets, with him, *gave away* to the common
srew.—Perpetual pushing and assurance
icuity out of countenance, and make a
possibility *give away.* *Collier*.—
e had he spoken when the cloud *gave*
y ;

The mists flew upwards, and dissolv'd in day.

Dryden's Æn.

His golden helm *gives away* with stony blows,
Batter'd and flat, and beaten to his brows. *Æn.*
37. The word *give* is used with great laxity, the
general idea is that of transmitting from one to a-
nother.

(2.) * *To GIVE.* v. n. 1. To rush ; to fall on ;
to give the assault. A phrase merely French, and
not worthy of adoption.—

Your orders come too late, the fight's begun ;
The enemy *gives on* with fury led. *Dryden.*
—Hannibal *gave upon* the Romans. *Hooke. Rom. H.*

2. To relent ; to grow moist ; to melt or soften ;
to thaw.—Some things are harder when they come
from the fire, and afterwards *give* again, and
grow soft ; as the crust of bread, biscuit, sweet-
meats, and salt. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Only a sweet and virtuous soul,
Like season'd timber, never *gives* ;
But though the whole world turn to coal,
Then chiefly lives. *Herbert.*

—Unless it is kept in a hot house, it will so *give*
again, that it will be better than raw malt. *Mor-*
timer.—Before you carry your large cocks in,
open them once, and spread them : hay is apt to
give in the cock. *Mort.* 3. To move. A Fr.
phrase —

Up and down he traverses his ground,
Then nimbly shifts a thrust, then lends a wound ;
Now back he *gives*, then rushes on amain.

Daniel's C. War.

4. *To GIVE in.* To go back ; to give way. Not
in use.—The charge was given with so well go-
verned fury, that the left corner of the Scots bat-
talion was enforced to *give in.* *Hayes.* 5. *To*
GIVE into. [A French phrase.] To adopt ; to em-
brace.—This is a geography particular to the me-
dalists : the poets, however, have sometimes *given*
into it, and furnish us with very good lights for
the explication of it. *Addison*.—This consideration
may induce a translator to *give into* those general
phrases, which have attained a veneration in our
language from being used in the Old Testament.
Pope.—The whole body of the people are either
stupidly negligent, or else *giving in* with all their
might to those very practices that are working
their destruction. *Swift.* 6. *To GIVE off.* To
cease ; to forbear.—The punishment would be
kept from being too much, if we *gave off* as soon
as we perceived that it reaches the mind. *Lee.*
7. *To GIVE over.* To cease ; to act no more.
—If they will speak to the purpose, they must
give over, and stand upon such particulars only
as they can shew we have either added or abro-
gated, otherwise than we ought, in the matter of
church polity. *Hooker*.—Neither hath Christ,
through union of both natures, incurred the
damage of either ; lest, by being born a man,
we should think he hath *given over* to be God, or
that because he continued God, therefore he can-
not be man also. *Hooker*.—

Give not o'er to ; to him again ; intreat him,
Kneel down before him, hang upon his gown ;
You are too cold. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*
—The state of human actions is so variable, that to
try things oft, and never to *give over*, doth won-
ders.

ders. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Demetrius king of Macedonia, had a petition offered him divers times by an old woman, and still answered he had no leisure; whereupon the woman said aloud, Why then *give over* to be king. *Bacon's Apoph.*—

So Satan, whom repulse upon repulse
Met ever, and to shameful silence brought,
Yet gives not *o'er*, though desperate of success.

Milton.

Shall we kindle all this flame

Only to put it out again?

And not we now *give o'er*,

And only end where we begun?

In vain th a mischief we have done,

If we can do no more. *Denham.*

—It would be well for all authors, if they knew when to *give over*, and to desist from any farther pursuits after fame. *Addis.*—He coined again, and was forced to *give over* for the same reason. *Swift.*

8. To Give out. To publish; to proclaim.—Simon bewitched the people of Samaria, *giving out* that himself was some great one. *Acts viii 9.*—Julius Cæsar laid asleep Pompey's preparations, by a tale that he cunningly *gave out* how Cæsar's own soldiers loved him not. *Bacon.*—Your ill-wishers will *give out* you are now going to quit your school. *Swift.* To Give out. To cease; to yield.—

We are the earth; and they,
Like moles within us, heave and cast about;
And 'till they foot and clutch their prey;
They never cool, much less *give out*. *Herbert.*
Madam, I always believ'd you so stout,
That for twenty denials you would not *give out*.

Swift.

• GIVER. *n. f.* [from *give*.] One that gives; donor; bestower; distributor; granter.—

Well we may afford
Our *givers* their own gifts. *Milt. Par. Lost.*
By thee how fairly is the *giver* now
Repaid? But gratitude in thee is lost
Long since. *Milton's Paradise Regain'd.*
I have not liv'd since first I heard the news;
The gift the guilty *giver* doth accuse. *Dryden.*
Both gifts destructive to the *givers* prove;
Alike both lovers fall by those they love. *Pope.*

• GIVET. *n. f.* Fetters or shackles for the feet.

GIVET, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardennes, and district of Rocroy, fortified by Vauban; 15 miles NE. of Rocroy, and 24 N. of Metziers.

GIVIRA, a lake and town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Verbano, 8 m. from Angera.

(1.) GIULA, a strong town of Upper Hungary, near Transylvania. It was taken by the Turks in 1565, and retaken by the Imperialists in 1695. It is seated on the Keres, 30 miles NW. of Arad, 52 NNW. of Temeswar, and 88 N. of Belgrade. Lon. 30. 40. E. Lat. 46. 40. N.

(2.) GIULA NOVA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, on the Adriatic, 12 miles ENE. of Teramo.

GIULEMO, a mountain of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Benaco, and of the prov. of Verona. This mountain with that of Mantua, and the valley of Sabbia, contain 26 parishes, and 13,000 citizens; who carry on cloth manufactures, and iron forges and founderies. Cattle are also bred in great numbers.

GIULENEI, an island in the Gulf of Sydrac, 15 miles S. of Afracan. Lon. 65. 35. Lat. 44. 15. N.

GIULIA. See GIULA.

GIULIANA, a town of Sicily, 9 miles from Xacca, and 30 from Pale.

GIULIO, or ZUGLO. See ZUGLO.

GIVONNE, a town of France, in Ardennes, 3 miles NE. of Sedan.

GIVORS, a town of France, in Rhone and Loire, 13 miles S. of Lyon.

GIVRY, a town of France, in the Rhone and Loire, 4½ m. W. of Chalons, and 8

GIUSMARK, a town of Asiatic the province of Curdistan, 80 miles S

GIUSTANDEL, or } a large and

(1.) GIUSTENDIL, } of Europe's Macedonia, with a Greek archbishop lake Ochrida, 60 miles SE. of Durazzo of Nyssa. It was anciently called and was the birth place of Justinian

36. E. Lat. 41. 40. N

(2, 3.) GIUSTENNIT, two towns Turkey, in Bulgaria; 1. 80 miles W phia; and, 2. 24 miles S. of it.

GIZIGINSKAIA, a gulf at the NW of the Penzinskoe sea, between Rastchatka; 50 miles long and 16 broad E. of Ferro. Lat. from 67° to 68° N

• GIZZARD. *n. f.* [from *gizz*, Fr. *giz*] It is sometimes called *gizzard*. 1. muscular stomach of a fowl.—For

ventricles, and pick up stones to con to their second ventricle, the *gizzard* birds there is no mastication in the to such as are not carnivorous, it is swallowed into the crop, a kind of where it is moistened by some prope the glandules discharging in there, and ferred into the *gizzard*, or muscular t

By their high crops and corny *giz*

2. It is proverbially used for apprehension of mind: as, he *sees his gizzard* rallies his imagination.—

But that which does them grieve
Their spiritual *gizzards* are too w.
Which puts the overheated sots
In fevers still.

—Satisfaction and restitution lie so upon the *gizzards* of our publican blood is not half so dear to them as their coffers. *L'Estrange.*

GIZZING BRIGGS, a formidable coast of Sutherlandshire, stretching point of the coast of Dornoch, almost to the S. side of the Frith; to call incessant noise. The sand banks fort are not, however, so closely connected vessels of about 300 tons burden may the direction of a pilot.

• GLABRITY. *n. f.* [from *glaber*, L. nels; baldness. *Dict.*

• GLACIAL. *adj.* [glacial, Fr. *glacy*; made of ice; frozen.

• To GLACIATE. *v. n.* [glacis, French.] To turn into ice.

GLACIATION. *n. f.* [from *glaciate*.] The act of ice being formed.—Ice is plain upon the surface of water, but round in hail, which is *glaciation*, and figured in its guttulous descent upon the air. *Brown's Vulgar Errours.*

GLACIERS, a name given to some very high ridges of ice among the ALPS. Mr Coxe says that these mountains, in general are composed of parallel chains, the highest of which are in the centre, and the others gradually descend as they recede from thence. The central ridges are covered with pointed rocks; all the declivities, that are not absolutely perpendicular under perpetual snow and ice. On the sides of this ridge are fertile and cultivated lands interspersed with numerous villages, and watered by numerous streams. The elevated parts of the central chain are covered with snow: the declivities, excepting those that are exposed to the sun, have all a covering of ice as well as the intermediate parts being filled with vast quantities of ice, terminating in the cultivated valleys. These are the *glaciers*, though on a smaller scale, than the great chains that are at a distance from the centre: In those which are most remote, no snow is observed, unless upon the most elevated summits; and the declivities, diminishing in height and ruggedness, are covered with verdure, until at last they terminate in small hills and plains. Thus the glaciers are divided into two sorts; the 1st occupying the valleys in the bosom of the Alps, called *glaciers*; the 2d covering the declivities and the tops of the mountains. These are called by Mr Coxe **UPPER and LOWER GLACIERS.**

GLACIERS, THE LOWER, are by far the most numerous; some of them extending several miles in length. They do not communicate with each other, as has been generally supposed, but being parallel to the central chain; running mostly in a transverse direction, and separated at the higher extremity by inaccessible mountains, and at the lower extend into the cultivated valleys. The thickness of the ice varies in different parts. In the glacier de Bois, which extends more than 15 miles in length, and upwards of 1000 feet in breadth, M. Saussure found it generally from 100 to 200 feet; but he was credibly informed that in some places it was not less than 600 feet, and in others more. These vast masses of ice usually rest upon a level plain; where, being pushed forward by their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath them, they are divided by large crevices, and have an appearance of walls, pyramids, &c. according to the position of the eye in viewing them. In those places, however, where they lie upon even ground, the declivity is nearly uniform, the crevices being small and narrow, and the glacier being crossed with ease on foot without any difficulty. The surface of the ice is rough and granulated, so that it is difficult to walk upon it, excepting such places where the ice is deep and soft. It is opaque, full of small stones, and resembles a mixture of snow and water.

A vast quantity of stones and earth are brought down from the mountains upon the glaciers, and are by them thrown off on each side according to the descent of the ice. The place on which these rest is more hard and elevated than the rest of the ice, and is very difficult to walk upon; the earth is likewise laid upon them in such regular heaps, that it appears to have been done by art. This collection of earth and stones is termed by the natives the *Moraine*. Mr Coxe, who visited the glacier des Bois, informs us, that the appearance of it at a distance was so tremendous, that it seemed impracticable to cross it. Numerous and broad chasms intersected it in every direction; but entering upon it, the company found that courage and activity were only required to accomplish the task. They had large nails in their shoes and spiked sticks; which on this occasion were found to be particularly serviceable. Having passed the moraine, and descended upon the glacier itself, they found the ice softened by a warm wind which rendered it less slippery than usual. Having walked across it for about a quarter of an hour, they came again to the moraine, along which they continued their journey for half an hour, and then entered upon the great body of the glacier. "Here (says Mr Coxe,) it was curious to observe the numerous little rills produced by the collection of drops occasioned by the thawing of the ice on the upper part of the glacier: these little rills hollow out small channels, and, torrent-like, precipitate themselves into the chasms with a violent noise, increasing the body of waters formed by the melting of the interior surface, and finding an outlet under the immense arch of ice in the valley of Chamouni, from which the Aaron rushes." As our traveller proceeded on his journey, he was surprised by the noise of a large fragment of rock which had detached itself from one of the highest needles, and bounded from one precipice to another with great rapidity; but before it reached the plain, it was almost reduced to dust. "Having proceeded about an hour (says he) we were astonished with a view more magnificent than imagination can conceive: hitherto the glaciers had scarcely answered my expectations, but now they far surpassed them. Nature had clad herself in all her terrors. Before us was a valley of ice 20 miles in extent, bounded by a circular glacier of pure unbroken snow, named *Taku*, which leads directly to the foot of Mount Blanc, and is surrounded by large conical rocks, terminating in sharp points like the towers of an ancient fortification; to the right rose a range of magnificent peaks, their intervals filled with glaciers; and far above the rest, the magnificent summit of Mount Blanc, his highest point obscured with clouds. He appeared of such immense magnitude, that, at his presence, the circumjacent mountains, however gigantic, seemed to shrink before him, and *hide their diminished heads*. In half an hour we arrived at the moraine, which forms a boundary of the valley, crossed it, and proceeded upon a body of ice about three quarters of a mile broad. Here the ice was more even and free from chasms than in the great valley. We then passed a 2d moraine, and beyond that another mass of ice to a 3d moraine: descending from thence we came upon the last ridge of ice, broader and considerably higher than the two former, and full of

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large chasms: it is separated from the rock only by a very narrow moraine. These moraines contain great quantities of crystal." They continued to ascend the valley of ice, the scene constantly increasing in magnificence and horror; and having walked about 4 miles on the ice, they arrived at last at the foot of the eminence named *Couvercle*, where they were obliged to quit the ice. The doing this was extremely dangerous, and at one place very tremendous. It was a bulging smooth rock, with a precipice of considerable depth terminated by a vast crevice in the ice, which seemed to stop all further progress: a small hollow in the middle, however, afforded room for one foot; and having fixed this, they sprung over to the other side, being helped and directed by the guides who went over first. Having gained the top of the *Couvercle*, they had a view of three of the glaciers, viz. that of *Talisfre* to the left, *L'Esbaud* in front, and *Takul* on the right; all uniting in that great one called the *Glacier de Boss*. The *Couvercle* itself is a most extraordinary rock, having the appearance of a large irregular building with many sides; the substance of which is granite. Having reached the top, they were surprised with a thunder storm, from whence they took shelter under an impending rock. The view was exceedingly magnificent; the glaciers appearing like a rugged expanse of frozen sea bounded by gigantic rocks, and terminated by Mount Blanc. A single rock appeared of a triangular figure covered with Alpine plants; and which, by reason of its contrast with the rugged and snowy mountains in the neighbourhood, has obtained the name of the *Gardien*.—During this, as well as other excursions among the Alps, Mr Coxie had occasion to observe that the colour of the sky was of a much deeper blue than in the lower regions.

II. GLACIERS, THE UPPER, may be subdivided into those which cover the summits, and those which extend along the sides of the Alps. Those on the very summit, however, though they have the appearance of ice, are not so in reality, but consist entirely of snow hardened by the extreme cold. M. Saussure found that which covered the top of Mount Blanc to be penetrable, though with difficulty, by a stick; but below this hard crust was a soft snow without coherence. The sides are covered with a mixture of ice and snow; by reason of the superior power of the summer sun to dissolve the snow, which afterwards congeals into hard ice.

(1.) GLACIERS, CONJECTURES RESPECTING THE FORMATION OF THE. Several conjectures have been made concerning the formation of these extraordinary bodies of ice. Mr Coxie agrees with M. Gruner in opinion, that they are produced by the continual dissolution of the snow in summer, and its congelation by the succeeding frosts. Hence, on the summits of the mountains where the sun has very little power, the glacier is soft, and contains no ice: as we descend the mountains the consistence becomes firmer, because there is a considerable mixture of snow-water; the congelation of which augments the hardness; and in the valleys, the glacier is hardest of all, because the portion of water is there much superior to that of the snow. Hence it seems plain, that the glaciers derive their

origin from the melting of the snow on parts of the mountains, and the congelation of water as it advances: and to this cause I add the quantity of snow which often falls into the valleys and congeals along with it.

(2.) GLACIERS, OPINIONS RESPECTING THE INCREASE, OR DIMINUTION OF THE. A question concerning the glaciers naturally arises, namely, Whether they are to be considered as in a state of increase or diminution? Mr Coxie is of opinion, that they occasionally increase or decrease; in proof of which he adduces the following observations. "The borders of the *Montanvert* are mostly skirted with trees; its base a vast arch of ice rises to near 1000 feet high; under which the river *Averon* flows with considerable force, and in a large body. As we approached the ice, we passed a wood of firs: those trees which stand at a distance from the arch are about 80 feet high, and are undoubtedly of a very great age. These and the glacier the trees are of a size as is evident from their texture and is Others, still smaller, have been overgrown and enveloped in the ice: there seems to be a regular gradation in the age of these firs from the largest which are standing to that which is prostrate."—Hence our author concludes that the glacier once extended as far as the small firs; but that upon its gradual advance a number of trees shot up on the spot occupied; since which time the ice has advanced, and overturned the last grown trees they had attained to any considerable size. This he thinks also confirmed by the fact: "Large stones of granite are found at a small distance from the extremities of the glacier. These stones have certainly fallen from the mountains upon the ice; have been carried on by its progress; and have tumbled into the dissolution or sinking of the ice which supported them. These stones, which we call *Moraine*, form a kind of border along the foot of the valley of ice, and have been carried forward by the glacier in its advance; they tend even to the place occupied by the pines." In opposition to those who maintain that there is a constant accumulation of ice in the Alpine regions, our author makes the following remarks: 1. Between the years 1785 the glacier of *Grindelvald* had advanced to such a degree, that the spot which it occupied in the former year, was now a plain; the place from that occupied by it in the year 1785 the *Murailles de Glace*, which, had been described as forming the border of *Bosson*, no longer existed; and you could not find the parts which were then the glacier of *Montanvert*. Still, however, he is urged, that these changes only take place in the valleys where the power of the sun is able; and that from thence we cannot form an adequate idea of what passes in the high regions, where in all probability more ice than can be dissolved. In support of this it is alleged, that the cold produced by the ice already formed ought to augment more; and that within the memory of

many places have been covered with were not so before. To these arguments, Mr Coxe replies, that the causes, with the ice in the upper regions, are more powerful than the cold which tends to augment these are, 1. Rain or snow; which softens the lower glaciers, thaw the ice, infiltrates on its surface, excavate channels, and in ways tend to diminish its quantity. Sublimation, which takes place even from the surface of the ice itself, acts still more powerfully; sublimation is not confined to any particular place.

The falling of the snow and ice; both of which comes gradually from the clouds, and descends from the mountains in great masses, produces AVALANCHES. When these descend into milder regions, though sometimes they resist the influence of the sun and winds, yet they generally dissolve. They are common in the upper glaciers, though when they descend upon the lower, while the descent of snow from the clouds, which takes place in the lower, contributes very little to the mass. 4. All the lower glaciers of ice rest on an inclined plane, and are undermined by torrents which are flowing from the upper glaciers, as well as on their own lowermost surface. Their foundation thus constantly diminishing, the lower glacier is carried imperceptibly forward into the fields, where an end is necessarily put to its progress by the heat of the sun. Hence is the reason of that strange phenomenon observed by Mr Coxe, that with one hand he dug up ripe corn, and with the other found the descent of the glacier is demonstrable by trees overturned by it, and the moraine preserved at the bottom of the lower glacier. The heat of the sun is an evident cause of the diminution of the glaciers. To this Mr Coxe adds another cause less generally known, viz. winds which blow by night as well as by day in the upper and lower glaciers. Mr Coxe says (says he) are during summer in those parts, that I never crossed without feeling in some particular positions similar to the air of a hot bath." 6. As the mean temperature of the earth at the surface, where it is not exposed to the piercing of the atmosphere, is found to have a temperature always above the freezing point. As the thickness of the superincumbent ice, in the present case abundantly sufficient to prevent the access of the atmosphere, it is at the lower surface of it must, by being in contact with the earth, continually decay. With the other argument drawn from the case of the ice in some places, Mr Coxe denies it; but insists, that there is no consequence of the whole, but that if it in some places, it diminishes in others; and in union in this respect was confirmed by frequent the mountains.

GLACIOUS. *adj.* [*glacio*, Latin.] Icy; refrigerant.—Although exhiled and placed in refrigeratories, it will crystallize and shoot into bodies. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

(1.) * GLACIS. *n. f.* [French.] In fortification, a sloping bank. It is more especially taken for that which runneth from the parapet of the covered way to the level on the side of the field. *Harris.*

(2.) GLACIS, in building, an easy insensible slope or declivity. The descent of the glacis is less steep than that of the talus. In gardening, a descent sometimes begins in talus, and ends in glacis. The glacis of the corniche, is an easy imperceptible slope in the cymation, to promote the descent and draining off the rain water.

* GLAD. *adj.* [*glad*, Saxon; *glad*, Danish.] 1. Cheerful; gay; in a state of hilarity.—They blessed the king, and went into their tents joyful and glad of heart. *1 Kings* viii. 66.—

Glad we return'd up to the coasts of light.

Milton.

The wily adder blithe and glad. *Milton.*

Thither they

Hasted with glad precipitance. *Milton.*

2. Wearing a gay appearance; fertile; bright; showy.—The wilderness and the solitary place shall be glad for them, and the desert shall rejoice and blossom as the rose. *I/. xxxv.*—

Then first adorn'd

With their bright luminaries, that set and rose,
Glad Evening and glad Morn crown'd the fourth day. *Milton.*

3. Pleased; elevated with joy. It has generally *of*, sometimes *at* or *with* before the cause of gladness: perhaps *of* is most proper, when the cause of joy is something gained or possessed; and *at* or *with*, when it is some accident befallen himself or another.—I am glad to see your worship. *Shak. Hen. IV.*—He hath an uncle in Messina will be very much glad of it. *Shak. Much Ado.*—He that is glad at calamities shall not be unpunished. *Prov.*—

He glad

Of her attention, gain'd with serpent tongue,
His fraudulent temptation thus began. *Milton.*
—If he be my enemy, let him triumph; if he be my friend, he will be glad of my repentance. *Dryden's Fables.*—

The gaping wound gush'd out a crimson flood;

The Trojan, glad with sight of hostile blood,
His fauchion drew. *Dryden's Æn.*

Glad of a quarrel strait I clap the door. *Pope.*

4. Pleasing; exhilarating.—

Her conversation

More glad to me than to a miser money is. *Sid.*

5. Expressing gladness.—

Hark! a glad voice the lonely desert cheers:
Prepare the way, a God, a God appears!

Pope.

6. It is used in a familiar sense, approaching to ludicrousness.—I would be glad to learn from those who pronounce that the human soul always thinks, how they know it. *Locke.*

* To GLAD. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To make glad; to cheer; to exhilarate.—

He saw rich Nectar-thaws release the rigour
Of th' icy North; from frost-bound Atlas hands
His adamantine fetters fall: green vigour
Gladding the Scythian rocks, and Lybian sands.

Grasshaw.

It glads me

To see so many virtues thus united,
To restore justice and dethrone oppression.

Orway.

Each drinks the juice that *glads* the heart of
man.

Pope.

If justice Philips' coſſive head
Some frigid rhymes diſburſes,

They ſhall like Perſian tales be read,

Swift.

And *glad* both babes and nurſes,
GLADBACH, or } a town of Germany, in the
GLADBECK, } ci devant duchy of Juliers,
now included in the French republic, and dept.
of the Roer, 16 miles N. of Juliers.

To GLADDEN. *v. a.* [from *glad*.] To cheer;
to delight; to make glad; to exhilarate.—

Oh, he was all made up of love and charms!
Delight of every eye! When he appear'd,
A ſecret pleaſure *gladden'd* all that ſaw him.

Addiſon's Cato.

—A kind of vital heat in the ſoul cheers and *glad-*
dens her, when ſhe does not attend to it. *Speſ.*

* GLADDER. *n. f.* [from *glad*.] One that
makes glad; one that gladdens; one that exhi-
larates.—

Thou *gladder* of the mount of Cytheron,

Have pity, goddeſs.

Dryden.

* GLADE. *n. f.* [from *gladan*, Sax. to be hot, or
to ſhine; whence the Daniſh *glod* and the obſo-
lete Engliſh *gleed*, a red hot coal.] A lawn or open-
ing in a wood. *Lucas.* It is taken for an avenue
through a wood, whether open or ſhaded, and
has therefore epithets of oppoſite meaning.—

So flam'd his eyes with rage and rancorous
ire;

But far within, as in a hollow *glade*,

Thoſe glazing lamps were ſet, that made a
dreadful ſhade.

Spenser.

Lo where they ſp'd, how in a gloomy *glade*,
The lion ſleeping lay in ſecret ſhade.

Hubb.

O might I here

In ſolitude live ſavage, in ſome *glade*,

Obſcur'd, where higheſt woods, impenetrable
To ſtar or ſun light, ſpread their umbrage
broad,

And brown as evening.

Milt. Par. Loſt.

When any, favour'd of high Jove,
Chances to paſs through this adventurous *glade*,
Swift as a ſparkle of a glancing ſtar
I ſhoot from heav'n to give him ſafe convoy.

Milton.

For noonday's heat are cloſer arbours made,
And for freſh evening air the op'net *glade*.

Dryden.

There, interſpers'd in lawns and opening
glades,

Thin trees ariſe that ſhun each other's ſhades.

Pope.

By the heroes armed ſhades,

Glitt'ring thro' the gloomy *glades*;

By the youths that dy'd for love,

Wand'ring in the myrtle grove,

Reſtore, reſtore Eurydice to life!

Oh! take the huſband, or reſtore the wife!

Pope.

She ſmil'd, array'd,

With all the charms of ſun ſhine, ſtream and

glade,

New dreſt and blooming as a bridal maid.

Harte.

GLADENBACH, a town of Germany, 3 miles W. of Marburg, a
Gießen.

* GLADEN. *n. f.* [from *gladius*, L.]

* GLADER. *n. f.* Swordgrains: a genus
plants that riſe with a broad blade like
maize.

* GLADFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *glad* &
Joy; gladneſs. Obſolete.—

And there him reſts in riotous ſlee
Of all his *gladfulneſs*, and kingly

(1.) * GLADIATOR. *n. f.* [Latin
Fr.] A ſwordplayer; a prizefighter.

Then whiſt his foe each *gladiator*
The athenſt, looking on, enjoys the

Befides, in gratitude for ſuch big
Know I have vow'd two hundred g

(2.) GLADIATORS, in antiquity, who
fought, generally in the arms of
the entertainment of the people.

uſually ſlaves, and fought out of neceſſity
ſometimes freemen adopted the pro-
fou prize fighters, for a livelihood. I
borrowed this cruel diversion from
ſome ſuppoſe out of policy, the frequent
of gladiators tending to accuſtom them
deſpice dangers and death.

(3.) GLADIATOR'S COMBATS, OR
HISTORY OF. From the earlieſt times

we have any acquaintance in proſe
had been the cuſtom to ſacrifice cap-
ſoners of war, to the manes of the great
had died in the engagement: thus
the Iliad, lib. xxii. ſacrifices twelve
jans to the manes of Patroclus; and
lib. xi. ver. 81, Æneas ſends, captive
der, to be ſacrificed at the funeral of
las. In courſe of time they came
crifice ſlaves at the funerals of all per-
dition: this was even eſteemed a ne-
of the ceremony; but as it would have
barbarous to have maſſacred them
they were appointed to fight with each
and endeavour'd to ſave their own
ling their adverſary. This ſeemed ſo
human, becauſe there was a poſſibili-
ing death, by an exertion of ſkill in
This occaſioned the profeſſion of glad-
come an art: hence aroſe maſters of
men learned to fight and exerciſe it.

ters, whom the Latins called *Lanista*
young ſlaves to be trained up to this
whom they afterwards ſold to ſuch a
ſion to preſent the people with ſo hor-
Theſe exhibitions were at firſt perform-
ſepulchre of the deceaſed, or about
pile; but were afterwards removed to
and amphi theatres, and became ſpecta-
ments. The firſt ſhow of gladiators,
mus gladiatorum, was exhibited at Ro-
ing to Valerius Maximus, by M. and
upon the death of their father, A. U.

this occaſion there were probably only
of gladiators. In 537, the three ſons
lius Lepidus the augur, who had been

tained the people with the cruel pleasure of 22 gladiators fight in the forum. Scipio Africanus diverted his army at the siege with a show of gladiators, which was in honour of his father and uncle, upon the reduction of Spain. In process of time, the Romans became so fond of these entertainments, that not only the heir of an indigent rich citizen lately deceased, but all magistrates, presented the people with a show of gladiators, to acquire popularity. The prætors, consuls, and, above all, the censors, made their court to the people, by presenting them frequently with these fights; and the prætors were sometimes the exhibitors of these shows. Suetonius mentions the shows of gladiators, August. cap. 44. and Pliny, the shows of gladiators, Epist. lib. vii. As for the emperors, they gratified themselves with the populace, by presenting them with combats of gladiators on all occasions; and as these increased, the number of combatants increased likewise. Augustus, in his ædileship, diverted the people with 320 couple. Even Titus Vespasian presented a show of gladiators, wild beasts, and combats of sea-fights, which lasted 100 days. Trajan continued a solemnity of this kind for 123 days; during which time he brought out 1000 gladiators. Before this time, un-til the time of Augustus, the number of gladiators was so great, that when the conspiracy of Catiline was discovered, the senate ordered them to be dispersed in the garrisons and secured, lest they should be the disaffected party. See § 7.

GLADIATORS, LAWS RESPECTING. These combats became so common, and their consequence so dangerous, that the senate passed a law, that no person should be a candidate for any office, who had been a gladiator within two years before he was a candidate for any office. Julius Cæsar decreed, that only a certain number of men should be in Rome at a time; and the senate decreed, that only two shows of gladiators should be presented in a year, and never a couple of combatants in a show; and the senate provided by an order of senate, that no person should have the privilege of gratifying himself with such a solemnity, unless he was a senator or a prætor. They were also regulated by Nerva. Claudius restrained the number of gladiators on certain occasions; but he soon after annulled the decree, and private persons began to present shows at pleasure as usual. Some carried off the satisfaction so far as to have them at private feasts. And not slaves only, but free men would hire themselves to this infame profession. The master of the gladiators made them swear that they would fight to death; and if they failed, they were put to death either by the sword, clubs, whips, or the like. It was not for the wretches to complain when they were wounded, or to ask for death or seek to be killed when overcome; but it was usual for them to grant themselves life when they gave no quarter, but waited the fatal stroke with intrepidity. Augustus even decreed that death should always be granted them. From the time of Augustus, the inhuman sport at length

spread to people of rank and condition; so that Augustus was obliged to issue a public edict that none of the senatorial order should become gladiators; and soon after he laid the same restraint on the knights: nevertheless, Nero is said to have brought upwards of 400 senators and 600 Roman knights upon the arena; though Lipsius takes both these numbers to be falsified, and reduces them to 40 senators and 60 knights: yet Domitian, that other monster of cruelty, refined upon Nero, exhibiting combats of women in the night-time. Constantine the Great, is said to have first prohibited the combats of gladiators in the East. At least he forbade those who were condemned to death for their crimes to be employed; there being an order still extant to the *præfectus prætorii*, rather to send them to work in the mines, dated at Berytus, in Phœnicia, the 1st of October 325. Honorius forbade them at Rome on occasion of the death of Telemachus, who, coming out of the East into Rome at the time of one of these spectacles, went down into the arena, and used all his endeavours to prevent the gladiators from continuing the sport; upon which the spectators of that carnage, fired with anger, stoned him to death. The practice was not, however, totally abolished in the West, before Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, put a stop to it entirely, A. D. 500.

(5.) **GLADIATORS, REGULATIONS, AND TERMS USED AMONG THEM.** Some time before the day of combat, the person who presented the people with the shows gave them notice thereof by programmas or bills, containing the names of the gladiators, and the marks whereby they were to be distinguished: for each had his several badge; which was most commonly a peacock's feather, as appears from the scholiast of Juvenal on the 158th verse of the 3d satire, and Turnebus Advers. lib. ii. cap. 8. They also gave notice how long the shows would last, and how many couples of gladiators there were; and it appears, from the 52d verse of the 7th satire of the 2d book of Horace, that they sometimes made representations of these things in painting, as is practised among us by those who have any thing to show at fairs. The day being come, they began the entertainment by bringing two kinds of weapons; the first were flaves or wooden files, called *rudes*; and the second were effective weapons, as swords, poniards, &c. The first were called *arma latoria*, or *exercitoria*; the second *decretoria*, as being given by decree or sentence of the prætor, or of him at whose expence the spectacle was exhibited. They began to fence or skirmish with the first, which was to be the prelude to the battle; and from these, when well warmed, at the sound of the trumpets they advanced to the 2d with which they fought naked. Then they were said *vertere arma*. The terms of striking were *petere* & *repetere*; of avoiding a blow, *exire*; and when one of the combatants received a remarkable wound, his adversary or the people cried out, *Habet* or *Iloc habet*. The first part of the engagement was called *ventilare*, *præludere*; and the second, *dimicare ad certum*, or *versis armis pugnare*: and some authors think, with much probability, that it is to these two kinds of combat that St Paul alludes in the passage 1 Cor. ix. 26, 27. "I fight, not

as one that beateth the air; but I keep my body under, and bring it into subjection." If the vanquished surrendered his arms, it was not in the victor's power to grant him life. The people during the time of the republic, and the prince or people during the time of the empire, were alone empowered to grant it. The reward of the conqueror was a branch of palm tree, and a sum of money, probably collected among the spectators: sometimes they gave him his congé, or dismissed him by putting one of the wooden files or *rudes* in his hand; and sometimes they even gave him his freedom, putting the pilus on his head. The sign or indication, whereby, the spectators showed that they granted the favour, was *premere pollicem*, which M. Dacier takes to be a clenching of the fingers of both hands between one another, and so holding the two thumbs upright close together; and, when they would have the combat finished and the vanquished slain, *verterunt pollicem*, they bent back the thumb; which we learn from Juvenal, Sat. iii. ver. 36. The gladiators challenged or defied each other, by showing the little finger; and, by extending this, or some other, during the combat, they owned themselves vanquished, and begged mercy from the people: *Victi offensam digiti veniam a populo postulabant*, says the old scholiast on Persius.

(6.) GLADIATORS, VARIOUS KINDS OF. There were various kinds of gladiators, distinguished by their weapons, manner, and time of fighting, &c. as, The *andabata*, mentioned under ANDABATÆ: The *cateruarii*, who always fought in troops or companies, number against number; or, according to others, who fought promiscuously, without any certain order: The *dimache*, who fought armed with two poniards or swords, or with sword and dagger: The *essedarii*, who fought in cars: The *fiscales*, or *Cajurarii*, who belonged to the emperor's company; and who, being more robust and dexterous than the rest, were frequently called for; and therefore named also *pullatitii*. Several other kinds are mentioned in the ancient authors.

(7.) GLADIATORS WAR, (*bellum Gladiatorum*, or *Spartacum*), called also the *pirate war*, was a war which the Romans sustained about A. U. C. 680. Spartacus, Crinus, and Oenomaus, having escaped, with other gladiators to the number of 74, out of the place where they had been kept at Capua, gathered together a body of slaves, put themselves at their head, rendered themselves masters of all Campania, and gained several victories over the Roman prætors. At length they were defeated in 682, at the extremity of Italy; having, in vain, attempted to pass over into Sicily. This war proved very formidable to the Romans. Cassius was not able to finish it: Pompey the great was forced to be sent as general.

(8.) GLADIATOR, THE DYING, a most valuable monument of ancient sculpture, long preserved in the palace of Chigi, but carried to Paris with the Laocœon, &c. in 1796. This gladiator after having received the mortal stroke, appears particularly careful *ut procumbat longæ*, "that he might fall honourably." He is seated in a reclining posture on the ground, and seems to have just strength sufficient to support himself on his

right arm; and in his expiring moment not abandon himself to grief and dejection is solicitous to maintain that firmness of attitude, which the gladiators valued on preserving in this last scene of distress no tokens of fear by his countenance sheds one tear. *Quis mediocris gladiator quis vultum mutavit unquam? Quis nec verum etiam decubuit turpiter?* says that part of his Tusculan, where he is the astonishing firmness of those pericopears, notwithstanding his remaining have but a few moments to live. The artists knew how to animate marble, and almost every expression of life.

GLADIATURE, *n. f.* the act of fighting with swords. *A/b.*

GLADIOLUS, CORN-FLAG: A monogynia order, belonging to the triandria of plants; and in the natural method under the sixth order, *Eufutæ*. The corolla partite, and ringent; the stamina ascending upwards. There are 10 species, the most remarkable is,

GLADIOLUS COMMUNIS, the common corn-flag. It has a round, compressed, tubular flower; long sword-shaped leaves; an erect stem 2 or 3 feet high; the top garnished with pretty large flowers of a red or white colour, each 6 petals. They appear in May and are succeeded by plenty of seed. The plants are very hardy, and will thrive in any soil or situation. They are propagated from the roots.

GLADKA, a sort of Russian, in the mountains of Caucasus, on the Maiva, 36 m. W. of Tiflis.

* GLADLY. *adv.* [from *glad*.] With gayety; with merriment; with exultation.—

For his particular, I'll receive him
But not one follower. *Shak.*

—You are going to set us right; and to our advantage every body will *gladly* see you glory of. *Blount to Pope.*

GLADMORE, a town of Herts, 12 m. N. of St. Albans.

* GLADNESS. *n. f.* [from *glad*.] Joy; exultation.—

By such degrees the spreading gladness
In every heart, which fear had frozen.

The standing streets with so new a view,

That with less grief the perish'd the

(1.) GLADSMUIR, a parish of S. E. Lothian, erected in 1695, and containing between 5, and 6,000 acres of ground: 3000 are in tillage; above 500 sown in corn; about 1,600 in pasture, and above 100 in wood. The air is pure, dry and healthy; the soil clayey, shallow and barren. Wheat, oats, and pease, are the chief productions; cabbages and potatoes, are also raised. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. G. Milne, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 240; and had decreased 35 since 1755. The number of horses was 240; of sheep 100, and of cattle 134. Mr GEORGE HENRIOT, for

the celebrated Dr WILLIAM ROBERTSON was born in this parish.

OSMUR, one of the three villages in the parish, (N^o 1.) each of which contained families in 1792. On the 21st July 1792, a storm burst upon the school, in which 100 scholars were assembled; the wind, which shattered the windows, and de-
stroyed the roof; whereby two boys were killed, and many of the others, much

SOME. *adj.* [from *glad.*] 1. Pleased; contented.—

the best angels to and fro descend,
the best heaven in *gladsome* company.

Fairy Queen.
gladsome ghost in circling troops attend,
and unwearied eyes behold their friend.

Dryden.
joy; having an appearance of gayety.
when they wak'd me with a sprightly lay;
when heav'n they sung and *gladsome* day.

Prior.
GLADSOME. *adv.* [from *gladsome.*] With joy and delight.

GLADNESS. *n. f.* [from *gladsome.*] Gladness; delight.

GLASS. *n. f.* [*glaz*, Saxon, amber; *glaz*, glass; *glaze*, Fr. *glace*, Lat.] The white of an egg.—Take the *glaze* of eggs, and as short as water. *Peucham on Draw-*
kind of halbert. *Ditt.*

GLAZE, (*y* 1. *def.* 1.) is used as a varnishing painting. For this purpose it is made of a glutinous consistence, and commonly consists of a little brandy or spirit of wine, to which is added a little more freely, and with a lump of white lead to prevent its cracking; and is spread over the picture or painting with a brush.

GLAZER. *v. a.* [*glazer*, French; from *glaze*.] To smear with the white of an egg. This is still used by the bookbinders.

GLAZIER, a SW. branch of Lake Miami, in the Western territory of the United States. It empties into St Mary's River.

GLAMFORD, a town in Norfolk, SW.

GLAMFORD BRIGGS, or GLANDFORD, a town of Lincolnshire on the Anglian, 5 miles N. of Lincoln, and 153 N. by London. It has a great trade in corn, coals, and skins. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 40. 35 N.

GLAMMISS, a parish of Scotland in the county of Perth, 12 miles long and from 1 to 5 broad. It is level, lying in the middle of the valley of the Forth, on the N. side of Sidlaw hills; near which is rocky and mountainous. The air is healthy. The soil is good, well cultivated, and fertile. The population, in 1783, and in 1801, was 2040, and had increased to 2755. The number of horses was 1750, and of black cattle 1190.

There are 7 villages and some antiquities in the parish, and several quarries of excellent free stone

and slates. About 1000 acres of unarable ground are full of thriving plantations.

(2.) **GLAMMISS,** an ancient village in the above parish, (N^o 1.) 4 miles from Kirriemuir, containing about 500 souls in 1790. Near the manse there is an obelisk erected in memory of the murder of K. Malcolm II, in 1034, with several emblematical figures rudely carved on it, representing that bloody transaction.

(3.) **GLAMMISS, CASTLE OF,** a very ancient structure in the above parish, the seat of the Earl of Strathmore. It belonged originally to the Crown; but was given by K. Robert II, in 1372, to his favourite J. Lyon, who married his daughter. It has been since greatly enlarged.

(4.) **GLAMMISS, NEW TOWN OF,** a village in the above parish, near Old Glammiss, (N^o 2.) containing 140 inhabitants in 1790.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, a county of South Wales, said to have derived its name from a contraction of the Welsh words *Gwalld Morgan*, or "the country of Morgan," and supposed to have been thus called from a prince of this part of the country, said to have been killed 800 years before the birth of our Saviour. Others derive the name from the British word *Mor*, which signifies the sea; this being a maritime county. It is bounded on the S. and part of the W. by the Bristol channel; on the NW. by Caermarthenshire; on the N. by Brecknockshire; and on the E. by Monmouthshire. It is 48 miles long from E. to W. 27 broad from N. to S. and 116 in circumference. It is divided into 10 hundreds, in which are one city, 7 market towns, 118 parishes about 10,000 houses, and 58,000 inhabitants. It is in the diocese of Llandaff. This county, in the time of the Romans, was part of the district inhabited by the Silures, and had several Roman stations. Thus BOVERTON, a few miles S. of Cowbridge, is supposed to be the *BOVIVM* of Antoninus; NEATH to be his *Nidum*; and LOGHOR, W. of Swansea, to be his *Leucarum*. The principal rivers of this county are the Rhymny, the Taff, the Ogmore, the Avon, the Cleddau, and the Tawe. The air, in the S. part, towards the sea, is temperate; but the N. part, which is mountainous, is cold and piercing, full of thick woods, extremely barren, and thin of inhabitants. The mountains, however, feed herds of cattle, and send forth streams which add greatly to the fertility of the other parts of the county: they have likewise coal and lead ore. The S. part is so remarkably fertile, pleasant and populous, that it is generally styled the *Garden of Wales*; but it has no manufacture. This county was formerly full of castles, most of which are now decayed. It has many small harbours on the coast, for exporting coals in large quantities to England and Ireland; and provisions to England. It sends two members to parliament, one for the shire, and one for the borough of Cardiff, the capital.

GLAMOUR, or GLAMER, *n. f.* an old term of popular superstition in Scotland, denoting a kind of magical art believed to be raised by forcerers, and which charmed their spectators with visions of things which had no real existence, altered the appearance of those which really did exist, &c.—

The

The eastern nations have a similar superstition, as we may learn from the Arabian Nights Entertainments and other works of oriental fiction.

* GLANCE. *n. f.* [glantz, German, glitter.]

1. A sudden shoot of light or splendour.—

His offering soon propitious fire from heav'n
Consum'd with nimble glance, and grateful
steam :

The other's not ; for his was not sincere.

Milt. Par. Lest.

2. A stroke or dart of the beam of sight.—The aspects which procure love are not gazings, but sudden glances and dartings of the eye. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—There are of those sort of beauties which last but for a moment ; some particularly of a violent passion, some graceful action, a smile, a glance of an eye, a disdainful look, and a look of gravity. *Dryden's Duff.*—

Boldly she look'd, like one of high degree :

Yet never seem'd to cast a glance on me ;

At which I only joy'd, for, truth to say,

I felt an unknown awe, and some dismay. *Harte.*

3. A snatch of sight ; a quick view.—The ample mind takes a survey of several objects with one glance. *Watts.*

(1.) * To GLANCE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To move nimbly ; to shoot obliquely.—

Glancing an eye of pity on his losses,

Enough to press a royal merchant down. *Shak.*

(2.) * To GLANCE. *v. n. i.* To shoot a sudden ray of splendour.—

He double blows about him fiercely laid,

That glancing fire out of the iron play'd,

As sparkles from the anvil use,

When heavy hammers on the wedge are sway'd.

Spenser.

When through the gloom the glancing lightnings fly,

Heavy the rattling thunders roll on high. *Rowe.*

2. To fly off in an oblique direction.—

He has a little gall'd me, I confess ;

But as the jest did glance away from me,

'Tis ten to one it maim'd you two outright.

Shakefp.

3. To strike in an oblique direction.—

Through Paris' shield the forceful weapon went,

His corslet pierces, and his garment rends,

And glancing downwards near his flank descends.

Pope.

4. To view with a quick cast of the eye ; to play the eye.—

O' th' sudden up they rise and dance,

Then sit again, and sigh and glance ;

Then dance again, and kiss.

Suckling.

Mighty dulness crown'd,

Shall take through Grub-street her triumphant round ;

And her Parnassus glancing o'er at once,

Behold a hundred sons, and each a dunce.

Pope's Dunciad.

5. To censure by oblique hints.—

How can'st thou thus, for shame, Titania,

Glance at my credit with Hippolita.

Knowing I know thy love to Thek us.

Shak.

—Some men glance and dart at others, by justifying themselves by negatives ; as to say, this I do

not. *Bacon.*—I have never glanced at the designed procession of his holiness and ants, notwithstanding it might have added ter to many ludicrous speculations. *As* had written verses, wherein he glanced at reverend doctor, famous for dulness. *J*

* GLANCINGLY. *adv.* [from *gl*] oblique broken manner ; transiently.—*Hawkins* hath done something in this brokenly and glancingly, intending the course of his own voyage. *Hakewill* *an*

(1.) * GLAND. *n. f.* [glans, Lat. French.]—All the glands of a human body are reduced to two sorts, viz. conglobate and merate. A conglobate gland is a little body, wrapt up in a fine skin, by which it is separated from all the other parts, only an artery and nerve to pass in, and give a vein and excretory canal to come out. Some of the glands in the brain, the testis and testes. A conglomerate gland is composed of many little conglobate glands, all tied up in the common tunica or brane. *Quincy.*—The abscessa begu'd the body of the glands. *Wise-man.*

The glands, which o'er the body Fine complicated clues of nervous tissue involv'd and twisted with the arteries. The rapid motion of the blood observed.

(2.) GLANDS. See ANATOMY, and

(1.) * GLANDERS. *n. f.* [from *gl*] horse, is the running of corrupt matter from the nose, which differs in colour according to the degree of malignity, being white, yellow or black. *Farrar's Dict.*—His horse is full of the glanders, and like to mose in the cl

(2.) GLANDERS. See FARRIERY, & GLANDEVES, a town of France, in the Lower Alps, formerly flourishing, almost deserted, on account of the ravages of the Var.

GLANDFORD BRIDGE. See BRIDGE and GLANFORD, N° 2.

* GLANDIFEROUS. *adj.* [glans, Lat.] Bearing mast ; bearing acorns, or acorns.—The beech is of two sorts, as is also amongst the glandiferous trees. *Mor*

GLANDORÉ, a town of Ireland, with an excellent harbour, 3 miles W. and 6 W. of Galley Head. Between it and Ross, the coast is high and bold, two small coves : viz. Mellicove on the one, Cowcove on the W. Near the harbour is a small town, called the Lepp. Lon. 8, 56. W. 22. N.

GLANDORP, Matthias, M. D. a physician, born in 1595, at Cologne, in which his father was a surgeon. After taking at Padua, and visiting the principal universities, he settled at Bremen in 1618, where he practised physic and surgery with success, made physician to the republic and to the bishop. He published at Bremen, 1. *Methodus in chirurgorum*, in 1619 ; 2. *Methodus in roychia*, in 1623 ; 3. *Tractatus de po-*

fonticuli et Setonium referatam, in which were republished, with his life pre-London, in 4to, 1729. He died young. **IDULÆ RENALES.** See **ANATOMY**, §

INDULE. *n. f.* [*glandula*, Lat. *glandule*, A small gland serving to the secretion of —Nature hath provided several *glandules* to this juice from the blood, and no less pair of channels to convey it into the which are called *ductus salivaris*. Ray.

INDULOSITY. *n. f.* [from *glandulosus*.] tion of glands.—In the upper parts of e found certain white and oval *glandulo-*

INDULOUS. *adj.* [*glandulosus*, Latin ; e, French ; from *glandule*.] Pertaining nds ; subsisting in the glands ; having the glands.—The beaver's bags are not test-parts official unto generation, but *glan-* flances, that hold the nature of emunc-
tion.—Such constitutions must be sub-
annulous tumours, and ruptures of the
ks. *Arbutnot.*

GARIEFF BAY, a bay of Ireland, on the ie county of Cork.

GOWRA, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

ANMIRE, a river of Ireland, in Cork hich runs through a beautiful and fertile untry, somewhat hilly, and falls into the ork harbour.

ANMIRE, a town in Cork, seated on the r, (N° 1.) about 3 miles from Cork. autiful variety of extensive prospects.

MORE, a town of Ireland, in Kilkenn- es from Dublin.

ORGA, a town of Ireland, in Limeric. i. See **ANATOMY**, § 313, and 318.

HAMMAR, a town of Sweden, in the f Nericia, 7 miles NE. of Orebro.

ANTON, a town of Ireland, in Cork unster, 135 miles from Dublin.

ANTON, a village of England, SE. of

IL, Joseph, a learned and ingenious, l and credulous, writer in the 17th cen- at Plymouth in 1636, and bred at Ox- was a great admirer of Mr Baxter, and a commonwealth. After the restora- blished *The vanity of dogmatizing* ;

F. R. S. and, taking orders in 1662, ed to the vicarage of Frome-Selwood shire. In 1662, he published his *Lux* in 1665, his *Scyphs Scientifica* ; and in *philosophical considerations touching the ches and witchcraft*. In 1668, he pub- *ltra* ; or, *The progress and advance- vledge since the days of Aristotle*. He plished, *A seasonable recommendation of reason* ; and *Philosophia Pia*, or *A be religious temper and tendencies of the philosophy*. In 1678 he was made a of Worcester, and died in 1685.

NVILLE, Bartholomew, an English thor of the 14th century, commonly *olomæus Anglus*. He was a Francis- cended of the noble family of Suffolk, ed in the reign of Edward III. He
PART. II.

wrote a book on natural history, entitled *De Pro- prietatibus Rerum* : which was translated into Eng- lish by John de Trevisa, in 1398.

(2.) **GLANVILLE**, Ranulph, an English lawyer of the 12th century, who first collected the Eng- lish laws into one body.

GLANWORTH, and } two small towns of
GLANYFREHANE, } Ireland in Cork.

GLAPHOW, a town of England, in Yorksh.

* **GLARE.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Over- powering lustre ; splendour, such as dazzles the eye.—

The frame of burnish'd steel that cast a *glare*
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.

Dryden's Fables.

—I have grieved to see a person of quality gliding by me in her chair at two o'clock in the morning, and looking like a spectre amidst a *glare* of flam- beaux. *Guardian*.—

Here in a grotto, shelter'd close from air,
And screen'd in shades from day's detested *glare*,
She sighs for ever. *Pope.*

2. A fierce piercing look.—

About them round,

A lion now he stalks with fiery *glare*. *Milton.*

(1.) * **To GLARE.** *v. a.* [*glaren*, Dutch.] To shoot such splendour as the eye cannot bear.—

One spirit in them rul'd, and every eye
Glar'd lightning, and shot forth pernicious fire
Among th' accurst, that wither'd all their
strength. *Milton.*

(2.) * **To GLARE.** *v. n.* 1. To shine so as to dazzle the eyes.—After great light, if you come suddenly into the dark, or, contrariwise, out of the dark into a *glaring* light, the eye is dazzled for a time, and the sight confused. *Bacon*.—

His *glaring* eyes with anger's venom swell,
And like the brand of foul Alecto flame.

Fairfax.

—He is every where above conceits of epigram- matick wit, and gross hyperboles : he maintains majesty in the midst of plainness ; he shines, but *glares* not ; and is stately without ambition. *Dryden*.—

The court of Cacus stands reveal'd to light ;
The cavern *glares* with new admitted light.

Dryden's Æneid.

Alas, thy dazzled eye

Beholds this man in a false *glaring* light,
Which conquest and success have thrown upon
him. *Addison.*

2. To look with fierce piercing eyes.—

Thou hast no speculation in those eyes,
Which thou dost *glare* with. *Shak.*

Look, how pale he *glares* ! *Shak.*

Now friends no more, nor walking hand in
hand ;

But when they met they made a surly stand,
And *glar'd*, like angry lions, as they pass'd,
And with'd that ev'ry look might be their last.

Dryden's Fables.

3. To shine ostentatiously, or with too much la- boured lustre.—The most *glaring* and notorious passages are none of the finest, or most correct. *Felton on the Classics.*

* **GLAREOUS.** *adj.* [*glaireux*, Fr. *glareous*, Latin ; from *glaire*.] Consisting of viscous transpa- rent matter, like the white of an egg.

M m m

* GLA

• **GLARING**, *adj.* Applied to any thing notorious: as, a *glaring* crime.

(1.) **GLARIS**, or } one of the cantons of Switzerland, bounded on the E. by the country of the Grisons, and partly by that of Sargans; on the N. by Gaster, and lake Wahlenstadt; on the E. by the canton of Schwitz; and on the S. by part of the canton of Uri, and of the country of the Grisons. It is a mountainous country, almost entirely surrounded by the Alps.

(2.) **GLARIS**, or **GLARUS**, a city of the Helvetic republic, capital of the above canton, seated in a plain, at the foot of high craggy mountains. The streets are large, and the houses good. It has two churches, one in the middle of the town, and the other without, upon an eminence, in which there is a cavern, with grotesque figures formed by the water that drops therein. Even before the late revolution in 1798, (See **HELVETIC REPUBLIC**;) the government was so very democratic, that every youth of 16 years of age, had a vote in the General Assembly, which met annually on the first Sunday in May. The executive power was in a council of Regency, composed of 48 Protestants and 15 Catholics. The Calvinists and the Roman Catholics have divine service by turns in the same church. The former have increased greatly within these two centuries. It is seated on the Linth, 32 miles E. of Lucerne, and 32 S.E. of Zurich. Lon. 9. 11. E. Lat. 46. 38. N.

GLASCOTE, a town of Warwickshire, on the S. side of the Anker, opposite to Tamworth.

(1.) **GLASENDORF**, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz; 6 miles NW. of Trautenau.

(2.) **GLASENDORF**, a town of Silesia, in Neisse, 10½ miles SW. of Patshkau.

GLASER, Christoph, apothecary to Lewis XIV, was author of a celebrated treatise on Chemistry, which was translated into English and German. He died in 1679.

GLASFORD, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, 8 miles long, and a broad at an average, but the breadth is very unequal. The soil is partly strong clay, in other parts mossy, and in others light loam, and remarkably stony, but the stones add to its fertility. Husbandry is very little improved, though the E. part of the parish is inclosed. The population in 1791, stated by the rev. Hugh Mitchell, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 788, and had increased 229 since 1755. That clergyman has since resigned his charge, from scruples of conscience, yet without joining any other sect; and has published his reasons in a pamphlet, bearing the singular title of *An Apology for Apostacy*. There are 3 villages in the parish, which carry on linen and cotton manufactures.

(1.) **GLASGOW**, a large and beautiful city of Scotland in Lanarkshire, on the N. bank of the Clyde; justly esteemed the ad in the kingdom. The name in the Gaelic language signifies a *gray smith*; whence it has been supposed that some spot in the most ancient part of the city was originally the residence of some blacksmith, who had become so eminent in his profession that the place went by his name. The most ancient part of the city stands on a rising ground. The rest of it is built chiefly upon a plain, bounded on the S. by

the Clyde, and on the N. by a gentle hill lying in a parallel direction with the river. The streets are all clean and well paved, several of them intersecting each other at right angles, and produce a very agreeable effect. The streets cross one another, and divide nearly into 4 equal parts; and the distance from the cross, the centre of intersection, is of great magnificence. The houses, of 4 or 5 floors in height, are built of brick, generally in an exceeding good taste, and them elegant. The manufacturing houses are full of people, for carrying on the means and encouragement which they give to population, and the wealth thence derived to individuals, as well as accruing to the crown, have all tended lately to increase the greatness of the city, and the elegance of its buildings. Glasgow lies 10 miles S.E. of Dunbarton, 44 miles S.W. of Edinburgh, and 60 S.W. of Perth. Lon. 55° 51' 32" N.

(2.) **GLASGOW, BRIDGE, QUAY**, &c. There are two bridges over the Clyde. The old Bridge, built about 400 years ago, by Robert I. but since repaired and partly rebuilt, consists of 10 arches; and connects the suburb of Glasgow on the opposite side of the river, with the city. The other is the New Bridge, which is built in a very elegant manner. It is 500 feet long, and 40 feet wide; with a commodious road for foot passengers, 5 feet broad on each side, raised above the level of the river, and paved with freestone. It has 7 arches, the faces of which are very fine, with a strong block cornice above. It was begun in 1668, and finished in 1772. On the banks of the river eastward, is the *Grassmarket*, appropriated to the use of the inhabitants, for conveniences for washing and drying linen, with agreeable and extensive walks for recreation. On the S. side of the town, westward of *Broomie law*, where the *Quay* is situated, within these few years, the river here at several miles distance, was so shallow, as to admit only of ships from Greenock, Port-Glasgow, and the islands; but of late it has been cleared and deepened so as to admit ships of considerable burthen.

(3.) **GLASGOW, CHURCHES** IN. The *Cathedral* or *High Church*, is a magnificent building, and is situated greatly to its advantage, on a higher than any part of the city. The tower is founded upon 4 large masonry pillars, 12 feet each in circumference. It is 15½ feet high within; and is surrounded by a balustrade in which rises an octangular spire terminates in a fine. The tower upon the west end is on the same level, but appears not to have been so, though it is covered over with lead. In the tower is a very large bell 21 feet 4 inches in diameter. The principal entry was from the west; it is 11 feet broad at the base, and 17 feet high. The west end of the choir is appropriated to a place of divine worship; and is divided into two parts by a stone partition, which is closed by another stone wall parting it into two naves. It is impossible to form an adequate idea of the awful solemnity of the place, occa-

business of the roof and the range of pillars by which the whole is supported. The nave of the church rises 4 steps higher than the choir; and on the W. side stood the organ loft, formerly ornamented with a variety of figures, but now defaced. The pillars are elegantly executed. The one in the centre is 19 feet high. At the end of the choir are flights of steps upon each side into passages which were formerly the principal entries to the burying vault immediately under the nave. It is now used as a parish church for the Barony; and is full of pillars, some of which are very massy, which support the arched roof; it is very uncomfortable for devotion. The space under the altar and vestry, now used as a place by the heritors, was formerly employed for keeping relics; and indeed, from the singular manner in which this place is finished, it evidently was not destined for common use. At the monument of St Kentigern, with himself in a recumbent posture. The whole length of the cathedral within the walls is 284 feet, its breadth 65; the height of the choir, from the floor to the canopy, 90 feet; that of the nave, 45; that of the middle tower, 220 feet. This church was begun by John Achais, (See § 7.) and continued by succeeding bishops, till it was finished in the manner in which it now stands, was a task for which the wealth of the see of Glasgow was not sufficient; so that they were obliged to have recourse to all the churches of Scotland for alms to it. This venerable edifice was in danger of falling a victim to popular fury in 1578; but owed its preservation to the spirit and good sense of the tradesmen, who, upon hearing the drum for collecting the workmen appointed to demolish it, flew to arms, and declared that no man who pulled down a single stone should be buried under it. Near the cathedral are the ruins of the bishop's palace or castle, enclosed with a high wall of hewn stone by James V.; and the great tower built by Abp. James in 1426. *St Andrew's Church* was begun in 1579, and finished in 1756. It is the finest specimen of modern architecture in the city. It is 100 feet long, 60 wide, and 170 high. Besides the cathedral, which contains 3 congregations, *St Andrew's church*, there are other 4 churches on the establishment. Their names are *St Peter and Outer High Churches*; the *North Church*, *St Enoch's*, the *College church*, *St John's*, *Horn*, *Tron* and *Wynd*. There are also a *French chapel*, a *Highland church*, several *separate meeting-houses*, and others for sectaries of various denominations.

GLASGOW, COLLEGE OF. The front of the building extends along the E. side of the high street and is upwards of 330 feet long. The gate of entrance is decorated with rustics, and over it is the king's arms. The building consists of several principal courts or squares. The first is 28 feet high and 44 broad. The W. side is elevated by one pillar, on which are placed pilasters supporting the Doric entablature, and ornamented with arches forming a piazza. The spire is on the E. side, is 135 feet high, and has a good clock. Under this is the gateway into the inner and largest court, which is 103 feet long

and 79 broad. Over the entry, in a niche, is a statue of Mr Zacharias Boyd, who was a benefactor to the university. (See Boyd.) On the E. side of the court is a narrow passage leading into a handsome terrace walk, gravelled, 132 feet long by 64 feet broad. On the S. side of the walk stands the library; a very neat edifice, well constructed, and containing a very valuable collection of books. Underneath are preserved in cases all the Roman inscriptions found on Graham's Dike, together with altars and other antiquities collected from different parts of Scotland.—Adjoining, there is an observatory, well furnished with astronomical instruments. The college also possesses, by bequest, the late Dr Hunter's famous anatomical preparations, library, and museum: And in the department of natural philosophy, it is furnished with an apparatus which is universally acknowledged to be the most extensive and useful in Britain, and which owes its perfection to the liberality and unremitting labour of Mr Anderson the late professor of that science.

(5.) **GLASGOW, CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF.** In 1711, the constitution of the burgh, established in 1690, (See § 7.) underwent some alterations; and in 1748, another set was adopted, and confirmed by the convention of royal boroughs. By it the government of the city is vested in a provost and 3 bailies, a dean of guild, deacon convener, treasurer, master of works, 13 merchant and 12 trades counsellors. The provost and two of the bailies must be elected from the merchants, and the other bailie from the trades. The provost is styled *lord provost*. He is lord of the police, president of the community, and *ex officio* a justice of the peace for both the burgh and county. The bailie court is held every Friday. The trades consist of 14 incorporations.

(6.) **GLASGOW, GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF.** The grammar school is situated on the NW. side of the town, and was built in 1787. It is a very handsome building, containing a large hall, and six airy commodious teaching rooms, where above 300 scholars are taught.

(7.) **GLASGOW, HISTORY OF.** Of the origin of this city there are no authentic records. So early as A. D. 560, a bishopric is said to have been founded here by St KENTIGERN, the grandson of Loth king of the Picts; but in what state the town then was, is altogether uncertain. Most probably the priests and disciples who attended St Kentigern would contribute considerably towards its advancement. His immediate successors were Baldred and Conwal. The first established a religious house at Inchinnan; the second went into Lothian to preach to the Saxons; and both were ranked as saints in the Roman kalendar, Baldred on the 6th of March 608, and Conwal on the 18th of May 612. From this time we have no distinct accounts concerning the city or bishopric of Glasgow, till 1115, when David I. king of Scots attempted to recover the people from the gross barbarity into which they had fallen, and restored to the church those lands of which she had been robbed. From 1116 to the reformation, the records of the bishopric are tolerably complete. The most remarkable particulars they contain are the following. In 1136, John Achais, appointed Bp.

of Glasgow by David I. built and adorned a part of the cathedral, which he consecrated on the 9th of July. He also divided the diocese into the two archdeanries of Glasgow and Teviotdale. In 1174, Joceline, abbot of Melrose, was elected bishop, and made an addition to the cathedral. He also procured charters from K. William I. creating Glasgow into a royal borough, and appointing a fair to be held there annually for 8 days. In 1335, John Lindsay, bishop of Glasgow, was killed in an engagement at sea with the English, as he was returning home from Flanders. His successor, William Rae, built the stone bridge over the Clyde. In the time of Matthew Glendoning, who was elected bishop in 1387, the great spire of the church, which had been built of wood, was consumed by lightning. His successor, William Lauder, laid the foundation of the vestry of the cathedral, and built the great tower of stone as far as the first battlement. The great tower of the episcopal palace was founded about 1437, on which bishop Cameron expended a great deal of money. In 1447, William Turnbull, of the family of Bedrule in Roxburghshire, was chosen bishop. He obtained from K. James II. in 1450, a charter erecting the town and the patrimony of the bishops into a regality. He also procured a bull from pope Nicholas V. for erecting an university within the city, which contributed more than any thing that had been formerly done towards the enlargement of the town. The population increased exceedingly; the high street, from the convent of the Black friars, to where the cross is now placed, was soon filled up; the ancient road which led to the common being too distant from the new inhabitants, the Gallow-gate began to be built. Soon after, the collegiate church of St Mary (now the Tron church) being founded by the citizens, occasioned the Tron-gate street to be carried westward as far as the church. The rest of the city increased gradually towards the bridge, by the building of the Saltmarket. The borough roads, and the cattle that grazed on the commons, were now found insufficient to maintain the increased number of inhabitants; for which reason a greater degree of attention was paid to the fishing in the river. Many poor people subsisted by this occupation; they were incorporated into a society; and, that they might be at hand to prosecute their business, they built a considerable part of the street then called *Fishers gate*, now *bridge-gate*. Notwithstanding all this, Glasgow did not for a long time attain the rank among the other towns of Scotland which it now holds, though it was erected into an arch-bishopric in 1482. In 1556, it held only the 11th place among them, as appears by Q. Mary's taxation. In 1611, a very ample charter was granted by K. James VI; and in 1646, K. Charles I. granted another. During the civil wars, Glasgow suffered severely. To the national standing intestine discord, were added a pestilence and famine; and to complete its miseries, a fire broke out on the 12th June, 1649, which burnt a third part of the city, continuing for three weeks. The loss was estimated at 200,000 l. A charter given to Bp. Turnbull in 1649, had been deprived of the power of electing a mayor and magistrates, when

was thenceforth exercised by the bishop. After the reformation, however, this power cited by the citizens, the bishop, the common, and others. The idea that the bishop's borough, and not a royal free, gave occasion to this unsettled manner of governing the magistracy. But on the 4th of July 1560, it was declared free by a charter of Mary; and, in confirmation, it was in an act of parliament, June 14th, that they have power to elect their own magistrates and freely as Edinburgh or any other borough. (See § 5.) By the assailing of the boroughs in 1695, we find Glasgow reckoned the 1st city in Scotland in point of wealth, which it still continues to hold. But the present prosperity of Glasgow, may be ascribed to the union, by which the American trade was opened to the inhabitants. Their assiduous attention to that trade ever since has greatly contributed to raise the city to the pitch of affluence which it at present enjoys. The city has been greatly enlarged; and as the inhabitants sensible of the inconvenience that attended the want of a sufficiency of water in the river for their commerce, the magistrates purchased some lands on the south side of the City for that purpose; and so expeditious were they in their harbour, and rearing their town, that a bailie was appointed for the government of the city. GLASGOW; which is now a very considerable city and lies 21 miles higher than the mouth of the river than Glasgow. (See § VI.) In 1725, a great place, upon the extension of the malt land, wherein 20 persons were killed and 100 wounded; the magistrates of Glasgow were sent to Edinburgh, but acquitted. Bannockburn, who commanded the troops, was condemned for murder; but afterwards pardoned and promoted. This affair cost the city 9000 l. During the rebellion in 1745, the city of Glasgow raised two battalions of militia for the service of government. The city, however, had like to have been taken by the rebels, in their journey south, resolved to burn the city: which would probably have been done, had not Mr Cameron of Lochness, in that case, to withdraw his clan contribution, however, was laid on, amounting to about 14,000 l. of which they received 10,000 l. upon applying to parliament. About 1750, a considerable change of manners took place among the inhabitants of Glasgow. The former indolence and a frugality bordering upon parsimony, had been then gradually changed. But now, when an extensive commerce and increased manufactures had produced wealth, and of trade and improvement were adopted, people would formerly have been deemed madmen if they had undertaken; a new mode of introduced in living, dress, building, and an assembly room, theatre, &c. we In 1767, the inhabitants having proposed a small canal from the south of Fort St. George to the Clyde, for the convenience of their trade to the eastern side of the island, several gentlemen from Edinburgh, and throughout the kingdom, were sent to view the project, and reported that this canal should be executed.

per scale, than the one originally projected was accordingly obtained, and the cut in the manner described under the ANAL, § 9, and FORTH, § 4. In 1771, was obtained for making and maintaining the canal and waggon-way from the collieries of Old and New Monkland, of Glasgow. On the 12th March, 1782, a great part of the city was laid under water, the inhabitants were taken out of their houses, the Clyde having risen 20 feet above its bed, and 18 inches higher than ever it had been to do before.

GLASGOW, HOSPITALS AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS IN. 1. The Town's Hospital is a building, consisting of two wings and a central part: the length 156 feet, the breadth of the wings 50 feet, and the depth of the wings 68 feet; and the building is an infirmary 127 feet long and 12 feet broad, the ascent to which is by a flight of steps. The town's hospital was opened for the reception of the poor on the 15th Nov. 1791, its revenue, in 1791, was 2400 l. 11 s. 5 d. from the general sessions, the town council, the merchants' houses, the interest of the hospital arising from donations; money received from manufactures, and from boarders; and an annual sum made upon the inhabitants. The number of people, maintained in this hospital, was 330; besides 115 children nursed, and 146 families supplied with meal and fuel. 2. *Muirhead's*, or *St Nicholas's* Hospital, was originally appointed to subsist 12 old men and a chaplain; but its revenues have been so diminished, so that no more of them now remains but an alms of 139 l. 2 s. 5 d. Scots, 128 l. annually divided among four old men, each of 2 l. 1 s. 4 d. Sterling each. 3. *Hutchinson's* Hospital was founded and endowed in 1639, by James Hutchinson of Lamb-hill, notary public, for the maintenance of 12 old men and 12 boys. The income is above 1500 l. which is distributed in alms from 3 l. to 20 l. to old people, and in alms about 50 children. 4. The *Merchant's* Hospital has a capital of above 17,000 l. and a revenue of above 1000 l. of which it distributes in alms and other charities about 800 l. yearly. 5. *James's* Hospital has a revenue of above 1000 l. when these hospitals existed before 1605.

Charity for the education of boys, was founded by George Wilson, who, in 1778, left a fund for that purpose. This fund is now concentrated, and gives education and clothing to 40 boys, each of whom continues 4 years, and are admitted annually. There are also several other institutions of private relief for relieving the indigent and instructing them, as *Euchanan's Society*, *Graham's Society*, *the Society of the Sons of the Highland Society*, &c. The last gives 40 boys apprentices to trades, and for the first 3 years gives them clothing and education.

GLASGOW, MANUFACTURES OF. Although the manufactures of plaids, ropes, soap, &c. have been carried on in Glasgow, before the union, Mr Gibson is of opinion that the com-

merce to America first suggested the idea of carrying them to any considerable extent. The first attempts with that view were made about 1725; but their increase was not considerable, till great encouragement was given by the legislature to the linen manufacture in Scotland. The first causes of the success of this manufacture were the act of parliament in 1748, whereby the wearing of French cambrics was prohibited under severe penalties; that of 1751, allowing weavers in flax or hemp to settle and exercise their trades any where in Scotland free, from all corporation dues; and the bounty of 1½ d. per yard on all linens exported at and under 18 d. per yard. Since that time the spirit of manufacture has rapidly increased among the inhabitants of Glasgow; and great variety of goods, and in very great quantities, have been manufactured. Cheeks, linens, and linen and cotton stuffs, are manufactured to great extent. Indies were first made in 1732; printed linens and cottons were begun to be manufactured in 1738; and handkerchiefs first printed in 1754. In 1757, carpets were begun to be made, and have been since carried on to a considerable extent. But the manufacture which has of late years been carried to the greatest extent, and by which immense and rapid fortunes have been made, is MUSLIN. The number of labourers employed in this single branch, is wonderful; while the consumption of cotton yarn in manufacturing muslins and calicoes, have occasioned the erection of extensive cotton mills, throughout the country. See COTTON, N° I, § viii, 1—4. The cotton manufactures, in 1791, employed, in Glasgow and its neighbourhood within 30 miles round, 15,000 looms, and 135,000 persons; who made goods amounting on an average to L. 1,500,000 sterl. per annum. *Statist. Acc.* V. 502. Besides these, numberless other articles are manufactured at Glasgow, of which our limits permit us not to give a detail; such as soap, sugar, iron-mongery, brass, jewellery, bottle and flint glass, pottery, hats, stockings, thread, gloves, shoes, saddles, &c. &c. Types for printing are made by Dr Wilson and Sons, equal, if not superior, in beauty to any in Britain.

(10.) **GLASGOW, MARKETS IN.** The markets in King's Street were erected in 1754, and are justly admired, as the completest of the kind in Britain. The herb market is neat and commodious; and the principal entry is decorated with columns. It is situated in the Candleriggs, and is laid out in the same manner with those in King's Street. Besides the weekly markets on Friday, there are 6 annual fairs held in Glasgow.

(11.) **GLASGOW, PARISHES IN.** Glasgow anciently formed but one parish; but as its population increased, it was afterwards divided into 7 parishes, and more lately into 8, which are named after the 8 churches. See § 3.

(12.) **GLASGOW, POPULATION OF.** At the union, the number of inhabitants was reckoned about 14,000. In 1743, Dr Webster calculated it at 18,365; but in his second report in 1755, it was stated at 23,546 souls, including those in the suburbs. In 1765, when a new division of the parish took place, it was estimated at 28,000. In 1785, an accurate survey was made, when the number was 36,139; besides 1000 in the suburbs.

But

But in 1797, the last and most accurate survey was made for Sir J. Sinclair's *Statistical Account of Scotland*; when the number of houses within the royalty was found to be 10,391, and that of the inhabitants 41,777; besides 20,168 souls in the suburbs and villages of Calton, Anderston, Grassington, Gorbals, Cowcaddins, Camlachie, &c. So that the total population of the city and suburbs in 1791, was 61,945; and the increase since 1755, 38,399.

(13.) GLASGOW, PRINTING IN. Printing of books was first begun here by George Anderson about 1638. But there was no good printing in Glasgow till 1735, when Robert Urie printed several books in a very elegant manner. The highest perfection, however, to which printing has yet been carried in this place, was by the late Robert and Andrew Foulis, (who began in 1740); as the many correct and splendid editions of books printed by them in different languages testify.

(14.) GLASGOW, PUBLIC HALLS IN. The *Town House*, or *Tolbooth*, is a magnificent and extremely elegant building. The front is adorned with a range of Ionic pilasters; and is elevated on strong rusticated pillars with arches, forming a piazza for merchants and others to shelter themselves from the weather when met upon business. The hall is 52 feet long, 27 wide, and 24 high. It is ornamented with whole length portraits of the kings of Scotland from K. James I. to George III. In 1781, the exchange under the piazza was greatly enlarged, by taking down the lower part of the town-hall and assembly room; and at the same time by a tonnage scheme entered into by the inhabitants, a most elegant coffee-room was added, with a suite of buildings adjoining, for the purposes of a tavern and hotel, assembly room, and offices for notaries, &c. 2. The *Guild-Hall*, or *Merchant's House*, is situated upon the S. side of Bridge-gate street; and is 82 feet long, and 31 wide. The great hall, which is the whole length and breadth of the building is so capacious, that it is better adapted for the reception of great and numerous assemblies than any other in the city. This house is adorned with a very elegant spire 200 feet high.

(15.) GLASGOW, REVENUE OF. The revenue amounts to 7,000 a-year. It arises from a duty upon all grain and meal brought into the city; from the rents of lands and houses belonging to the community; from an impost of two pennies Scots upon every Scots pint of ale or beer brewed, imported, or sold, within the city; from certain dues payable out of the markets; from the rents of the seats in churches; from the dues of cramage at the quay, weigh-house, &c. The tonnage on the river, the postage of the bridge, and statute work, being no part of the city's revenue, are kept distinct under the management of commissioners appointed by act of parliament.

(16.) GLASGOW, TRADE OF. The first branch of trade, in which the citizens engaged, is said to have been the curing and exportation of salmon, caught in the Clyde. This trade was promoted by one Mr William Elphinstone in 1430; but the first authentic document concerning Glasgow as a trading city is in 1546. Complaints having been made by Henry VIII. of England, that several English

ships had been taken and robbed by sailing to Scotland, an order of council was discharging such captures for the future among other places mentioned in this Glasgow. Between 1630 and 1660, a considerable land commerce was carried on by the inhabitants of Glasgow; and the exportation of salmon and herrings was greatly increased in 1660 and 1707. The citizens who distinguished themselves most during this period were Gibson and John Anderson. Gibson packed in one year 300 lasts of herrings, sent to St Martin's in France, on board a vessel called the *St Agate*, of 450 tons. His returns were brandy and salt. He who imported iron from Stockholm and Anderson is said to have been the first to import white wines. But the Union, Scotland, by allowing a free trade to America and the W. Indies, opened up a new source of commerce to the Glasgow traders; which they pursued with such ardour and success, that at present the shipping employed in it amounts to 60,000 tons. This commerce, however, with several interruptions from the war, of the English merchants (of whom to run it, a particular account is given in Sir J. Sinclair's *Statistical Account*, Vol. 498—500.) as well as from the American war, yet the spirit and industry of the Glasgow merchants proved so far superior to all other losses, that in 1790, the number of ships employed was 476, and their tonnage 460,000. In 1783, the same enterprising spirit gave birth to a society entitled the *Chamber of Commerce and Manufacturers*, which has since obtained a charter, and whose exertions have been of great benefit to the country.

(17.) GLASGOW, UNIVERSITY OF. The university owes its origin to bishop Turrill (q. v.) It was established in 1450; its members were all ecclesiastics; and its principal support derived from the church. In 1560, the Reformation brought the university to the verge of ruin. The magistrates, sensible of the loss to the community sustained by this desertion, endeavoured to restore it in 1572, by bestowing considerable funds, and prescribing regulations for its management. These proving insufficient, K. James VI. renewed, by a charter called the *New Charter*, 1577, and bestowed upon it the title of *University of Govan*. Since that period, it has been considerably enlarged by royal and the donations of private persons. They have also been increased from 4 to 12 at present the university consists of a rector, dean of faculty, principal, and six (six of them in the gift of the city) with bursars, &c. The archbishop of Glasgow was formerly chancellor of the university; at present, the chancellor is the rector, dean of faculty, principal, &c. The revenue arises from the tithes of Govan, from those of the parishes of Kilbride, granted by James VI. confirmed by Charles I. in 1630; from

Calder, Old and New Monkland, con-
 charter from Charles II. in 1670; from
 the archbishoprick; and from several do-
 nated by private persons. The uni-
 versally attended by above 500 students.
 ASGOW, a county of N. Carolina in
 District; bounded on the N. by Edg-
 . by Pitt, S. by Lenoir, and W. by
 counties. It contained 2,668 citizens,
 whites, in 1795.

GLASGOW, BARONY OF. See BARONY,

GLASGOW, CORBALS OF. See CORBALS.

GLASGOW, NEW PORT, a parish of Scot-
 tishfrewshire, erected in 1695, about one
 mile in extent. It is partly mountainous,
 the coast for 130 yards back it is nearly
 level, little higher than the water mark.

The soil is naturally barren, sandy, and shallow,
 cultivation has been rendered very fertile.
 The soil of the mountains is in tillage. The cli-
 mate is moist but healthy. The population in
 1755 did not exceed 400 souls; but in 1755, ac-
 cording to Dr Webster's calculation, it had arisen
 and in 1790, by the rev. Mr J. Forrest's
 Sir J. Sinclair it was no less than 4,036:
 there was an increase of 2,341 within 35

GLASGOW, PORT, or NEW PORT-GLAS-
 NEWARK, a town in the above parish,
 comprehending the ground sewed by the
 Acts of Glasgow for erecting a port to that
 No 1, § 7.) and the original village of
 now conjoined with it. These united
 in a burgh of barony, governed by two
 and 13 councillors. The revenue is about
 £100,000. The harbour and pier are excellent.
 Ships belonging to it, in 1791, were 91
 employed in the foreign trade, measuring
 11,345; and 34 in the coasting and fishing
 measuring 1487 tons. The total number
 entered at this port, in 1790, was 450,
 measuring 46,560 tons. The chief imports are
 sugar, rum, cotton, mahogany, log-
 woods, timber, iron, and hemp. Port
 is seated on the S. bank of the Clyde, 21
 miles by N. of Glasgow, and 26 N. of Ayr.

HUTTEN, or } a town of Hungary, fa-
 HUTTEN. }mous for its hot baths,
 or some gold mines, 7 miles from Schem-

LETTER, a district of Scotland, in Ross-
 shire parish of Kintail.

LOUGH, or GLASSLOUGH, a town of
 a Monaghan county, 5 miles NNE. of
 L.

GLASS, John, M. A. the founder of that
 DEPENDENTS, commonly distinguished
 by the name of GLASSITES, and in
 by that of SANDEMANIANS. (See INDE-
 P.) His father was minister of Aber-
 deen and he was born at his father's manse in
 1712: he was educated and obtained the degree
 at St Andrews; and was, when a very
 young man, ordained minister of Tealing, near
 Aberdeen. His doctrine and ministry were remark-
 ably distinguished; and even while
 with the establishment, his peculiar

ideas, of the purity of church communion and go-
 vernment, were observable. In 1727, he pub-
 lished a work, entitled "The Testimony of the
 King of Martyrs," in which his Independent Prin-
 ciples were fully developed. In that treatise he
 maintains the inconsistency of any connection be-
 tween civil establishments and the church of
 Christ, which is not of this world. This publica-
 tion, with other concurring circumstances, pro-
 duced a long controversy between Mr Glass and
 the Synod of Angus and Mearns. So far, howe-
 ver, from retracting or trimming in his principles,
 he still more openly avowed and maintained them,
 in a tract published the following year, entitled,
 "A Congregation subject to no Jurisdiction un-
 der Heaven." He was deposed in 1728, and im-
 mediately thereafter connected himself with a few
 poor people who adhered to him; and although
 his adherents have never been numerous, the doc-
 trines which he taught have been generally spread
 through Britain and many parts of America. He
 was subjected to great poverty for many years, in
 supporting a numerous family of 13 children;
 and died at Dundee, in November 1773, highly
 valued by his friends, and respected by all who
 knew him. He published many religious Tracts,
 which were collected and printed in 4 vols 8vo.
 and since reprinted in five volumes; the leading
 doctrines in these works, are, 1. The divinity of
 Christ, and the perfection of his righteousness to
 justify the ungodly: 2. Purity of Christian Com-
 munion: 3. Independence of all human authority
 in matters of conscience: 4. The strictest subjec-
 tion to civil government and magistracy in civil
 concerns: and 5. Unqualified obedience to the
 commands of Christ and his apostles.

(II.) GLASS, John, son of the preceding (No 1.)
 was born at Dundee, in 1725. He was bred a
 surgeon, but afterwards became captain of a mer-
 chant vessel belonging to London. In 1763, he
 embarked for Brazil, and took his wife and daugh-
 ter along with him. In 1765, he re-embarked for
 London, taking with him his family and all his
 property. But when the ship came within sight
 of Ireland, four of the seamen formed a conspira-
 cy and murdered Capt. Glass, his wife and daugh-
 ter, the mate, one sailor and two boys. The
 murderers, having loaded the boat with dollars,
 sunk the ship, landed at Ross, and proceeded
 to Dublin, where they were apprehended, tried,
 convicted and executed. Capt. Glass was a man
 vol. 4to, entitled *A History of the Canary Islands*.
 of talents and letters. He published a work in one

(III.) * GLASS. *adj.* Vitreous; made of glass.—

Get the glass eyes;

And, like a scurvy politician, seem

To see the things thou do'st not. *Shak. K. Lear*.
 Glass bottles are more fit for this second fining
 than those of wood. *Mort. Husb.*

(IV. I.) * GLASS. *n. f.* [*glaes*, Sax. *glas*, Dutch,
 as *Pezan* imagines from *glais*, British, green. In
 Erse it is called *klainn*, and this primarily signifies
 clean or clear, being so denominated from its
 transparency.] 1. An artificial substance made by
 fusing fixed salts and flint of sand together, with
 a vehement fire.—The word *glass* cometh from
 the Belgick and High Dutch, *glais*, from the
 verb *glansen*, which signifies amongst them to
 shine.

shine ; or perhaps from *glacies* in the Latin, which is ice, whose colour it resembles. *Peacbam.*—*Glass* is thought so compact and firm a body, that it is indestructible by art or nature, and is also of so close a texture, that the subtlest chymical spirits cannot pervade it. *Boyle.*—

Show'rs of grenadoes rain, by sudden burst
"Disploding murd'rous bowels, fragments of steel
And stones, and *glass* and nitrous grain aduft.

Philips.

2. A glass vessel of any kind.—

I'll see no more

And yet the eighth appears, who bears a *glass*
Which shews me many more. *Shak. Macbeth.*

3. A looking-glass ; a mirror.—

He was the mark and *glass*, copy and book,
That fashion'd t'other. *Shak. Henry IV.*

He spreads his subtle nets from sight,

With trinkling *glasse* to betray

The larks that in the morn'g light. *Dryd. Hor.*

4. An Hour GLASS. A glass used in measuring time by the flux of sand.—

Were my wife's liver

Infected as her life, she would not live

The running of one *glass*. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*

5. The destined time of man's life.—

No more his royal self did live, no more his
noble sonne,

The golden Meleager now, their *glasses* all were
run. *Chapman.*

6. A cup of glass used to drink in.—

To this last costly treaty,

That swallow'd so much treasure, and like a *glass*
Did break i' th' rinsing. *Shak. Henry VIII.*

When thy heart

Dilates with fervent joys, and eager soul

Prompts to pursue the sparkling *glass*, be sure

'Tis time to thun it. *Philips.*

7. The quantity of wine usually contained in a glass ; a draught.—While a man thinks one *glass* more will not make him drunk, that one *glass* hath disabled him from well discerning his present condition. *Taylor.*—The first *glass* may pais for health, the second for good humour, the third for our friends ; but the fourth is for our enemies. *Temple.* 8. A perspective glass.—

The moon whose orb

Through optick *glass* the Tuscan artist views.

Milton.

—Like those who survey the moon by *glasses*, I tell of a shining world above, but not relate the glories of the place. *Dryden.*

(2.) GLASS is derived by some from the Latin word GLASTUM, the name of a plant called by the Greeks *αετς*, by the Romans *vitrum* ; by the ancient Britons *guadam*, and by the English *wood*. We find frequent mention of this plant in ancient writers, particularly Cæsar, Vitruvius, Pliny, &c. who relate, that the ancient Britons painted or dyed their bodies with glastum, guadam, vitrum, &c. *i. e.* with the blue colour procured from this plant. And hence, the name *glass*, which has always somewhat of this bluishness in it.

(3.) GLASS, ART OF MAKING. See GLASS-MAKING.

(4.) GLASS, ASTONISHING PROPERTIES OF.

1. Glass is one of the most elastic bodies in nature. It the force with which glass balls strike each other

be reckoned 16, that wherewith it
virtue of their elasticity will be 1
When glass is suddenly cooled, it be
ingly brittle ; and this brittleness is
tended with very surprising phenom
balls made of annealed glass, with
them, will fly to pieces by the he
only, if the hole by which the inter
nal air communicate be stopped v
Lately, however, some vessels mad
nealed glass have been discovered, w
remarkable property of resisting ver
given from without, though they sh
by the shocks received from the fall
and minute bodies dropped into i
These glasses may be made of any
their bottoms must always be thick
sides. The thicker the bottom is,
the glasses break. One whose bot
fingers breadth in thickness flies w
ease at least as the thinnest glass. S
vessels have been tried with strokes o
ficient to drive a nail into wood to
and have held good without brea
have also resisted the shock of sever
dies, let fall into their cavities, from
2 or 3 feet ; as musket balls, piece
other metals, pyrites, jasper, wood
But this is not surprising, as other
same shape and size will do the sa
wonder is, that taking a shiver of flint
of a small pea, and letting it fall into
ly from the height of 3 inches, in a
conds the glass flies, and sometime
moment of the shock ; nay, a bit of f
than a grain, dropped into several g
sively, though it did not immediately
yet when set by, they all flew in lei
quarters of an hour. Some other bo
the same effect, as sapphire, diamon
hard tempered steel, marble bowls.
These experiments were made befor
Society, and the effects were the sa
the glasses were held in the hand, p
filled with water, or rested on a p
glasses also broke upon rubbing th
slightly with the finger, within h
after rubbing. But when made un
thin, they did not break. Hollow c
green bottle glass, 3 inches thick at b
instantly broken by a shiver of flint,
bout 2 grains, though they had resist
of a musket bullet from the height of
rious but unsatisfactory reasons have
for these phenomena, by Mr Euler.
The effects are evidently occasioned b
motion some subtle fluid with which
of the glass is filled ; and the motions
when once excited in a particular
glass are soon propagated through t
reatest part of it, and thus the cas
becomes at last too weak to resist th
can be little doubt that this fluid is th
TRICITY. It is known to exist in
great quantity ; and to be capable
glasses even when annealed with the
if put into too violent a motion. I
the cooling of glass hastily may make

onsistent with its cohesive power, to be broken by the least increase of motion in the fluid by friction or otherwise. This is the case when it is broken by rubbing together; but why it should also break by contact of flint and the other bodies added, has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

3. A most remarkable phenomenon is observed in glass tubes placed in certain positions. When they are laid before a fire in a horizontal position, having their extremities heated, they acquire a rotatory motion round their axis, and also a progressive motion towards the fire, even when their supports are detached from the fire, so that the tubes will move a variety of ways to the fire. When the progress of the tubes towards the fire is stopped, their rotation still continues. When placed in a nearly upright posture, in the right hand, the motion will be from left to right; if they lean to the left hand, their motion will be from W. to E.; and the nearer they are to the upright posture, the less will the motion be. If the tube is placed horizontal on a glass plane, the fragment, for instance, of a window glass, instead of moving towards the fire, it will move from it, and about the contrary direction to what it had done before it will recede from the fire, and move back when the place inclines towards the fire. These experiments are recorded in the

N^o 476. § 1. They succeeded best with tubes 20 or 22 inches long, which had a pretty strong pin fixed in cork for the purpose. The causes of these phenomena have not yet been explained.

4. Glass is less dilatable by heat than most substances, and solid glass sticks are less so than tubes. This was first discovered

in making experiments to reduce glass to a greater degree of exactness than has been found practicable; (See *Philos.* vii, p. 663.) and since his experiment, one of the tubes 18 inches long, heated with a solid glass rod of the same length as the former was found by a pyrometer to expand 4 times as much as the other, in heating to that of boiling oil. On account of the quality which glass has of expanding uniformly, M. de Luc recommends it to be used for standards; and he says, that its expansion is equable, and proportioned to the heat; a quality which is not to be found in any other substance yet known. *Philos.* 474.

5. Glass is more fit for the condensation of vapours than metallic substances. A glass filled with water, in summer, will not be wet on the outside, just as far as the inside reaches; and a person's breath on it, manifestly moistens it. Glass is moist with dew, when metals do not. § 7.

6. A drinking glass partly filled with water, and rubbed on the brim with a dry finger, produces musical notes, higher or lower according to the note or less full; and makes the like HARMONICA. 7. Glass is possessed of great electrical virtues. See ELECTRICITY.

8. GLASS BALLS are circular or otherwise shaped hollow vessels of glass, coloured within, so as to imitate the semipellucid gems. The method of doing it is this: Make a strong solution of silicic acid, in water, by boiling; pour a quantity of this while warm into the hollow of a white glass vessel; shake it thoroughly about, that all the sides may be wetted, and then pour off the rest of the moisture. Immediately after this, throw in red lead, shake it and turn it about, throw it into many places with a tube, and the moisture will make it stick and run in waves and pretty figures. Then throw in some blue enamel, and make it run in waves in the ball as the red lead; then do the same with verdegis; next with orpiment, then with red lake, all well ground; always casting in the colours in different places, and turning the glass, that the moisture within may run them into the waves. Then take fine plaster of Paris, and put a quantity of it into the ball; shake it also nimbly about; this will everywhere stick firmly to the glass, and give it a strong inner coat, keeping all the colours on very fairly and strongly. These are set on frames of carved wood, and much esteemed as ornaments in many places.

(6.) GLASS, COLOURING OF. See GLASS-MAKING, SECT. XIV, and PASTES.

(7.) GLASS, CUPPING. See SURGERY, Index.

(8.) GLASS, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. See GLASS-MAKING, SECT. VI and XI.

(9.) GLASS DROPS. See RUPERT'S DROPS.

(10.) GLASS, ENGRAVING ON. This art is quite modern, and owes its origin to the discovery of the fluoric acid. See CHEMISTRY, § 667. To perform it, the glass is covered with melted wax or mastic; and when this is hardened, the device or figure is engraved upon it by a needle or other sharp-pointed instrument. A mixture of the fluoric and sulphuric acids is then put upon the glass or glass plate, and the whole covered with an inverted China cup to prevent the evaporation of the fluoric acid. In two days the glass plate may be cleared of its coating when all the traces of the needle will be found engraved upon it.

(11.) GLASSES, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. Glasses are distinguished, with regard to their form and use, &c. into various kinds, as drinking glasses, optical glasses, looking glasses, burning glasses, &c.

i. GLASSES, BURNING. See BURNING, § 12—17.

ii. GLASSES, DRINKING, are simple vessels of common glass or crystal, usually made in form of an inverted cone. Each glass consists of 3 parts, viz. the calyx or bowl, the bottom, and the foot; which are all wrought or blown separately. Nothing can be more dexterous and expeditious than the manner wherein these parts are all blown; two of them opened, and all three joined together. An idea is only to be had of it, by seeing the operations performed. The glasses chiefly used in England are made of the ashes of fern; crystal glasses being less common. The exceeding brittleness of this commodity, notwithstanding the easy rate of each glass, renders the consumption thereof very considerable. For the method of gilding the edges of drinking glasses, see GLASS-MAKING, § IV, 2.

iii. GLASSES, LOOKING. See FOLIATING, LOOKING GLASS, and MIRROR.

IV. GLASSES, MUSICAL. See HARMONICA.

V. GLASSES, OPTICAL. See OPTICS, and TELESCOPE. The improvements hitherto made in telescopes by combining lenses made of different kinds of glass, though very great, are yet by no means adequate to the expectations that might reasonably be formed, if opticians could fall on any method of obtaining pieces of glass sufficiently large for pursuing the advantages of Mr Dollond's discovery. Unfortunately, however, though the Board of Longitude have offered a considerable reward for bringing this art to the requisite perfection, no attempt of any consequence has hitherto been made. Mr Keir is of opinion, that the accomplishment of this is by no means an easy task; as it requires not only a competent knowledge of the properties of glass itself for the purpose (the fault not being evident to common inspection), but a considerable degree of chemical knowledge to invent a composition by which these faults may be avoided, and a dexterity in the execution of the work, which can only be acquired by practice. He, however, thinks, that if the subject were more generally understood, and the difficulties more fully pointed out, for which purpose he makes the following remarks, the end might be more easily accomplished. 1. The rays of light passing through a glass lens or prism, or through any other medium of unequal thickness, are refracted; but not in an equal manner, the blue, violet, &c. being more refracted than the red. 2. Hence it happens, that the rays of light, when refracted by a common lens, do not all unite in one focus, but in reality form as many different foci as there are colours; and hence arise the prismatic colours, or irises, which appear towards the borders of the image formed by the common convex lenses, and which render the vision extremely indistinct. 3. The indistinctness of vision produced by this cause, which is sensible in telescopes of a small aperture, increases in so great a proportion, viz. as the cubes of the diameters, that it seemed impossible to increase the power of dioptric telescopes greatly, without extending them to a very inconvenient length, unless this confusion of colours could be corrected. 4. It was known that different transparent bodies possessed different degrees of refractive power; and until Mr Dollond discovered the contrary, it was supposed, that the refractions of the coloured rays were always in a determined ratio to one another. On this supposition it seemed impossible to correct the faults of refracting telescopes: for it was supposed, that if the dispersion of light produced by a convex lens were counteracted by another lens or medium of a concave form, the refraction would be totally destroyed; and this indeed would be the case, if the two mediums were made of the same matter; and from some experiments made by Sir Isaac Newton, this was supposed to be actually the case in all substances whatever, 5. From considering that the eyes of animals are formed of materials of different colours, it occurred first to Mr David Gregory, the celebrated professor of astronomy at Oxford, and then to Mr Euler, that, by a combination of mediums which had different refractive powers, it might be possible to remedy the imperfections of dioptric tele-

scopes. It does not, however, appear of these gentlemen understood the manner on which these phenomena depend, executed his idea by forming a compound lens from two glass lenses with water; but his attempt was not attended to. Mr Dollond, however, was led to the improvements adduced by Mr Klingenstern, one of Sir Isaac Newton's experimenters, had induced even that great philosopher to suppose, that the improvement executed by Mr Dollond was impossible. A pertinent was made by Sir Isaac Newton, placing a glass prism within a prism made of water, in such a manner that the light, which were refracted by the glass, should pass through and be refracted by the water prism. In the refraction of the light was equal. But when Mr Dollond repeated the experiment, he found, that, contrary to his own expectation, when the angles of the two prisms were proportioned that they counteracted each other's refraction, then colours appeared; that is, when they were so proportioned that the dispersion of the coloured rays was equalled, the mean refraction still subsisted. This evidently proved, that the mean refractive powers of glass and water were not proportional to one another. 6. To accomplish the proposed improvement, Mr Dollond used several kinds of glass. Crown glass possesses the smallest dispersive power to its refraction; while flint glass possesses the greatest dispersive power in proportion to its refraction, which was also very great. By joining these two exactly together, he was enabled to wedge of white flint glass whose angle was 15 degrees, and another of crown glass whose angle was 29 degrees, refracted very nearly the same. He found also, that, when the wedges were in such angles, the refraction produced by flint glass was to that produced by crown glass nearly as 2 to 3; the refracted light being free from colour. On measuring the refracting powers of these two glasses, he found that in flint glass, the sine of incidence to the sine of mean refraction as 1 to 1.5; that in crown glass, the sine of incidence to the sine of mean refraction as 1 to 1.2. The method of determining the different refractive powers of glass will be found under OPTICS. We shall only observe, that two kinds of glass necessary for the construction of achromatic telescopes; one of which shall possess the greatest, and the other the least, dispersive power to their mean refracting powers, as can be seen from the above. The difference of glasses in this respect depends on the quality of the ingredients employed in their composition. Crown glass, which is made by melting by means of the sides of a crucible, or kelp, both which fluxes a mixture of vegetable earth, alkali, and is found to give the smallest dispersive power to its refraction, while plate glass, which consists of sand and of fixed vegetable alkali, with little or no earth, gives a greater dispersive power to its refraction than flint glass, and

ed by means of minium and fixed alkalis, therefore, that the dispersion of greatest when minium, or probably oxalces, are made use of; and that al- greater power of dispersion than ve- other earths. Mr Zacher of Peter- ever, informs us, that he has made a, much superior in this respect to flint does not as yet appear whether it be optical purposes than that commonly seems no difficulty in augmenting the power, as that is found to depend on the minium or other flux; but thus we un- increase also the capital fault to which all compositions of that kind are mely, the being subject to veins or running through it. By these, even all as to be imperceptible to the naked s which fall on them are diverted from r direction, and the images thereby infused. This is owing to the great- of the veins, as appears by their i- received on white paper, when the between the paper and the sun, or t a proper distance. The rays of then made to converge by the supe- of the veins, their images appear as bordered with obscure edges on the it glass is so much subject to this kind ion, that it is with difficulty the opti- ck out pieces of the size commonly u- arge quantity of the glass. It is far- gretted, that the minium which pro- vatest dispersive power, is likewise the ce which renders flint glass much more e imperfect than any other. The at the sandy and earthy matters mix fusion; and having not only a consi- ce of affinity towards each other, but ot much different from each other, apt to separate. On the other hand, n heavy substance as minium is added by substances, though it has a pretty ily to unite with them, it has none with ali, which is another ingredient in this e some parts of the glass will contain e matter than the rest; particularly : bottom of the pot, which is to full s as to be applied only to the making little value. The veins in this case y the descent of the minium to the ch in its passage forms threads or veins other parts of the glass along with correction of this fault appears there- ry difficult. M. Macquer informs us, n vain tried to remove it by very long fierce fire; which indeed others have erience not to correct, but to aug- . Mr Keir is of opinion that some tion must be discovered, which, along out refractive power, should possess formity of texture; but he is likewise hat scarce any alteration in this re- e made without injuring the colour For optical purposes, however, he ak that an alteration in the colour of its would be very detrimental. "I l (says he), that glasses sensibly tin-

ged with colour, might transmit as much or more light than the best flint glass. For the colourless appearance of flint glass is an optical deception. The minium gives it a considerable tinge of yellow, and the alkali inclines it to a bluish cast, be- sides the colour arising from a greater or less im- purity of the materials; so that the glass would actually be very sensibly coloured, unless by the addition of manganese, which is known to give a purplish red. Thus the other tinges are counter- acted, but not effaced or destroyed as has been frequently imagined. By the mixture of the three principal colours, red, yellow, and blue, more or less exactly counterpoised, a certain dark shade is introduced, in which, as not any one of the co- lours predominates, no coloured tinge appears, but the effect is merely a diminution of the trans- parency of the glass, which, however, is too small for ordinary observation." Mr Kier is even of opinion, that a certain tinge of yellow would in many cases be of service, because it would ex- clude some of the blue rays, which being most re- frangible are most injurious to the distinctness of vision. Very great difficulties must arise in at- tempting improvements of this kind; as the ex- periments must all be tried on a very large scale. This is not only attended with a very heavy ex- pence in it- self, on account of the quantity of ma- terials employed, but from the heavy duty of ex- cise which is rigorously exacted whether the glass be manufactured into saleable articles or not. It is observed in the manufacture of every kind of glass, that the glass in the middle of the area or transverse section of a pot is much purer and freer from veins and other imperfections than the part which is near the sides, and that the glass at the bottom is the worst of all. Consequently it is chiefly in large pots, such as are used in manufac- tures, that there is a probability of success. Very fine and beautiful glasses called PASTES and arti- ficial gems, may be made in smaller pots or cruci- bles; but this glass is suffered to cool and subside in the vessel, by which means the contiguous parts are more uniform in their texture than can be expec- ted in a piece of glass taken out of the pot while hot in the common way, by making it adhere and twist round an iron rod or pipe. But although the me- thod of allowing the glass to cool in the pots is very advantageous for the purposes of the jeweller, it is by no means applicable to those of the opti- cian. Glass cooled in that gradual manner, suf- fers some degree of crystallization or peculiar ar- rangement of its parts; the consequence of which is, that the rays of light undergo certain refractions independent on the form of the glass, which great- ly affect the distinctness of vision in TELESCOPES.

vi. GLASSES, PERSPECTIVE. See TELESCOPE.

(12.) GLASS, FOLIATING OF. See FOLIATING, and LOOKING-GLASS.

(13.) GLASS, FRENCH, } &c. See GLASS-

(14.) GLASS, GERMAN, } MAKING, SECT. XI.

(15.) GLASS, GILDING OF. See GILDING, § IV, 2.

(16.) GLASS, HOUR. See HOUR GLASS.

(17.) GLASS, IMPRESSIONS OF ANCIENT GEMS TAKEN IN. See PASTES.

(18.) GLASS, MUSCOVY. See MICA.

(19.) GLASS, NIGHT. See TELESCOPE.

(20) GLASS OF ANTIMONY. See ANTIMONY, § 18.

(21.) GLASS OF LEAD, a glass made with the addition of a large quantity of lead, of great use in the art of making counterfeit gems. The method of making it is this: Put a large quantity of lead into a potter's kiln, and keep it in a state of fusion with a moderate fire, till it is calcined to a grey loose powder; then spread it in the kiln, and give it a greater heat, continually stirring it to keep it from running into lumps; continue this several hours, till the powder become of a fair yellow; then take it out, and sift it fine; this is called *calcined lead*. Take of this calcined lead 15 pounds, and crystalline or other frit 12 pounds; mix these as well as possible; put them in a pot, and set them in the furnace for ten hours; then cast the whole, which will be now perfectly melted, into water; separate the loose lead from it, and return the metal into the pot. After standing in fusion 12 hours more, it will be fit to work. It is very tender and brittle, and must be worked with great care, taking it slowly out of the pot, and continually wetting the marble it is wrought upon. White lead, minium, litharge, and all the other preparations and calces of lead, are easily fused by a moderate fire, and formed into a transparent glass of a deep yellow colour. But this glass is so penetrating and powerful a flux, that it is necessary to give it a greater consistence, to render it fit for use. With this view, two parts of calx of lead, e. g. minium, and one part of sand or powdered flints, may be put into a crucible of refractory clay, and baked into a compact body. Let this crucible, well closed with a luted lid, be placed in a melting furnace, and gradually heated for an hour or an hour and a half; and afterwards let the heat be increased so as to obtain a complete fusion, and continued in that state for the same time; let the crucible remain to cool in the furnace; and when it is broken, a very transparent yellow-coloured glass will be found in it. Some add nitre and common salt to the above mixture, because these salts promote the fusion and the more equal distribution of the sand. This glass of lead has a considerable specific gravity, and its loosest part is always the heaviest. It is an important flux in the assays of ores to facilitate their scorifications. It is capable of all the colours of the gems in very great perfection. The methods of giving them are these: for green, take pulverine frit 20 lb. lead calcined 16 lb. sift both the powders very fine; then melt them into a glass, separating the unmixed lead, by plunging the mass in water; after this, return it into the pot, and add brass thrice calcined 6 oz. and one penny-weight of crocus martis made with vinegar; put this in at six different times, always carefully mixing it together; let it finally settle an hour, then mix it together, and take a proof of it; when the colour is right, let it stand 8 hours, and then work it. If, instead of the calcined brass, the same quantity of the caput mortuum of the vitriolum veneris be used, the green is still finer.

(22.) GLASS, OPERA. See DIOPTRICS, Index.

(23. 1.) GLASS, PAINTING IN, ANCIENT METHODS AND HISTORY OF. The ancient manner of painting on glass was very simple; it consisted

in the mere arrangements of pieces of different colours in some sort of symmetry, situated what is now called *Mosaic work*. SAIC. In process of time they came to more regular designs, and also to represent heightened with all their shades: yet proceeded no farther than the contours of the figures in black with water colours, and batched in series after the same manner on glasses of colour of the object they designed to paint. For carnation, they used glass of a bright red, and upon this they drew the purple, pink, &c. of the face, &c. with black. At length, for this sort of painting improving, and the art being found applicable to the painting of churches, basilicas, &c. they found means of incorporating the colours in the glass itself, by heating them in a fire to a proper degree, having first laid on the colours. A French artist at Marseilles is said to have given the first idea of this improvement, upon going to Rome, Julius II.; but Albert Durer and Lucas were the first that carried it to perfection. This art, however, has met with much opposition, and sometimes been almost totally suppressed, which Mr Walpole gives the following account in his *Anecdotes of Painting in England*: The first interruption given to it was by the Reformation, which banished the art out of churches; it was in some measure kept up in the castles of the nobility and gentry in the windows of their seats. Towards the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign it was omitted even there; yet the art was not entirely dead. The chapel of St. Mary at Warwick was ornamented anew by the Earl of Leicester, and his countess, a Frenchman of the glass painter's name yet remains the date 1574: and in some of the chapels the art again appears, in 1622, by the hand of no contemptible master. I could fill this gap of 48 years by many dates of glass; but nobody ever supposed that the art was lost so early as the reign of James I. it has not perished since will be evident from the following series, reaching to the present times. The portraits in the windows of the library at Soles, Oxford. In the chapel at Queen's College, there are 12 windows, dated 1518. Phipps on the painted glass in the chapel at Warwick, 1574. The windows at Wadham, the drawing pretty good, and the colouring Bernard Van Linge, 1622. In the church of St. Mary's, a window, with the name 1623. In the church of St. Leonard, 16 windows by Baptista Sutton, 16 windows in the chapel at University College, 1687. At Christ church, Oxford, aged 84, 1700. Window in Merton College, William Price, 1700. Windows at Queen's College, and Merton, by William Price, now living, whose colours are fine, and whose taste in ornament is good, and whose taste in ornament is far superior to any of his predecessors, and only surpassed by his own industry. Price was the only painter in the many years in England. Afterwards a plumber at Reading, did some things

the late Henry earl of Pembroke; but the colours soon vanished. At last he found a beautiful and durable red; but he died in or two, and the secret with him. A Birmingham began the same art in 1756 or 1757, and fitted up a window for Lord Lyttelton, church of Hagley; but soon broke. A little after him, one Peckitt at York began the same art, and has made good proficiency. A few years after that art collected some dispersed panes in ancient buildings, particularly the late Lord North, who erected a Gothic temple at Stowe, and filled it with arms of the old nobility. &c.

In the year 1753, one Asciotti, an Italian, who had married a Flemish woman, brought a quantity of painted glass from Flanders, and sold it for 10 guineas to Mr Bateman of Old Windmill-street, who sent Asciotti again to Flanders, and brought me 450 pieces, for which, including the expence of his journey, I paid him 36 guineas. His wife made more journeys for the same purpose; and sold her cargoes to one Paterfon, a glazier in St Martin's lane, who immediately raised the price to 1, 2, or 5 guineas for a piece, and fitted up entire windows with them, and with mosaics of plain glass of different colours. In 1761, Paterfon an auctioneer at Esplanade in the Strand, exhibited the two first pieces of painted glass, imported in like manner from Flanders. All this manufacture consisted of mosaics of scripture histories, stained in black and white, or in small figures of black and white; and flowers in colours, and Flemish coats of arms.

The colours used in painting glass are different from those used in painting either in oil or oil colours. For *black*, take scales of iron ore; scales of copper, 1 oz.; jet, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; grind them to powder and mix them. For *blue*, take powder of blue, 1 lb.; sal nitre, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; mix and grind them well together. For *carnation*, take red chalk, 8 oz.; iron scales and scales of silver, of each, 2 oz.; gum arabic, 1 lb.; dissolve in water; grind all together for an hour very stiff; then put it in a glass and stir it well, and let it stand to settle 14 days.

For *green*, take red lead 1 lb.; scales of copper, and flint, 5 lb.; divide them into 3 parts; add to them as much sal nitre; put them in a crucible, and melt them with a strong fire; when it is cold, powder it, and grind it on a mill.

For *gold colour*, take silver, 1 oz.; copper, $\frac{1}{2}$ oz.; melt them in a crucible; then grind the mass to powder, and grind it on a mill; add to it yellow ochre, or brick-dust ground again, 15 oz.; and grind them well together with water.

For *purple*, take minium, 1 lb.; brown stone, 1 lb.; white flint, 5 lb.; divide into 3 parts, and add to them as much sal nitre; calcine, melt, and grind.

For *red*, take jet, 4 oz.; litharge of silver, 2 lb.; red chalk, 1 oz.; powder them fine, and mix.

For *white*, take jet, two parts; white flint, one part; grind on a glass very fine, one part; mix.

For *yellow*, take Spanish brown, ten parts; leaf silver, one part; antimony, half a part; put all into a crucible, and calcine them.

In the windows of ancient churches, &c. are to be seen the most beautiful and vivid

colours imaginable, which far exceed any of those used by the moderns, not so much because the secret of making those colours was entirely lost, as that the moderns will not go to the charge of them, nor be at the necessary pains, as this sort of painting is not now so much esteemed as formerly. Those beautiful works which were made in the glass houses were of two kinds. In some, the colour was diffused through the whole substance of the glass. In others, which were the more common, the colour was only on one side, scarce penetrating within the substance above $\frac{1}{4}$ of a line; though this was more or less according to the nature of the colour, the yellow being always found to enter the deepest. These last, though not so strong and beautiful as the former, were of more advantage to the workmen, as on the same glass, though already coloured, they could show other kinds of colours where there was occasion to embroider draperies, enrich them with foliages, or represent other ornaments of gold, silver, &c. For this purpose they made use of emery, grinding or wearing down the surface of the glass till they got through the colour to the clear glass. This done, they applied the proper colours on the other side of the glass. By these means, the new colours were hindered from running and mixing with the former, when they exposed the glasses to the fire. When the ornaments were to appear white, the glass was only bared of its colour with emery, without tinging the place with any colour at all; and this was the manner by which they wrought their lights and heightenings on all kinds of colour.

(ii.) GLASS, PAINTING IN, MODERN METHOD OF. To paint glass, in the modern way, first design, and even colour, the whole subject on paper. Then choose such pieces of glass as are clear, even, and smooth, and proper to receive the several parts; and proceed to distribute the design itself, or papers it is drawn on, into pieces suitable to those of the glass; always taking care that the glasses may join in the contours of the figures and the folds of the draperies; that the carnations, and other finer parts, may not be impaired by the lead with which the pieces are to be joined together. The distribution being made, mark all the glasses as well as papers, that they may be known again; which done, applying every part of the design upon the glass intended for it, copy or transfer the design upon this glass with the black colour diluted in gum water, by tracing and following all the lines and strokes as they appear through the glass with the point of a pencil. When these strokes are well dried, which they will be in about two days, the work being only in black and white, give a slight wash over with urine, gum arabic, and a little black; and repeat it several times, according as the shades are to be heightened; with this precaution, never to apply a new wash till the former is sufficiently dried. The lights and risings are then given by rubbing off the colour in the respective places with a wooden point, or the handle of the pencil. As to the other colours above-mentioned, they are used with gum-water, much as in painting in miniature; taking care to apply them lightly, to prevent effacing the outlines of the design; or even, for the greater

greater security, to apply them on the other side; especially yellow, which is very pernicious to the other colours, by blending therewith. And here too, as in pieces of black and white, particular regard must always be had not to lay colour on colour, or lay on a new lay, till the former are well dried. The yellow is the only colour that penetrates through the glass, and incorporates therewith by the fire; the rest, particularly the blue, (which is very difficult to use,) remaining on the surface, or at least entering very little. When the painting of all the pieces is finished, they are carried to the furnace or oven to anneal or bake the colours. The furnace here used is small, built of brick, from 18 to 30 inches square. At six inches from the bottom is an aperture to put in the fuel and maintain the fire. Over this aperture is a grate made of 3 square bars of iron, which traverse the furnace, and divide it. Two inches above this partition is another little aperture, through which they take out pieces to examine how the coction goes forward. On the grate is placed a square earthen pan, 6 or 7 inches deep, and 3 or 6 inches less every way than the perimeter of the furnace. On the one side hereof is a little aperture, for making trials, placed directly opposite to that of the furnaces destined for the same end. In this pan are the pieces of glass to be placed in the following manner: First, the bottom of the pan is covered with 3 strata or layers of quicklime pulverised; those strata being separated by two others of old broken glass, to secure the painted glass from the too intense heat of the fire. The glasses are then laid horizontally on the last or uppermost layer of lime. The first row of glass is covered over with a layer of the same powder an inch deep; over this is laid another range of glasses, and thus alternately till the pan is quite full; taking care that the whole heap always end with a layer of the lime powder. The pan being thus prepared, cover up the furnace with tiles, on a square table of earthen ware, closely luted all round; leaving 3 little apertures, one at each corner, and another in the middle, to serve as chimneys. The fire for the first two hours must be very moderate, and must be increased in proportion as the coction advances, for 10 or 12 hours; in which time it is usually completed. At last the fire, which at first was charcoal, is to be of dry wood, so that the flame covers the whole pan, and even issues out at the chimneys. During the last hours, make essays, from time to time, by taking out pieces laid for the purpose through the little aperture of the furnace and pan, to see whether the yellow be perfect, and the other colours in good order. When the annealing is thought sufficient, extinguish the fire, as quickly as possible; otherwise it would soon burn the colours, and break the glasses.

(24.) GLASS, PAINTING ON, BY MEANS OF PRINTS. See BACK PAINTING.

(25.) GLASS PORCELAIN, the name given by many to a modern invention of imitating china ware with glass. The method given by M. Reaumur, who was the first that carried the attempt to any degree of perfection, is shortly this: The glass vessels to be converted into porcelain are to be put into a large earthen vessel, such as the com-

mon fine earthen dishes are baked in, sufficiently large crucibles; the vessels are to be with a mixture of fine white sand, and gypsum burnt into what is called plaster, and all the interstices are to be filled up with the same powder, so that the glass vessels where touch either one another, or the vessel they are baked in. The vessels are then covered down and luted, and the rest of the work; for this is only to be to a common potter's furnace, and when stood there the usual time of the baking of vessels, it is to be taken out, and the contents will be found no longer glass, but converted into a white opaque substance, which is a great porcelain, and has almost the proof that of China. The powder which has been used will do again as well as fresh, and that for number of times: nay, it seems even the cause of this transformation, says Macquer, is probably that the vitriolic acid of the gypsum is basis of calcareous earth, and unites with an alkaline salt and saline earth of the glass, which it forms a kind of selenite, or from the calcareous selenite, by the intermixture of which matter the glass acquires the quality of porcelain.

(26.) GLASS POTS. See GLASS-MAKING.

(27.) GLASS TEA-S. See RUSSAT'S D.

(28.) GLASS, TIN, the same with BISMUTH, and CHEMISTRY, Index.

(29.) GLASS, VESSELS OF, USED IN CHEMISTRY. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

(30.) GLASS, WATCH. See WATCH.

(31.) GLASS, WEATHER. See BAROMETER.

(V. i.) GLASS, (from *glass*, Gael. *gla*, geography, a parish of Scotland, in the shire of Aberdeen and Banff, so called from the glass of its hills. It is about 8 miles long from N. to S.W. and 6 broad. The Doon runs through it. The soil is a deep loam. The usual crops are oats, barley, and pease; along the bank of the river they are pretty early, but the climate is cold, the rest are late. Turnips, potatoes, clover, are also cultivated by some. In 1781 farmers had not a peck of meal from a dried corn; but the king's bounty of 500000 served the inhabitants from starving. The bar, in 1791, stated by the rev. J. Cooper report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 970; which below that of Dr Webster, in 1785. The bar is bad, and in some places swampy.

(ii.) GLASS, a river of Scotland, in Inver-shire, which, after receiving the Camich fr. NW. unites with the Farrar, and falls into Beaulj. See BEAULJ, N° 2.

(iii.) GLASS, LOCH, a beautiful navigable of Scotland, in Ross-shire, 5 miles long, 2 and 6 from the sea; remarkable for never freezing unless the frost be uncommonly severe. It is a fine trout.

(iv.) GLASS, STRATH, a district of Inver-shire, lying on both sides of the river Glass. * To GLASS, v. a. 1. To see as in a glass or mirror. Not is

Metthink I am partaker of thy passion
And in thy case do glass mine own debility

in glass.—

ought all his senses were lockt in his eye,
Is in crystal for some prince to buy ;
And ring their own worth, from whence
They were glass'd,

Went out to buy them, along as you past.

Shakesp.

er with glass; to glaze.—I have obser-
v'd grains of silver to lie hid in the small ca-
vities glass'd over by a vitrifying heat, in
wherein silver has been long kept in fu-

ARY, [from *glafra*, Gael. a grayish
parish of Scotland, in Argyllshire. 22 m.
12 broad. Its form is nearly a parallel,
usually from each side, and forming an
tract of moor-land. The river Ad rises
at extremity, and runs through it. It has
fishery. The salmon are sold on the spot
for 1 lb. The soil consists of loam, clay, and
it produces tolerable crops of oats, bar-
ley, &c.; but it is best adapted for green
crops. The others are often injured by munda-
ne Ad, the climate being rainy. The
population, in 1793, stated by the rev. Dugald
Dalrymple in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was
had decreased 183, since 1755. There
are 3,200 black cattle, and 1200
sheep. The parish has been partly improved by
plantations of trees.

CARRICK POINT, a cape on the E.
of Ireland, in Wexford. Lon. 6. 12. W.
N.

CASE, *n. f.* [from *glass* and *case*.] a kind
of press, with a glass lid or door, and pro-
vided with nails, shelves, &c. in the inside;
it is placed horizontally upon a table, counter,
or fixed perpendicularly against a
wall. The shops of jewellers, hardware-men,
toy-men, and other dealers in showy
goods display their goods to the best advan-
tage. The name is also applied to those windows
or cases that are fitted up with shelves, &c.
in glass frames on the inside, for exhibiting
the wares they contain to passengers.

CHENBURY, a small town in Kent.

CLIFTON, [Sax. *i. e.* the bare hill.] a pa-
rish, in Wigtonshire, 7½ miles long
N. and from 1½ to 2 miles 7 furlongs
wide. The surface is hilly and rugged: the soil

either loam, gravel, peat earth, or clay. The
weather is variable but mild. Agriculture is great-
ly improved; particularly on the estates of R. Haw-
thorn-Stewart, Esq. of Physgill, and Mr Stewart
of Castle Stewart. "The highly cultivated con-
dition of the estate of Glasserton," says the rev.
Dr Davidson, "is undeniably a fine monument of
the taste, judgment and ardent public spirit of its
late proprietor," Adm. Keith Stewart. The po-
pulation, in 1795, stated by the Dr in his report
to Sir J. Sinclair, was 900 souls, and the increase
91, since 1755. The rearing of black cattle of
the Galloway race is the principal object of the
farmers. Full grown and well fed oxen, of four
years old, sell at from 9 l. to 11 l. old cows at 8 l.
or 10 l. and bullocks of 3 years old, at 7 l. or 8 l.
Sheep, horses, and swine, are also reared in great
numbers. Some sheep have been sold at a guinea
a head. The numbers of none of these cattle are
specified.

GLASSFORD. See GLASFORD.

(1.) * GLASSFURNACE. *n. f.* [*glass* and *furnace*.]
A furnace in which glass is made by liquefaction.
—If our dreamer pleases to try whether the glow-
ing heat of a *glass-furnace* be barely a wandering
imagination in a drowsy-man's fancy, by putting
his hand into it, he may perhaps be awakened in-
to a certainty that it is something more than bare
imagination. *Locke*.

(2.) GLASS FURNACE. See GLASS-MAKING, § V.

* GLASSGAZING. *adj.* [*glass* and *gazing*.] Fi-
nical; often contemplating himself in a mirror.—
A whorson, *glassgazing*, finical rogue. *Shak.*

* GLASSGRINDER. *n. f.* [*glass* and *grinder*.]
One whose trade is to polish and grind glass.—
The *glassgrinders* complain of the trouble they
meet with. *Boyle*.

GLASSGRINDING, *n. f.* the art of grinding glass.
See GLASS-MAKING, § 8. XIII.

* GLASSHOUSE. *n. f.* [*glass* and *house*.] A house
where glass is manufactured.—I remember to have
met with an old Roman Mosaic, composed of lit-
tle pieces of clay half vitrified, and prepared at
the *glasshouses*. *Addison on Italy*.

GLASSHUTTEN, a town of Saxony, 3 miles
from Dresden, near a silver mine.

GLASSITES. See GLASS, N° I, and INDE-
PENDENTS.

GLASSLOUGH. See GLASLOUGH.

GLASS-MAKER, *n. f.* one who makes glass.

G L A S S - M A K I N G.

DEFINITION and HISTORY of GLASS- MAKING.

GLASS-MAKING, *n. f.* the art of making
or the manufacture of that commo-
dity from its original materials, into any form.
In this article we shall give a brief description,
of the materials and art of glass-making,
and the several branches connected with it;
of the time, place, and manner of making
it; of the art of glass-making was first
discovered altogether uncertain. Some suppose
it was invented before the flood; and NERI traces
it at least to the time of Job. But these

are mere conjectures; for the word *Zechuchib*,
translated *crystal*, (Job xxviii. 17.) admits of vari-
ous significations, and from the context evidently
means some precious stone.

The EGYPTIANS boast, that this art was taught
them by Hermes. Aristophanes, Aristotle, Alex-
ander Aphrodisæus, Lucretius, and St John the di-
vine, put it out of all doubt that glass was used in
their days. Pliny relates, that it was first disco-
vered accidentally in Syria, at the mouth of the
river Belus, by certain merchants driven thither
by a storm at sea; who being obliged to continue
there, and dress their victuals by making a fire on
the ground, where there was great plenty of the
herb

herb kali; that plant, burning to ashes, its salts mixed and incorporated with the sand, or stones fit for vitrification, and thus produced glass; and that, this accident being known, the people of Sidon in that neighbourhood essayed the work, and brought glass into use; since which time the art has been continually improving.

Be this as it may, the first glass-houses mentioned in history were erected in TYRE, where the only staple of the manufacture was for many ages. The sand which lay on the shore for about half a mile round the mouth of the Belus was peculiarly adapted to the making of glass; and the wide range of the Tyrian commerce gave an ample vent for the productions of the furnace.

The first time we hear of glass made among the ROMANS was in the reign of Tiberius, when Pliny relates that an artist had his house demolished for making glass malleable, or rather flexible; though Petronius Arbiter and others assure us, that the emperor ordered the artist to be beheaded for his invention. It is certain that a plate of glass was found at Herculaneum, which was destroyed, A. D. 80; and that glass vessels were made at Rome under Nero. The earliest mention made of glass windows is by Lactantius in the 3d century.

Before the conquest of BRITAIN by the Romans, glass-houses had been erected in this island, as well as in Gaul, Spain, and Italy. Hence, in many parts of the country are to be found annulets of glass, having a narrow perforation and thick rim, denominated by the remaining Britons *gleinen naid-reedb*, or *glass adders*, and which were probably in former times used as amulets by the druids. See ANGUINUM OVUM. It can scarcely be doubted, that the Britons were sufficiently well versed in the manufacture of glass, to form out of it many more useful instruments than glass beads. History indeed assures us, that they did manufacture a considerable quantity of glass vessels. These, like their annulets, were most probably green, blue, yellow, or black, and many of them curiously streaked with other colours. The process in the manufacture would be nearly the same with that of the Gauls or Spaniards. The sand of their shores being reduced to a sufficient degree of fineness by art, was mixed with a fourth of its weight of their native chalk the same with our kelp, and both were melted together. The metal was then poured into a mould, where it was left to harden into a mass, and afterwards replaced in the furnace, where it became transparent in the boiling; and when it was sufficiently blown, or modelled in the belly, into any shape as they wanted.

According to Bede, glass was used in making plate for mirrors, which were first introduced into England in 675, by the first Saxon king, who were employed in glassing the windows of the church of Winchester. In the reign of King Alfred, glass was first brought over by William, Duke of Normandy, about the year 1066. The first glass-makers of this kingdom, who were known to have been introduced into England, and glass windows first introduced into the country, before 1120. They first came from France, and from whence they came to England. Venice, for many years, excelled all other parts in the making of its glasses, and in the 14th century, the Venetians were the only people that had the art of making crystal looking-glasses.

tians were the only people that had the art of making crystal looking-glasses.

The glass manufacture was first begun in England in 1557: the finer sort was made by Friars, in London; the fine flint glass, prior to that of Venice, was first made by the House, in the Strand, London. This manufacture appears to have been much improved when it was carried on with pit coal wood; and a monopoly was granted to Mansell, who was allowed to import Venetian flint glasses for drinking, the art which was not brought to perfection till the reign of William III.

The first glass plates, for looking-coach windows, were made in 1673, and by the encouragement of the duke of Devonshire; who, in 1670, introduced the use of fine glass into England, by Venice with amazing success. So that within a short time, the French and English have not only equalled but even excelled the Venetians, and are no longer supplied from abroad. This made a considerable improvement in glass, by the invention of a method to make large plates, till then unknown, and perfected yet by any but themselves and the French. This branch was established in Lancashire and is now very flourishing.

SECT. II. Of the THEORY of VITRIFICATION.

WITH regard to the theory of VITRIFICATION we are almost totally in the dark. It seems to be that state in which solid matter, by the vehement action of fire, is dissolved and carried off in vapour. In nature there is a plentiful evaporation; solid substance is carried off in vapour by the heat of a burning speculum, as always previously takes place. The difference, then, between the state of fusion and that of a solid body, appears to be, that in the first the fire acts upon the parts of the matter in such a manner as only to disjoin them, and render them fluid; but in vitrification it acts upon the particles, but combines with them, and takes them into a third substance; while in the first as much fire as it can contain, can receive their change from that element, except what is carried off in vapour.

But though we are unable to effect a change upon solid bodies without a very violent action, yet in the natural process of fusion and crystallization, nature performs a greater change than we can make with fire. There are called *pyromorphosis*; but they discover the essential properties of the matter of glass. The process of vitrification of glass is the same as the process of fusion, except that the heat is continued longer, and the matter is carried off in vapour. The process of vitrification is the same as the process of fusion, except that the heat is continued longer, and the matter is carried off in vapour. The process of vitrification is the same as the process of fusion, except that the heat is continued longer, and the matter is carried off in vapour.

It is a common objection to this theory, that glass is not capable of being melted.

porcelain by a long-continued cementation of certain materials. This change happens in those kinds of glass which are made of alkali and sand; and Dr Lewis has shown that it is produced by the dissipation of the principle, which is the least fixed of the two. Therefore, we may consider it as a substance in which the fire has no other effect, than either to consume or dissipate it in vapour.

. *Of the MATERIALS for MAKING GLASS.*

Materials, whereof glass is made, are salt and stones. I. The salt is procured from ashes brought from the Levant, called *or rochetta*. They are the ashes of a plant named *KALI*, (see *SALSOLA*, N° 1 & 3.) In summer, dried in the sun, and burnt either on the ground, or on iron grates; falling into a pit, grow into a hard mass, fit for use. It may also be procured from kelp, or the ashes of the *fucus vesiculosus*. See *FUCUS*, N° 12; and *KELP*.

Next the salt, these ashes are powdered and then put into boiling water, and there kept till most of the water be consumed; the whole is stirred up from time to time, that the ashes may incorporate with the fluid, and all its salts be dissolved: then the vessel is filled up with new water, and boiled over again, till one half be consumed: what remains is a sort of ley, strongly impregnated with salt. This ley, boiled over again in coppers, thickens in about 24 hours, and is then salt; which is to be luted out, as is done with earthen pans, and thence into vessels to drain and dry. This done, it is ready to be used, and thus put into a sort of oven, called *an*, to dry.

There are also other plants which yield a salt fit for use, such as the common thistle, bramble, hawthorn, wood, woad, tobacco, fern, and the numerous tribe, as pease, beans, &c. These form a leading flux in the manufacture of glass, and mostly supply the place of the Levant barillas of Spain, and other kinds. For the most part, for making both glass and for the purpose of *ASH*. There are other fluxes used for the making of glass, and for various purposes, such as lead, nitre, sea salt, borax, arsenic, and wood ashes, containing the various salts as produced by incineration. In regard to these several fluxes, we may observe in general, that the more calx of lead, or siliceous earth, that enters into the composition of glass, so much the more fusible, soft, and dense this glass is, and reciprocally. As given to glass, by calxes of lead, are called *yellow*: on the other hand, glasses that are free from saline fluxes partake of the properties of siliceous glasses, they are less heavy, less dense, harder, more brilliant, and more brittle than the glasses containing both saline and siliceous fluxes also partake of the properties of siliceous substances. Glasses too saline are easily altered by the action of air and especially those in which alkalis prevail; they are also liable to be injured by acids. Glasses that contain too much borax and arsenic, when first they appear very beautiful, quickly

PART II.

turnish and become opaque when exposed to air. By attending to these properties of different fluxes, the artist may adjust the proportions of these to sand, or powdered flints, for the various kinds of glass.

II. The sand or stone, called by the artists *TARSO*, is the second ingredient in glass, and that which gives it the body and firmness. These stones, Agricola observes, must be such as will fuse; and of these such as are white and transparent are best; so that crystal has the precedence of all others. At Venice they chiefly use a sort of pebble, found in the *Telino*, resembling white marble, and called *cuogolo*. Indeed Ant. Neri assures us, that all stones, which will strike fire with steel, are fit to vitrify; but Dr Morret shows, that there are some exceptions from this rule. Flints are admirable; and when calcined, powdered, and seared, make a pure white crystalline metal: but the expence of preparing them makes the masters of our glass-houses sparing of their use. Where proper stones cannot be so conveniently had, sand is used. The best for this purpose is that which is white, small, and shining; examined by the microscope, it appears to be small fragments of rock crystal. For green glass, that which is of a soft texture, and more gritty; it is to be well washed, which is all the preparation it needs. Our glass-houses are furnished with white sand, for their crystal glasses, from *Lyn* in *Norfolk* and *Maidstone* in *Kent*, and with the coarser, for green glass, from *Woolwich*.

III. Some mention a 3d ingredient in glass, viz. manganese; (see *MANGANESE*;) but the proportion of it to the rest is very inconsiderable; nor is it used in all glass. It purges off the natural greenish colour, and gives it some other tincture required. For this purpose it should be chosen of a deep colour, and free from specks of a metalline appearance, or a lighter cast. It requires to be well calcined in a hot furnace, and then to undergo a thorough levigation. The effect of manganese in destroying the colours of glass, (and hence called the *soap of glass*;) is thus accounted for by M. Montamy, in his *Traité des Couleurs pour la Peinture en Email*. It destroys the green, olive, and blue colours of glass, by adding to them a purple tinge, and by the mixture producing a blackish brown colour; and as blackness is caused merely by an absorption of the rays of light, the blackish tinge given to the glass by the mixture of colours, prevents the reflection of so many rays, and thus renders the glass less coloured than before. But the black produced by this substance suggests an obvious reason for using it very sparingly in these compositions of glass which are required to be very transparent. Nitre or saltpetre is also used with the same intention; as it serves to free glass prepared with lead as a flux from its yellow-coloured tinge; and in saline glasses, nitre is requisite in a smaller proportion to render them sufficiently transparent, as in the case of looking glass and other kinds of plates.

SECT. IV. *Of the FURNACES used in GLASS-MAKING.*

In this manufacture there are three sorts of furnaces: the 1st, called *calcar*, is for the first; the 2d, for working the glass; the 3d, for annealing it, is called the *leer*. See *Plat.* CLXVII.

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L. THE

I. The CALCAR is an oven 10 feet long, 7 feet broad, and 2 deep: the fuel, which in Britain is sea coal, is put into a trench on one side of the furnace; and the flame, reverberating from the roof upon the frit, calcines it. See CALCAR, N^o 3.

II. The GLASS FURNACE, or WORKING FURNACE, is round, of 3 yard's diameter, and 2 high; or in that proportion. It is divided into 3 parts, each of which is vaulted. The lower part is properly called the *crown*, and is made in that form. Its use is to keep a brisk fire, which is never put out. The mouth is called the *bocca*. There are several holes in the arch of this crown, through which the flame passes into the 2d partition, and reverberates into the pots filled with the materials. Round the inside there are 3 or more pots placed, and piling pots on them. The number of pots is always double that of the boccas or mouths, or of the number of workmen, that each may have one pot refined to work out of, and another for metal to refine in, while he works out of the other. Through the working holes the metal is taken out of the pots, and the pots are put into the furnace; and these holes are stopped with moveable covers made of lute and brick, to screen the workmen's eyes from the scorching flames. On each side of the bocca or mouth is a *boccarella* or little hole, out of which coloured glass or finer metal is taken from the piling pot.

III. Above this oven there is the 3d oven, called the *LEER*, about 5 or 6 yards long, and 4 feet wide, where the vessels of glass are annealed or cooled. This part consists of a tower, besides the leer, into which the flame ascends from the furnace. The tower has two mouths, through which the glasses are put in with a fork, and set on the floor or bottom; but they are drawn out on iron pans, called *friches*, through the leer, to cool by degrees; so that they are quite cold by the time they reach the mouth of the leer, which enters the *farafel* or room where the glasses are to be stowed.

IV. The FURNACE for the GREEN GLASS is square; and at each angle it has an arch for annealing or cooling glasses. The metal is wrought on two opposite sides, and on the other two they have their *chours*, into which are made linnet holes for the fire to come from the furnace to bake the frit, and to discharge the smoke. Fires are made in the arches to anneal the work, so that the whole process is done in one furnace.

These furnaces must not be of brick, but of hard sandy stones. In France, they build the outside of brick; and the inner, to bear the fire, is made of a sort of fullers earth, or tobacco pipe clay, of which they also make the melting pots. In Britain the pots are made of Sturbridge clay. Mr Blancourt observes, that the worst and roughest work in this art is the changing the pots when they are worn out or cracked. In this case, the great working hole must be uncovered; the faulty pot must be taken out with iron hooks and forks, and a new one must be speedily put in its place, through the flames, by the hands only. For this work, the man guards himself with a garment made of skins, in the shape of a pantaloon, that covers him all but his eyes, and is made as wet as possible: the eyes are defended with a proper sort of glass.

SECT. V. Of the INSTRUMENTS used in GLASS MAKING.

THE instruments used in glass making blowing pipe, made of iron, about 2 with a wooden handle. 2. An iron 3 up the glass after it is blown, and to former. 3. Scissors to cut the glass off from the first hollow iron. 4. 5 and shape great glasses, &c. 6. A 7 with the end of the handle cased will take the metal out of the refining pot into the workmen's pots. 8. A small cased in the same manner, to skin 1 salt that swims at top. 7. Shovels, one to take up the great glasses; another shovel, to feed the furnace with coals. ed iron fork, to stir the matter in the iron rake for the same purpose, and to 10. An iron fork, to change or pull 6 of the furnace. 11. And lastly the

GLASS POTS, or vessels in which melted. Those for the white glass work of a tobacco pipe clay, brought from Wight, which is first well washed, th and afterwards ground to a fine powder which being mixt with water, is the the bare feet till it is of a proper mould with the hands into the proper vessels. When these are thus made, afterwards annealed over the furnace, the green glass work are made of 5 and another sort of clay from Stafford make these six large as to hold 3 or 4 C.

They have also a small sort called which they set upon the larger, and a finer and more nice metal fit for the.

The clay that is used for this purpose of the purest and most refractory is cleansed from all sandy, ferruginous, matters; and to this it will be ground crucibles, white sand, calcine levigated, or a certain proportion of baked, and pounded not very finely. tity of baked clay that ought to be the crude clay, to prevent the pots from when dried, or exposed to a great heat terminated, but depends on the quality clay, which is more or less fat. M. a memoir on this subject, proposes the method of ascertaining it: The bar clay, being mixed in different proportions be formed into cakes, one inch thick inches long and wide. Let these be dried, and exposed to a violent heat, come as hard and as much contracted and in this state be examined; and says, which has suffered a diminution equal only to an 18th part, is made proportions. He observes, in general clays require that the proportion should be to the fresh as 4 to 5.

SECT. VI. Of the DIFFERENT KINDS

THE manufactured glass now is divided into 3 general kinds; 1. white glass, 2. coloured glass, and 3. common bottle glass.

First kind there is a great variety; as the German crystal glass, which are the same uses: the glass for plates, for looking glasses; the glass for windows and lights; and the glass for phials and small vessels. And these again differ in the substances as fluxes in forming them, as well as in the coarseness or fineness of such as are used for them. The flint and crystal, mirror and best glass, not only require such purity in the materials, but may render it practicable to free the glass from all colour; but, for the same reason, the white Lynn sand, calcined flints, pebbles, should be used. The others do not require the same nicety in the choice of materials; though the second kind of window glass, and the best kind of phial, will not be so perfect, if either too brown sand, or impurities be suffered to enter into their composition. Coloured glass there is also a great variety differing in their colour or other properties according to the occasions for which they are

after which take out the matter; which being now sufficiently calcined, is called FRIT, or BOLLITO. See these articles. From the calcar put the frit in a dry place, and cover it up from the dust for 3 or 4 months.

To make the white glass or crystal, take of the crystal frit, set it in pots in the furnace, adding to it a due quantity of manganese: when the two are fused, cast the fluid into fair water, to clear it of the salt called *sandixer*; which would otherwise make the crystal obscure and cloudy. This lotion must be repeated again and again, as often as needful till the crystal be fully purged; or the scum may be taken off by proper ladles. Then set it to boil 4, 5 or 6 days; which done, see whether it have manganese enough; and if it be yet greenish, add more by little and little at a time, taking care not to overdose it, because the manganese inclines it to a blackish hue. Then let the metal clarify, till it becomes of a clear and shining colour; which done, it is fit to be blown or formed into vessels.

These differences depend on the preparation and management of the artists by whom manufactured. See SECT. XIV.

It is also distinguished into 3 principal kinds, according to the manner of working it; viz. 1. *Round* that of our bottles, vessels, phials, drink-glasses, &c. See SECT. X. 2. *Table or window* which there are divers kinds: as crown glass, &c. See SECT. XI. and 3. *Flint*, or *mirror glass*. See SECT. XII.

II. Of the COMPOSITIONS for making BOTTLE and PHIAL GLASS.

THE common BOTTLE or GREEN GLASS is made of sand of any kind, fluxed by the ashes of wood, or of any parts of vegetables; to which may be added the *scoriae* or clinkers of iron. When the softest sand is used, 200 lb. of sand will suffice for 100 lb. of sand, which has been ground and mixed together. The composition with the clinkers consists of 170 lb. of sand, 100 lb. of sand, and 50 of clinkers, to be ground and mixed together. If the clinkers cannot be ground, they must be broken into small pieces, and mixed with the other without grinding.

AL GLASS is a kind betwixt the flint and the bottle glass. The best kind may be made with 120 lb. of white sand, 50 lb. of unburnt pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. of nitre, and 5 oz. of magnesia. The composition for green or common phial glass consists of the cheapest white sand, 80 lb. of wood-burnt and sifted, 20 lb. of pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, and 1 lb. of arsenic.

II. Of the COMPOSITIONS for making WHITE GLASS and CRYSTAL.

TO make the whitest tarso, pounded small, and fine as flour, 200 lb. of the salt of polyphosphate, 1 lb. mix them, and put them into the furnace heating it. For an hour keep a moderate fire, and keep stirring the materials with a rod, that they may incorporate and calcine; then increase the fire for 5 hours;

FLINT GLASS, as it is called by us, is of the same general kind with that which in other places is called CRYSTAL glass. It has this name from being originally made with calcined flints, before the use of the white sand was understood; and retains the name, though no flints are now used in the composition of it. This flint glass differs from the other, in having lead for its flux, and white sand for its body; whereas the fluxes used for the crystal glass are salts or arsenic, and the body consists of calcined flints or white river pebbles, tarso, or such stones. To the white sand and lead a proper proportion of nitre is added, and a small quantity of magnesia, or manganese. In some works they use a proportional quantity of arsenic to aid the fluxing ingredients.

The most perfect kind of flint glass may be made, by fusing with a very strong fire 120 lb. of the white sand, 50 lb. of red lead, 40 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 20 lb. of nitre, and 5 oz. of magnesia. Another composition of flint glass, which is said to come nearer to the kind now made, is the following: 120 lb. of sand, 54 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 36 lb. of red-lead, 12 lb. of nitre, and 6 oz. of magnesia. To either of these a pound or two of arsenic may be added, to increase the flux of the composition.

A cheaper composition may be made with 120 lb. of white sand, 35 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 40 lb. of red-lead, 13 lb. of nitre, 6 lb. of arsenic, and 4 oz. of magnesia; or instead of the arsenic may be substituted 15 lb. of common salt; but this will be more brittle. The cheapest composition for the worst kind of flint glass consists of 120 lb. of white sand, 30 lb. of red-lead, 20 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of nitre, 15 lb. of common salt, and 6 lb. of arsenic. The best German crystal is made of 120 lb. of calcined flints or white sand, 70 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of salt-petre, 1 lb. of arsenic, and 5 oz. of magnesia. And a cheaper composition is formed of 120 lb. of calcined flints or white sand, 46 lb. of pearl-ashes, 7 lb. of nitre, 6 lb. of arsenic, and 5 oz. of magnesia.

A glass much harder than any prepared in the

common way, may be made by means of borax, thus: Take 4 oz. of borax, and 1 of fine sand; reduce both to a subtil powder, and melt them together in a large close crucible set in a wind furnace, keeping up a strong fire for half an hour; then take out the crucible, and when cold break it, and there will be found at the bottom a pure hard glass, capable of cutting common glass like a diamond. This experiment, duly varied, says Dr Shaw, may lead to several useful improvements in making glass enamels, and lachryous gems; and shows an expeditious method of making glass, without any fixed alkali, which has been generally thought an essential ingredient in glass, and perhaps calcined crystal, or other substances, added to this salt instead of sand, might make a glass approaching to the nature of a diamond.

SECT. IX. Of the COMPOSITIONS for making PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.

THE materials of which this glass is made are much the same as those of other works of glass, viz. an alkaline salt and sand. The salt, however, should not be that extracted from the ashes of the Syrian kali, but that from *Sarcocolla*, growing about Alicante in Spain. It is very rare that we have the *barilla* pure; the Spaniards in burning the herb mix another herb with it, which alters its quality; or add sand to it to increase the weight, which is easily discovered, if the addition be only made after the boiling of the ashes, but next to impossible if made in the boiling. From this adulteration threads and other defects in plate glass arise.

To prepare the salt, clean it well of all foreign matters; pound or grind it with a kind of mill, and finally sift it pretty fine. Pearl ashes properly purified, will furnish the alkaline salt requisite for this purpose; but it will be necessary to add borax or common salt, to facilitate the fusion, and prevent the glass from stiffening in that degree of heat in which it is to be wrought into plates.

To purify the pearl-ashes, dissolve them in four times their weight of boiling water, in a pot of cast iron, kept clean from rust. Let the solution be removed into a clean tub, and remain there 24 hours or longer. Having decanted the clear part of the fluid from the sediment, put it again in the iron pot, and evaporate the water till the salts are left perfectly dry. Preserve them in stone jars, well secured from air and moisture. Pearl-ashes may also be purified in the highest degree, to as to be proper for the manufacture of the most transparent glass, by pulverizing 3 lb. of the best kind with 6 oz. of saltpetre in a glass or marble mortar, till they are well mixed; and then putting part of the mixture into a large crucible, and exposing it in a furnace to a strong heat. When this is red-hot, throw in the rest gradually; and when the whole is red hot, pour it out on a mounted stone or marble, and put it into an earthen or clean iron pot, with 20 pints of water; heat it over the fire till the salts be entirely melted; let it then stand to cool, and filter it through paper in a pewter cullender. When filtered, put the fluid again into the pot, and evaporate the salt to crystals, which will then be as white as snow.

As to the sand, sift and wash it till the water

come off very clear; and when it is mixed with the salt, passing the mixture another sieve. This done, lay them in a heating furnace for about two hours; till the matter becomes very light and in this state they are called *sari*, and are put in a dry clean place, for at least a year, to give time to incorporate. When they employ they lay it for some hours in the furnace to fume the fragments of old and old mud taking care first to calcine them by heated hot in the furnace, and thus casting in cold water. To the mixture must be added manganese, to promote the fusion and clarification.

The best composition for looking glass consists of 60 lb. of white sand cleansed, purified pearl ashes, 25 lb. of salt, etc., of borax. If a yellow tinge should arise, a small proportion of magnesia, mixed with an equal quantity of arsenic, should be added. An ounce of the magnesia may be first tried; this proves sufficient, the quantity should be increased. A cheaper composition consists of white sand, 20 lb. of pearl ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 7 lb. of nitre, 2 lb. of arsenic, of borax.

The matter of which the glass is made, and the famous manufacture of St. Gobain is a composition of sand and of a white sand, or finely cleaned of all heterogeneousness, afterwards washed several times, so as to be pulverized in a mill, consisting of pistons, which are moved by horse; this is done, the sand is sifted throughly and dried. The matter thus far prepared is fit for plate glass, to be formed either by rolling or by casting. See Sect. XII.

SECT. X. METHOD of WORKING or FORMING ROUND GLASS.

THE working furnace has six boccar-tures: at one of these, called the *great* furnace is heated, and the pots or trit set in the furnace; two other smaller boccardures, serve to take or take out the metal, at the end of an iron, to work it. At the other holes they put in pots of ingredients, to be prepared, and at last into the lading pot. There are 6 pots in the furnace, all made of tobacco pipe clay, and sustain not only the heat of the fire, but effect of the pulverine, which penetrates anything else. There are only two of these for working; the rest serve to prepare it for them.

The fire is made and kept up with wood, cast in without intermission at six. When the matter in the pots is sufficiently fused, the workman proceeds to blow or blow. For this purpose he dips his blowing pipe into the melting pot; and by turning it about, it sticks to the iron more than he thinks he repeats 4 times, at each time the end of his instrument, with the hot metal on a piece of plate iron; over which is water which helps to cool, and so to cool and to dispose that matter, to find the

is to be next taken out of the melting after he has dipt a 4th time, and per- e is metal enough on the pipe, he outh immediately to the other end lows gently through the iron tube till inghens like a bladder about a foot. lis it on a marble stone a little while to i blows a second time, by which he the shape of a globe of about 13 or 20 eter. Every time he blows into the oves it quickly to his cheek; other- and be in danger, by often blowing, of flame into his mouth; and this globe tered by returning it to the fire; and any form by stamp irons, which are y.

e glass is thus blown, it is cut off at neck; which is the narrow part that iron. The method is this: the pipe an iron bar, close by the collet; then old water being laid on the collet, it bout a quarter of an inch, which, with e or cut of the shears, will immediate- the collet. The operator then dips l into the melting pot, by which he ouch metal as serves to attract the glass , to which he fixes this rod at the bot- work, opposite to the opening made ring of the collet.

When the glass is carried to the great uth of the oven, to be heated and when means it is again put into such that, by the help of an iron instru- he pierced, opened, and widened, king. But the vessel is not finished ned to the great bocca; where being thoroughly, and turned quickly about at motion, it will open to any size, by heat and motion. If any superfluous e cut off with the shears; for tool, it remains in a soft flexible state, e taken from the bocca, and carried bench, covered with brands, or coals eeping it turning; as that motion setting, and preserves an evenness in e glass, where, as it cools, it con es eay; being first cleared from the i- flight stroke by the workman.

et, whole body is already made, re- , or a handle, or any other member , he makes them separately; and ik the help of hot metal, which he the pots with his iron rod; but the ought to its true hardness till it has r. See SECT. IV.

METHOD of WORKING or BLOWING WINDOW or TABLE GLASS.

od above described, in SECT. X, of id glass, is in every particular appl- working of window or table glass, ng iron has been dipt the 4th time. ead of rounding it, the workman manages the metal upon the iron extends 2 or 3 feet in the form of a his cylinder is put again to the fire, econd time; and this is repeated till

it is extended to the dimensions required, the side to which the pipe is fixed diminishing gradually till it ends in a pyramidal form; so that, to bring both ends nearly to the same diameter, while the glass is thus flexible, he adds a little hot metal to the end opposite the pipe, and draws it out with a pair of iron pincers, and immediately cuts off the same end with the help of a little cold water, as before.

The cylinder being now open at one end, is carried back to the bocca; and there, by the help of cold water, it is cut about 8 or ten inches from the iron pipe or rod; and the whole length at another place, by which also it is cut off from the iron rod. Then it is heated gradually on an earthen table, by which it opens in length; while the workman, with an iron tool, alternately lowers and raises the two halves of the cylinder; which at last will open like a sheet of paper, and fall in- to the same flat form in which it serves for use; in which it is preserved by heating it over again, cooling it on a table of copper, and hardening it 24 hours in the annealing furnace, to which it is carried upon forks. In this furnace 100 tables of glass may lie at a time, without injury to each o- ther, by separating them into tents, with an iron flaver between, which diminishes the weight by dividing it, and keeps the tables flat and even.

There are various sorts of window or table glass made in different places for the use of buildings. Those most known among us are enumerated by the author of the *Baillier's Dictionary*, as follows:

1. OF CROWN GLASS says Neri, there are two kinds distinguished by the places where they are wrought; viz. Katchiff crown glass, which is the best and clearest, and was first made at the Bear- garden, on the Bankside, Southwark, but since at Katchiff; or this there are 24 tables to the case, the table being of a circular form about 3 feet 6 inches in diameter. The other kind, or Lambeth crown glass, is of a darker colour, and more inclining to green. The best window or crown glass is made of white sand 60 lb. of purified pearl ashes 30 lb. of salt petre 15 lb. of borax 1 lb. and of arsenic $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. If the glass should prove yellow, magnesia must be added. A cheaper composition for win- dow glass consists of 60 lb. of white sand, 25 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. of nitre, 2 lb. of arsenic, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of mag- nesia. The common or green window glass is composed of 60 lb. of white sand, 30 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 2 lb. of arsenic, and 2 oz. of magnesia. But a cheaper composition for this purpose consists of 120 lb. of the cheapest white sand, 30 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 60 lb. of wood ashes, well burnt and sifted, 20 lb. of common salt, and 5 lb. of arsenic.

2. FRENCH GLASS, or NORMANDY GLASS, called formerly *Lorraine glass*, is made wholly in the 9 glass works; whereof 5 are in the forest of Ly- ons, and 4 in the ci-devant county of Eu; the last at Beaumont near Rouen. It is thinner than our crown glass; and when laid on a piece of white paper, appears of a dirtyish green colour. There are but 25 tables of this to the case.

3. GERMAN GLASS is of two kinds, the *white* and the *green*: the first is of a whitish colour, but is

is subject to those small curved streaks observed in the Newcastle glass, though free from its blemishes. The green, besides its colour, is liable to the same streaks as the white; but both are straighter and less warped than Newcastle glass.

4. **DUTCH GLASS** is not much unlike Newcastle glass either in colour or price. It is frequently much warped like that, and the tables are but small.

5. **NEWCASTLE GLASS** is that most used in England. It is of an ash colour, and much subject to specks, streaks, and other blemishes; and besides is frequently warped. Leybourn says, there are 45 tables to the case, each containing 5 superficial feet: some say there are but 35 tables, and 6 feet in each table.

SECT. XII. METHODS of BLOWING and CASTING PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.

THE largest mirror glasses at St Gobin are run; the middle sized and small ones are blown.

I. **BLOWING THE PLATES.** (See *Plate CLXVII*, *Fig. 1.*) The workhouses, furnaces, &c. used in making the small kind of plate glass, are the same with those used for the large kind, except that they are smaller, and that the carquailles are disposed in a large covered gallery, over against the furnace.

After the materials are vitrified by the heat of the fire, and the glass is sufficiently refined, the workman dips in his blowing iron, six feet long, and two inches in diameter, narrowed at the end which is put in the mouth, and widened at the other, that the matter may adhere to it. He thus takes up a small ball of matter, which sticks to the end of the tube by constantly turning it. He then blows into the tube, to swell the ball; and carrying it over a bucket of water, which is placed on a support at the height of about 4 feet, he sprinkles the end of the tube to which the matter adheres, with water, still turning it, that by this cooling the matter may coalesce with the tube, and be fit for sustaining a greater weight. He dips the tube again into the same pot, and proceeds as before; and dipping it in the pot a 3d time, he takes it out, loaded with matter, in the shape of a pear, about ten inches in diameter, and a foot long, and cools it at the bucket; at the same time blowing into the tube, and with the assistance of a labourer, giving it a balancing motion, he causes the matter to lengthen; which, by repeating this operation several times, assumes the form of a cylinder, terminating like a ball at the bottom, and in a point at the top.

The assistant is then placed on a stool $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet high: on this stool there are two upright pieces of timber, with a cross beam of the same, for supporting the glass and tube, which are kept in an oblique position by the assistant, that the master workman may, with a puncheon set in a wooden handle, and with a mallet, make a hole in the mass. This hole is drilled at the centre of the ball that terminates the cylinder, and is about an inch in diameter. When the glass is pierced, the defects of it are perceived; if it is tolerably perfect, the workman lays the tube horizontally on a little iron tressel, placed on the support of the aperture of the furnace. Having exposed it to the heat for

about half a quarter of an hour, he takes and with a pair of long and broad shears, ly sharp at the end, widens the glass, by driving the shears into the hole made with the puncheon while the assistant, mounted on a stool, turns it round, till at last the opening is as to make a perfect cylinder at bottom. When this is done, the workman lays his glass tressels at the mouth of the furnace to hold it, then gives it to his assistant on the stool, who with large shears cuts the mass of matter up to the height.

There is at the mouth of the furnace a tool, called **PONTIL**, which is now he used, it may unite and coalesce with the glass, and perform the office which the tube did when it was separated from the glass. This piece of iron six feet long, and in the shape of a cane or tube, having at the end of it a bar, a foot long, laid equally upon the glass, and making with it a T. This little bar, the matter of the glass, about four inches thick, is pressed into the glass. This red-hot pontil is presented to the glass, which coalesces immediately round the pontil, so as to support the following operation. When the glass is thus united to the pontil, they separate the tube from the glass, a few blows with a chisel upon the tube which has been cooled; so the tube breaks directly, and makes this separation, the tube being discharged of the glass next to the pontil. They next present to the pontil of the glass, laying it on the support, heat, and redden the end of that glass. The workman may open it with his shears, already opened one end of it, to make it a cylinder; the assistant holding it on his fore. For the last time, they put the glass on the tressel, that the glass may become flat, and the workman cuts it quite open with shears, right over-against the fore-men. Thus he does as before, taking care that the cut is in the same line.

In the mean time, the man who holds the carquaille comes to receive the glass: he holds a shovel, $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet long without the handle, wide, with a small border of an inch thick on the right and left, and towards the handle. Upon this the glass is laid, a little with a small stick a foot and a half long, that the cut of the glass is turned up. They then separate the glass from the pontil, a few gentle blows between the two workmen. The glass is then removed to the hot carquaille, where it becomes red-hot; the workman, with an iron tool, widens the end in form of a cylinder, 4 inches long, and 2 inches wide, and very flat, and not half an inch thick. He lifts up the cut part of the glass, to give it the form of a flattened cylinder, smooth, by turning it down upon the carquaille. The tool being now turned, the cylinder, performs this operation, pushed hard against all the parts. When the glass is thus made quite flat, it is pushed to the bottom of the carquaille, and the furnace with a small iron rake

Fig. 1. Blowing.



GLASS-MAKING.

Fig. 2. Casting.



Fig. 3. Polishing.



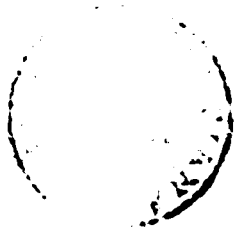
Fig. 4.

Microscope



Muscular system





with a little iron hook. When the carquaisse it is stopped and cemented as in the case of glasses, and the glass remains there for a bit to be annealed; after which time it is out to be polished. A workman can make six glasses in an hour, and he works and rests hours alternately.

It was the method formerly used for blowing large glasses, looking-glasses, &c.; but the work by this method, could never exceed 50 inches in length, and a proportional breadth, because the larger were always found to warp, and prevented them from reflecting the objects truly, and they wanted substance to bear the pressure of grinding. These imperfections have been remedied by the following invention of the Sieur Jean Thevart, in France, about 1688.

CASTING or RUNNING of LARGE MIRROR PLATES. The furnace is of a very large dimension, environed with several ovens, or annealing furnaces, called *carquaises*, besides others for firing of frit and calcining old pieces of glass.

The furnace, before it is fit to run glass, costs much. It seldom lasts above 3 years, and even in time it must be refitted every six months. It takes six months to rebuild it, and 3 months to re-

The melting pots are as big as large hog-furnaces, and contain about 2000 weight of metal. If one of them bursts in the furnace, the loss of matter and time amounts to 250l. When the metal is red-hot, the materials (see SECT. IX.) are put in at three different times, as this helps fusion; and in 24 hours they are vitrified, re-settled, and fit for casting.

Plate CLXVII, fig. 2, A represents the bottom-mouth of the furnace; B the cistern that receives the liquid glass it receives out of the melting pots in the furnace to the casting table. These cisterns are filled in the furnace, and remain there six hours after they are filled; and then are rolled out by a large iron chain, guided by a pulley, placed upon a carriage with four wheels, (see C,) by two men. This carriage has no other piece; so that when it has brought the cistern to the casting table, D, they slip off the bottom of the cistern, and out rushes a torrent of molten matter upon the table: this matter is confined to certain dimensions by the iron rulers EE, which are moveable, and retain it, and determine the width of the glass; while a man, with the roller, resting on the edge of the iron rulers, regulates it as it cools to an equal thickness, which is done in the space of a minute. This table is supported on a wooden frame, with trussles for the convenience of moving to the annealing furnace; which, strewed with sand, the new plate is rolled, where it will harden in about 10 days.

What is most surprising throughout the whole of this operation, is the quickness and address required with such massy cisterns, filled with a flaming metal, are taken out of the furnace, conveyed to the casting table, and poured therein, the glass spread, &c. The whole is inconceivable to such as have not been eye-witnesses of that surprising manufacture. As soon as the cisterns are emptied, they carry them back to the furnace and take fresh ones, which are empty as before. This they continue to do as long as there are any full cisterns; laying as

many plates in each carquaisse as it will hold, and stopping them up with doors of baked earth, and every chink with cement, as soon as they are full, to let them anneal, and cool again, which requires about 14 days.

The first running being dispatched, they prepare another, by filling the cisterns anew from the matter in the pots; and after the 2d, a 3d, and even a 4th time, till the melting pots are quite empty. The cisterns at each running should remain at least six hours in the furnace to whiten; and when the first annealing furnace is full, the casting table is to be carried to another. The carquaises, or annealing furnaces, must first have been heated to the degree proper for them. The oven-full, or the quantity of matter commonly prepared, supplies the running of 18 glasses, which is performed in 18 hours, being an hour for each glass. The workmen work six hours, and are then relieved by others. When the pots are emptied, they take them out, as well as the cisterns, to scrape off what glass remains, which otherwise would grow green by continuance of fire, and spoil the glasses. They are not filled again in less than 36 hours; so that they put the matter into the furnace, and begin to run it every 54 hours.

The manner of heating the large furnaces is very singular; the two tilters, or persons employed for that purpose, in their shirts, run swiftly round the furnace without making the least stop: as they run along, they take two billets, or pieces of wood, which are cut for the purpose; these they throw into the first tiltart; and continuing their course, do the same for the second. This they hold without interruption for six hours successively; after which they are relieved by others, &c. It is surprising that two such small pieces of wood, and which are consumed in an instant, should keep the furnace to the proper degree of heat; which is such, that a large bar of iron, laid at one of the mouths of the furnace becomes red-hot in less than half a minute. The glass, when taken out of the melting furnace, needs nothing farther but to be ground, polished, and foliated. See SECT. XIII.

SECT. XIII. *Of the GRINDING and POLISHING of PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.*

GLASS is made transparent by fire; but it receives its lustre by the skill and labour of the grinder and polisher; the former of whom takes it rough out of the hands of the maker.

I. To grind plate glass, they lay it horizontally upon a flat stone table made of a very fine-grained free stone; and for its greater security they platter it down with lime or slucco; else the force of the workmen, or the motion of the wheel with which they grind it, would move it about.

This stone table is supported by a strong frame A, *Plate CLXVII, fig. 3,* made of wood, with a ledge quite round its edges, rising about 2 inches higher than the glass. Upon this glass to be ground is laid another rough glass not above half so big, and so loose as to slide upon it; but cemented to a wooden plank, to guard it from the injury it must otherwise receive from the scraping of the wheel to which this plank is fastened, and from the weights laid upon it to promote the grinding or triture

ture of the glasses. The whole is covered with a wheel, B, made of hard light wood, about six inches in diameter, by pulling of which backwards and forwards alternately, and sometimes turning it round, the workmen, who always stand opposite to each other, produce a constant attrition between the two glasses, and bring them to what degree of smoothness they please, by first pouring in water and coarse sand; after that, a finer sort of sand, as the work advances, till at last they pour in the powder of flint. As the upper or incumbent glass polishes and grows smoother, it is taken away, and another from time to time put in its place. This engine is called a *mill* by the artists, and is used only for the largest glasses; for in the grinding of the lesser glasses, they work without a wheel, and have only 4 wooden handles fastened to the 4 corners of the stove that holds the upper plank, by which they work it about.

II. When the grinder, (who finds it very difficult to bring the glass to an exact plainness,) has done his utmost, it is turned over to the polisher; who with the fine powder of tripoli stone, or emery, brings it to a perfect evenness and lustre. The instrument used in this branch is a board, *c c*, furnished with a felt, and a small roller, which the workman moves by means of a double handle at both ends. The artist, in working this roller, is assisted with a wooden hoop or spring to the end of which it is fixed: for the spring, by constantly bringing the roller back to the same point, facilitates the action of the workman's arm. Mr Burroughs invented a curious machine for grinding and polishing glass, of which we have already inserted a description. See BURROUGHS'S MACHINE, and Plate XLIV, fig. 8, 9, and 10.

SECT. XIV. Of the COLOURING of GLASS.

EVERY glass pot when new, and first used, leaves a foulness in the glass from its own earthy parts; so that a coloured glass made in a new pot can never be bright or perfectly fine. For this reason, the larger of these, when new, may be glazed with white glass; but the 2d time of using, the pots lose this foulness. To glaze the pots, reduce the glass to powder, and moisten the mass with water; while it is yet moist, put in some of the powdered glass, and shake it about, till the whole inner surface of the pot be covered by as much as will adhere to it, in consequence of the moisture. Throw out the redundant part of the powdered glass; and the pot being dry, set it in a furnace sufficiently hot to vitrify the glass adhering to it, and let it continue there some time; after which, care must be taken to let it cool gradually.

Pots which have served for one colour must not be used for another; as the remainder of the old matter would spoil the colour of the new. The colours must be very carefully calced to a proper degree; for if they be calcined either too much or too little, they never will work; the proper proportion, as to quantity, must also be carefully regarded, and the furnaces must be fed with dry hard wood. All the processes succeed best when the colour is added gradually; that is, a part of it in the frit, and the rest in the melted metal.

A hard glass, proper for receiving colours, may be prepared by pulverising 12 lb. of the best sand,

cleaned by washing in a glass or fine sieve, mixing 7 lb. of pearl-ashes or any salt, purified with nitre, 1 lb. of saltpetre of borax, and pounding them together less hard may be prepared of 12 lb. of cleaned, 7 lb. of pearl-ashes purified, 1 lb. of nitre, 1 lb. of borax, arsenic prepared as before.

1. AMETHYST COLOUR. See ART and § 16, below

2. BALASS COLOUR. Put into a pot thrice washed in water; tinge this with prepared into a clear purple; to this *entroum*, sifted fine, in small quantities several times: this will make the glass 1 lb. and a little reddish, but not black; waya dissipates the manganese. The 1 add manganese, give no more of the 1 unless the colour be too full. Thus, be exactly of the colour of the balass.

3. BLACK. The glass makers for 1 black, take old broken glass of different grind it to powder, and add to it, parcels, a sufficient quantity of the 1 parts zaffer and one part manganese; purified, they work it into vessels, beads are coloured with manganese.

4. BLACK VELVET COLOUR. To get and fine colour to glass, take of 1 pulverine frit, each 20 lb. of calx of 1 4 lb.; set all together in a pot in the 1 heated; when the glass is formed and steel well calcined and powdered, 1 iron, of each an equal quantity; pour them well; then put 6 oz. of this pot above described metal while in fusion whole thoroughly together, and let it strongly together; then let it stand 1 hours to purity, and after this work be a most elegant velvet black. A very velvet colour is also produced thus: T of rochetta frit; add 2 lb. of tartar, a manganese, both in fine powder; mix and put them to the metal while in fusion several times, in several parcels; let it 1 sion after this for four days, and then a glass perfectly black may also be formed, to 10 lb. of either of the compositions for above described, one ounce of zaffer, 1 manganese, and an equal quantity of iron calcined.

5. BLUE. A full blue may be made 6 drs. of zaffer and 2 drs. of manganese 1 either of the compositions for hard glass above. For a very cool or pure blue 1 ounce of calcined copper may be used 1 the manganese, and the proportion of z 1 nished by one half. Glass resembling 1 may be made with ten pounds of 1 compositions for hard glass, three drs 1 scruple of zaffer, and one dram of the 1 or precipitation of gold by tin; or least 1 latter ingredient, two drams and two 1 manganese. Or a sapphire coloured gl 1 made by mixing with any quantity of 1 glass one eighth of its weight of smalt. 1 blue glass is also produced from 1 regulus of cobalt.

ws. *Venetian Brown* with GOLD SPAN-
 lied also the *philosopher's stone*, is prepa-

Take of the 2d composition for hard
 e described, and of the composition for
 each 5 lb. and of highly calcined iron,
 them well, and fuse them till the iron
 ly vitrified, and has tinged the glass of
 niparent yellow brown colour. Powder
 and add to it 2 lb. of powdered glass of
 ; grind them together, and thus mix
 . Take part of this mixture, and rub
 or 100 leaves of the counterfeit leaf gold
ch gold; and when the parts of the gold
 ciently divided, mix the powder con-
 with the other part of the glass. Fuse
 with a moderate heat till the powder
 vitreous mass, fit to be wrought into
 or vessel; but avoid a perfect liquefac-
 at would destroy the diffusion of the
 mid vitrify, at least in part, the matter
 they are composed; converting the whole
 d of transparent olive-coloured glass.
 of glass is procured from Venice, and is
 great variety of toys and ornaments.

CERNOSY. A mixture of several ingre-
 the common matter of glass, will make
 the semi-opaque gems, the jaspers, i-
 cedonies, &c. The way of making
 what resembles the method of making
 aper, by several colours dissolved in
 rs, which are such as will not readily
 one another when put into water, be-
 re cast upon the paper which is to be

The following is reckoned the best
 Dissolve 4 oz. of fine leaf silver in a glass
 ong aquafortis; stop up the vessel, and
 .—In another vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of
 in 1 lb. of aquafortis, and let it settle.
 er glass vessel, dissolve in 1 lb. of aqua-
 of fine silver, first calcined in this man-
 gamate the silver with mercury, mix
 m with twice its weight of common
 rified; put the mixture in an open fire
 de, that the mercury may fly off, and
 be left in form of powder. Mix this
 th an equal quantity of common salt
 ed, and calcine this for six hours in a
 ; when cold, wash off the salt by re-
 lings in common water, and then put
 into the aquafortis. Set this solution
 —In another vessel, dissolve in 1 lb. of
 ; oz. of sal ammoniac; pour off the so-
 dissolve in it a quarter of an ounce of
 this also aside.—In another vessel, dis-
 of sal ammoniac in 1 lb. of aquafortis;
 to the solution cinabar, crocus martis,
 , and ferretto of Spain, of each half an
 this also aside.—In another vessel dis-
 of aquafortis 3 oz. of sal ammoniac;
 to it crocus martis made with vinegar,
 , zaffer, and cinnabar, of each half an
 each of these be powdered very fine,
 ntly into the aquafortis. Set this also
 another vessel, dissolve 3 oz. of sal am-
 lb. of aquafortis, and add to it brass
 ith brimstone, brats thrice calcined,
 and scales of iron, of each half an
 each be well powdered, and put gently
 PART II.

into the vessel. Then set this also aside.—In ano-
 ther vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of sal ammoniac in 1 lb.
 of aquafortis, and put to it verdigrise 1 oz. red
 lead, crude antimony, and the caput mortuum of
 vitriol, of each half an ounce; put these well pow-
 dered leisurely into the vessel, and set this also a-
 side.—in another vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of sal am-
 moniac in 1 lb. of aquafortis, and add orpiment,
 white arsenic, painters lake, of each half an ounce.
 Keep the above 9 vessels in a moderate heat for 15
 days, shaking them well at times. After this pour
 all the matters from these vessels into one large
 vessel, well luted at its bottom; let this stand six
 days, shaking it at times; and then set it in a very
 gentle heat, and evaporate all the liquor, and
 there will remain a powder of a purplish green.
 When this is to be wrought, put into a pot very
 clear metal, made of broken crystalline and white
 glass that has been used; for with the virgin frit,
 or such as has never been wrought, the chalcidony
 can never be made, as the colours do not stick to
 it, but are consumed by the frit. To every pot
 of 20 lb. of this metal put 2 or 3 oz. of this pow-
 der at three several times; incorporate the pow-
 der well with the glass; and let it remain an hour
 between each time of putting in the powders. Af-
 ter all are in, let it stand 24 hours; then let the
 glass be well heated, and take an assay of it, which
 will be found of a yellowish blue; return this many
 times into the furnace; when it begins to grow
 cold, it will show many waves of different colours
 very beautifully. Then take tartar 8 oz. foot of
 the chuncy 2 oz. crocus martis made with brim-
 stone, half an ounce; let these be well powdered
 and mixed, and put them by degrees into the glass
 at six times, waiting a little while between each
 putting in. When the whole is put in, let the
 glass not be settled for 24 hours; then make a
 little plate body of it; which put in the furnace
 many times, and see if the glass be enough, and
 whether it have on the outside veins of blue, green,
 red, yellow, and other colours, and have beside
 these veins, waves like those of the chalcidonyes,
 jaspers, and oriental agates, and if the body kept
 within looks as red as fire. When it answers
 thus, it is perfect, and may be worked into toys
 and vessel, which will always be beautifully varie-
 gated: these must be well annealed, which adds
 much to the beauty of their veins. Pieces of this
 polished by the lapidary appear like natural stones,
 and are very beautiful. If in the working the
 matter grow transparent, the work must be stop-
 ped, and more tartar, iron, and crocus martis
 must be put to it, which will give it a necessary
 body and opacity, without which it does
 not show the colours well.

8. **CARYOPHILIC CORNELIUM GLASS** may be made
 of 1 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass
 described above, and six drams of calcined iron.

9. **CORNELIUM GLASS.** The red cornelian colour
 may be formed by adding 1 lb. of glass of anti-
 mony, 2 oz. of the calcined vitriol called *fiavet*
color, and one dram of gang melle or magnesia,
 to 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard
 glass. The glass of antimony and magnesia are
 first mixed with the other glass, and then pow-
 dered and ground with the scarlet colour: the whole
 mixture is afterwards fused with a gentle heat and

all the ingredients are incorporated. A glass resembling the **WHITE** cornelian may be made of 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass, 2 drams of yellow ochre well washed, and 1 oz. of calcined bones: grind them together, and fuse them with a gentle heat.

10. **EMERALD.** See § 13.

11. **GARNET.** To give this colour to glass, take equal quantities of crystal and rochetta frit, and, to every hundred weight of this mixture, add 1 lb. of manganese and 1 oz. of prepared zaffer: powder these separately; then mix and add by degrees to the frit while in the furnace. Great care is to be taken to mix the manganese and zaffer very perfectly; and when the matter has stood 24 hours in fusion, it may be worked. Glass of this kind may be made by adding 1 lb. of glass of antimony, one dram of manganese, and the same quantity of the precipitate of gold by tin, to 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass; or the precipitate of gold may be omitted, if the quantities of the glass of antimony and manganese be doubled.

12. **GOLD COLOUR.** Take 10 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass, omitting the saltpetre; and for every pound add 1 oz. of calcined borax; or, if this quantity does not render the glass sufficiently fusible, 2 oz.; 10 oz. of red tartar of the deepest colour; 2 oz. of magnesia; and two drams of charcoal of fallow, or any other soft kind. Precipitates of silver baked on glass will stain it yellow, and likewise give a yellow colour on being mixed and melted with 40 or 50 times their weight of vitreous compositions; the precipitate from aquafortis by fixed alkali seems to answer best. Yellow glasses may also be obtained with certain preparations of iron, particularly with Prussian blue. But Dr Lewis observes, that the colour does not constantly succeed, nor approach to the high colour of gold, with silver or with iron. The nearest imitations of gold which he was able to produce were effected with antimony and lead. Equal parts of the glass of antimony, of pure calcined and powdered, and of minium, formed a glass of a high yellow. With two parts of glass of antimony, 2 of minium, and 3 of powdered Put, the colour approached still more to that of gold. The best composition exhibited a multitude of small sparkling interspersed throughout the whole substance, which gave it a beautiful appearance in the mass, but were really imperfect, owing to the air bubbles. Nor did red tartar and lead colour, one part of red tartar and one part of magnesia, to be mixed with 100 parts of glass. But Kemmel says, that six parts of tartar are very sufficient, unless the tartar be of a dark colour, almost blackish; and that he found it convenient to add to the tartar about 1/2 of its volume of powdered charcoal. He adds, that the glass will keep very much in melting, and that it must be kept unblown, and worked as it stands in the furnace. Mr Samuel More, in repeating and varying the experiments to render the gold colour permanent, found that the manganese is not necessary, and that the tartar is useful only in the case of a very dark tartar, when it is put in at the last. He says, the fusible part of the tartar is the best, and experiments to be the dis-

rect-tinging substance. Mr Pott of common coals give a yellow colour to different coaly matters differ in their effects; that caput mortuum of foot and answer better than common charcoal. The sparkling coal, which remains in after the rectification of the thick animal oils, is one of the most active preparations. This preparation, he says, and then burnt again a little in a close vessel, is excellent for tinging glass, and gives yellowish, or blackish colours, according to the quantity; but the frit must not be very hard for in this case the strong fire will de-colouring substance before the glass melts. The following compositions to be used viz. sand two parts, alkali 3 parts; or alkali 2 or 3, calcined borax one; saltpetre is hardly used at all, or very little for yellow glasses, as it too much weakens the colouring substance, yet here for the certain proportion of it, easily determined is very necessary; for without it the colouring matter is apt to make the glass and even of an opaque pitchy blackish not certainly appear, that there is any verity in the effects of different colouring matter being probably owing to the different quantities of the inflammable matter which it contains; so that a little more may be needed than of another for producing the same degree of colour in the glass. Gold-colour may be diffused through the substance by mixing the yellow talcs with powders bringing the mixture into fusion.

13. **GREEN, or EMERALD COLOUR.** Parted to glass by adding 3 oz. of precipitated from aquafortis, and two drams of tated iron, to 9 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass. The finest method of giving a beautiful colour to glass is this: Dissolve crystalline metal, that has been purified, through water, and the same quantity of the common white metal or powder of common pulverine frit, and 3 lb. of red lead well with the frit, and put into a pot in a furnace. In a few hours the mass will be well purified; then cast into water, and separate and take off the metal into the pot. Then find a day longer in fusion; then pour off the residuum of the vitriol of iron, and a very little crocus martis; there will be a most lively and elegant green, less than that of the oriental emerald. There are several ways of giving a green to glass, but all inferior to this: To make a **SEA GREEN** crystalline glass only must be used, and gentle heat must be added at first to the crystal frit must be melted thus: Take 10 lb. of salt, which swims like oil on its top, taken off with an iron ladle very exactly to a pot of 20 lb. of this metal, or 1 lb. of calcined lark, and 1 part of the powdered zaffer; this powder must be added and put into the glass at three times: first the metal well at first, and then gradually mixed in the pot. After it has been

take out a little for a proof: if it be
ld more of the powder. In 24 hours
the powder, the whole will be ready
t must be well stirred from the bot-
: colour should be deepest there, and
the top less coloured, or even quite
Some use for this purpose half cry tal
rochetta frit, but the colour is finest
frit is used alone.

IR COLOUR. See § 7.

COLOUR. M. Magellan says, that
: of opals are easily imitable by art ;
: of glass being made which show very
ours by reflection and by refraction.
One is preserved in the abbey of St
Paris, which is green on the outside,
fine ruby colour when held between
he light. See OPAL. M. Magellan dis-
t the red glass of Kunckel, when over-
urnt in a common fire, produces a
transmitting one colour by reflection
by refraction.

LE of a deep and bright colour may
by adding to 10 lb. of either of the
; for hard glass, six drams of zaffer
m of gold precipitated by tin; or 1
anese and $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. of zaffer. The co-
RHYST may be imitated in this way.

A blood-red glass may be made in
; manner: Put 6 lb. of glass of lead,
common glass, into a pot glazed with

When the whole is boiled and re-
by small quantities, at short distances
per calcined to a redness as much as
proofs is found sufficient; then add
ver by small quantities at a time, till
become as red as blood; and conti-
one or other of the ingredients till the
ite perfect.

. To give the true fine red of the ruby,
ansparence, to glass: Calcine in earth-
ld dissolved in aqua regia; the men-
g evaporated by distillation, more
dded, and the abstraction repeated 3
till it becomes a red powder. This
quires many days in a hot furnace.
powder is of a proper colour, take it
then it is to be used, melt the finest
and purify it by often casting it into
then add, by small quantities, enough
owder to give it the true colour of a
an elegant and perfect transparence.
of tinging glass and enamels by prepa-
ld was first attempted about the be-
e 17th century. Libavius, in one of
tled *Alchymia*, printed in 1606, con-
the colour of the ruby proceeds from
at gold dissolved and brought to red-
: made to communicate a like colour
gems and glass. On this principle
Art of Glass, dated in 1611, gave the
: cited. Glauber, in 1648, publi-
l of producing a red colour by gold,
which is of the vitreous kind, though
glass. For this purpose he ground
it or sand with 4 times its weight of
salt: this mixture melts in a mode-
fire, and when cold looks like glass,

but exposed to the air run to a liquid state. On
adding this liquor to solution of gold in aqua-regia,
the gold and flint precipitate together in form of
a yellow powder, which by calcination becomes
purple. By mixing this powder with 3 or 4 times
its weight of the alkaline solution of flint, drying
the mixture, and melting it in a strong fire for an
hour, a mass is obtained of a transparent ruby
colour, and of a vitreous appearance; which ne-
vertheless is soluble in water, or by the moisture
of the air, on account of the redundancy of the
salt. Mr BOYLE, in a work published in 1680,
mentions an experiment in which a like colour
was introduced into glass without fusion; for ha-
ving kept a mixture of gold and mercury in diges-
tion for some months, the fire was at last im-
moderately increased, so that the glass burst with a
violent explosion; and the lower part of the glass
was found tinged throughout of a transparent red
colour, hardly to be equalled by that of rubies.
About the same time Cassius is said to have dis-
covered the precipitation of gold by tin, and that
glass might be tinged of a ruby colour by melting
it with this precipitate; though Dr Lewis doubts
if he was the discoverer of either. He describes
the preparation of the precipitate and its use; but
gives no account of the manner of employing it,
only he says that one dram of gold duly prepared
will tinge 10 lb. of glass. This process was soon
after brought to perfection by KUNCKEL; who
says, that one part of the precipitate is sufficient
to give a ruby colour to 1280 parts of glass, and
a sensible redness to upwards of 1900 parts; but
that the success is by no means constant. Kun-
kel also mentions a purple gold powder, resembling
that of Neri, which he obtained by inspissating
solution of gold to dryness; abstracting from it
fresh aqua-regia 3 or 4 times, till the matter ap-
pears like oil; then precipitating with strong alka-
line ley, and washing the precipitate with water.
By dissolving this powder in spirit of salt, and
precipitating again, it becomes extremely fair;
and in this state he directs it to be mixed with 2
due proportion of Venice glass. ORSCHAL, in a
treatise intitled *Sol sine Vessa*, gives the following
process for producing a very fine ruby. He di-
rects the purple precipitate made by tin to be
ground with six times its quantity of Venice glass
into a very fine powder, and this compound to
be very carefully mingled with the frit or vitreous
composition to be tinged. His frit consists of
equal parts of borax, nitre, and fixed alkaline salt,
and 4 times as much calcined flint as of each of
the salts; but he gives no directions as to the pro-
portion of the gold precipitate or mode of fusion.
Hellet describes a preparation, which, mixed with
Venice glass, gives a beautiful purple enamel.
This preparation consists of equal parts of solution
of gold and of solution of zinc in aqua-regia mixed
together, with the addition of a volatile salt prepar-
ed from sal ammoniac by quicklime, in sufficient
quantity to precipitate the 2 metals. The precipi-
tate is then gradually heated till it acquires a violet
colour. However, though a purple or red colour,
approaching to that of ruby, may, by these me-
thods, be baked on glass or enamels, and intro-
duced into the mass by fusion, the way of equally
diffusing such a colour through a quantity of fluid

glass is still, says Dr Lewis, a secret. The following process for making the ruby glass was communicated to Dr Lewis by an artist, who ascribed it to K mekel. The gold is dissolved in a mixture of one part of spirit of salt and 3 of aquafortis, and the tin in a mixture of one part of the former with two of the latter. The solution of gold being properly diluted with water, the solution of tin is added, and the mixture left to stand till the purple matter has settled to the bottom. The colourless liquor is then poured off, and the purple sediment, while moist and not very thick, is thoroughly mixed with powdered flint or sand. This mixture is well ground with powdered nitre, tartar, borax, and arsenic, and the compound melted with a suitable fire. The proportions of the ingredients are 2560 parts of sand, 284 of nitre, 140 of tartar, 140 of borax, 28 of arsenic, 5 of tin, and 5 of gold.

19. SEA GREEN. See § 13, and GLASS, § 21.

20. TOPAZ. Glass resembling this stone may be made by pulverizing 10 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass with an equal quantity of the gold-coloured glass, and fusing them together. Or take crystal frit 15 lb. calceinal lead 12 lb. mix them well together, by sitting the pow-

ders through a fine sieve; then set the mixture not too hot, and separate the unmixed lead, by casting the whole; repeat this twice, then add half gold, and let them incorporate and purify will be at the true and exact colour of tal topazes.

21. WHITE CRACK and SEMI-TRANSPARENT glass may be made of 10 lb. of either composition for hard glass and 1 lb. of horn, ivory, or bone; or an opake may be given to glass by adding one very white arsenic to ten pounds of glass. Let them be well powdered and mixing them together, and then fused with a moderate heat till they are thoroughly mixed. A glass of this kind is made in large quantities at a manufacture near London; and is used for different kinds of vessels, but as it is not for enamel in dial plates and brass boxes, not require finishing with much fire, but comes very white and subtile with a moderate heat.

22. YELLOW. See § 12.

For farther particulars respecting GLASS, and other counterfeit GLASS, see article PASTES.

G L A

* GLASSMAN. *n. f.* [*glass* and *man*] One who sells glass.—The profit of glassmen consists only in a small present made by the *glassman*. *Swiss.*

* GLASSMETAL. *n. f.* [*glass* and *metal*] Glass infusion. — Let proof be made of the incorporating of copper or brass with *glassmetal*. *Bacon's Phys.*

GLASSNEVIN, a pleasant village of Ireland, seated on a rising ground, 2 miles from Dublin.

GLASS POT. See GLASS-MAKING, SECT. V.

GLASTENBURG, a town of Connecticut, 17 miles NNW. of Wyndham.

* GLASSWORK. *n. f.* [*glass* and *work*] Manufacture of glass.—The crystalline Venice glass is a mixture, in equal proportions, of stones brought from Pavia, and the ashes of a weed called kali, gathered in a desert between Alexandria and Rosetta; by the Egyptians used first for fuel, and then they crushed the ashes into lumps like a stone, and sell them to the Venetians for their *glassworks*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

(1.) * GLASSWORT. *n. f.* [*saucomnia*, or saltwort]—It hath an apetalous flower, wanting the empalement; for the stamina, or chives, and the embryos, grow on the extreme part of the leaves; these embryos afterwards become pods or bladders, which, for the most part, contain one seed. The inhabitants near the sea-coast cut the plants up toward the latter end of summer; and, having dried them in the sun, they burn them for their ashes, which are used in making of glass and soap. These herbs are by the country people called kelp. From the ashes of these plants is extracted the salt called *sals kali*, or *sals kali*, by the chymists. *Bill.*—For the true glass we use the purest of the finest sand, and the ashes of kali or *glasswort*; and for the coarser or green sort, the ashes of brake or other plants. *Bacon's Vulg. Err.*

G L A

(2.) GLASSWORT, in botany. See

* GLASSY. *adj.* from *glass*.] 1. M vitreous.—In the valley near mount Cdea there is a sand, which, of all most affinity with glass; it is much the more, had in it turn to a glassy substance. 2. Resembling glass, as in smoothness or brittleness.—

Man! proud man!

Drest in a little brief authority,
Most ignorant of what he's most of
His glassy essence, like an angry ape
Plays such fantastic tricks before
As makes the angels weep. *Shak. Al.*

There is a willow grows aslant a
That shows his hoar leaves in the

—The magnet attracteth the shining
Or der brought from the Indies, usual
in writing dust. *Brown.*

Whose womb produc'd the glass
Bred

The hoary frosts that fall on Wint

The glassy deep.

(1.) GLASTONBURY, a town of Somersetshire, anciently called *Avalonia*. It is noted for a famous magnificent ruins of which still remains the church, called *the Abbey's church*, entire, and is of a very unusual construction, and was the gift of the king of the West Saxons, erected a church 703, which he and his successors came that the abbey had the title of *lord*, or the barons in parliament; and not for prince durst set foot on the ilk

the abbey stands, without his leave. The revenue was about 40,000*l.* a-year, besides stocked with deer. In 853, it was ruined by Danes, but rebuilt by K. Edmund I. In 12th town and abbey were burnt, and in 1257 destroyed by an earthquake. Richard Wisliff, last abbot, who had 100 monks and 400 *cells*, was hanged on Torhill, in his pontificals, for refusing to take the oath of fealty to Henry VIII. Edgar and many other kings were buried here; as well as Arthur, British king. See ARTHUR, N^o 1, § 3. The abbey has part of a pillar, a door, or a window in its fabric; of which there still remain the choir, the middle tower and chapels. The ruins of the abbey are overgrown with ivy, and renders its aspect both melancholy and venerable. Here are two parish churches. This town, under its abbots, was a parliamentary borough, but it lost that and its privilege of a corporate latter of which, however, was restored in 1791, when it granted it a new charter for a new borough. The only manufacture is cloth, but the chief support of the place is the strangers to see the ruins of the abbey. George Inn here was formerly called the *Abbey Inn*; because it was a receptacle for the pilgrims who visited the abbey. At a little distance from the church and facing the monk's church, are remarkable pyramids, with inscriptions in letters unintelligible, and an image in bishop's robes. Clattonbury is 3 miles SSW. of Wells, W. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 51.

GLASTONBURY, a town of Connecticut, Oxford county, on the E. side of the Connecticut river.

GLASTONBURY, a township of Vermont, Franklin county.

GLASTONBURY THORN. *n. f.* A species of thorn produces some flowers in Winter, and flowers again in Spring. *Miller.*

GLASTONBURY THORN. See CRATÆGUS,

GLASS. See GLASS, N^o IV, § 2.

GLATT, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Danube, 2 miles N. of Sultz.

GLATZ, a county of Bohemia, or according to Mr Cruttwell, of Silesia, on the border of Bohemia, surrounded by mountains. It is bounded to the K. of Prussia by the Q. of Hungary. It is about 45 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. It has mines of coal, silver, iron; stone and marble quarries, plenty of good fine springs of mineral water. Jaspazes, &c. are found in it.

GLATZ, the capital of the above county, is seated on the Neisse, and has strong fortifications, with a castle built upon a mountain 25 miles W. of Neisse, and 88 E. of it. Lon. 16. 50. E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

GLATZ, KOEHL, a mountain of Austria, S. of Steyr.

GLAUBER, John Rodolphus, a celebrated chemist, who flourished about 1646. He wrote a great number of treatises on chemistry, which have been translated into French.

All his works have been collected into one volume, intitled, *Glauberus concentratus*, which has been translated into English, and was printed at London in folio, in 1689.

(2—4.) GLAUBER, John, John-Gottlieb, and Diana, two brothers and a sister, all celebrated Dutch painters, born at Utrecht in 1646, 56, and 50. The brothers excelled in landscapes; the sister in portraits and history. John died in 1726; John-Gottlieb in 1703.

(5.) GLAUBER'S SALTS. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.* GLAUCE. See CREON, N^o 1. and CREUSA, N^o 2.

GLAUCHA, or } a town of Upper Saxony, in
GLAUCHAU, } Schonburg, on the Mulda, containing 600 houses, 6 miles N. of Zuickaw, and 45 W. of Dresden.

GLAUCHE, a town of Lower Saxony, in Magdeburgh, adjoining to the Halle, but governed by its own magistrates. It has 4 schools, and 120 teachers.

(1.) * GLAUCOMA. *n. f.* [*γλαυκωμα*; *gl income*, French.] A fault in the eye, which changes the crystalline humour into a greyish colour, without detriment of light, and therein differs from what is commonly understood by suffusion. *Quincy.*—The *glaucoma* is no other disease than the cataract. *Sharp.*

(2.) GLAUCOMA, [from *γλαυκος*, sea-green, or sky colour,] is a disease in the eyes, wherein the crystalline humour is turned of a *bluish* or *greenish* colour, and its transparency hereby diminished. To those in whom this disorder is forming, all objects appear as through a cloud or mist; when entirely formed, the visual rays are all intercepted and nothing is seen at all. It is incurable, when inveterate, and in aged persons; and is always very difficult of cure, externals proving of little service. The internals best suited to it, are those used in the gutta serena. See *Jul. Cesar Claudinus*, Consul. 94. The glaucoma is usually distinguished from the cataract or suffusion, in this, that in the cataract the whiteness appears in the pupil, very near the cornea; but it shows deeper in the glaucoma. Some late French authors, however, maintain the cataract and glaucoma to be the same disease. According to them, the cataract is not a film, or pellicle, formed before the pupil, as had always been imagined; but an inspissation or induration of the humour itself, whereby its transparency is prevented; which brings the cataract to the glaucoma. According to Mr Sharp, the glaucoma of the ancient Greeks is the present cataract; but M. St Yves says, it is a cataract accompanied with a gutta serena. See SURGERY.

GLAUCUS, in ancient mythology, a deity of the sea, who, before his deification, was a fisherman of Anthedon. Having one day taken a considerable number of fishes, which he laid upon the bank, he perceived that as soon as they touched an herb that grew on the shore, they received new strength, and leaped again into the sea; upon which he was tempted to taste of the herb himself, and instantly leaped into the sea after them, where he was metamorphosed into a Triton, and became one of the sea gods.

* GLAIVE. *n. f.* [*glaiue*, French; *glais*, a hook, Welsh.] A broad sword; a falchion.—

Two hundred Greeks came next in fight well try'd,

Not surely arm'd in steel or iron strong,
But each a *glawe* hath pendant by his side. *Fairf.*

When zeal, with aged clubs and *glaves*,
Gave chase to rockets and white staves. *Hud.*

* To GLAVER. *v. n.* [*glawe*, Welsh, flattery; *glisan*, Saxon, to flatter. It is still retained in Scotland.] To flatter; to wheedle. A low word.—Kingdoms have their distempers, intermissions, and paroxysms, as well as natural bodies; and a *glavering* council is as dangerous as a wheedling priest or a flattering physician. *L'Etrange*.

GLAUX, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycanthaceae*. The calyx is monophyllous; there is no corolla: the capsule is unilocular, quinquevalved, and pentaspermous.

GLAYSLEY, a small town in Shropshire.

* To GLAZE. *v. a.* [*To glaz*, only accidentally varied.] 1. To furnish with windows of glass.—Let there be two delicate cabinets daintily paved, richly hanged, and *glazed* with crystalline glass. *Bacon's Essays*. 2. To cover with glass, as potters do their earthen ware; [from the French *glasse*, *argilla*.] 3. To overlay with something shining and pellucid.—

Sorrow's eye, *glaz'd* with brining tears,
Divides one thing entire to many objects.

Shak. Rich. II.

—The reason of one man operates on that of another in all true oratory; wherein though with other ornaments he may *glaze* and brandish the weapons, yet it is found reason that carries the stroke home. *Grew's Cosm. Sac.*—White, with other strong colours, with which we paint that which we intend to *glaze*, are the life, the spirit, and the lustre of it. *Dryden's Duff*.

GLAZERT, a small river of Scotland, in Stirlingshire, formed by the union of 3 rivulets below the church of Campsie. After running with a great rapidity 4 miles, it falls into the Kelvin, opposite Kirkintilloch.

* GLAZIER. *n. f.* [corrupted from *glazier*, or *glazier*, of *glaz*.] One whose trade is to make glass windows. Other manufactures of glass are otherwise named.—Into rabbits the several panes of glasswork are set, and fastened by the *glazier*. *Moran*.—

The dext'rous *glazier* strong returns the bound,

And gingham sashes on the penthouse found.

Gay's Trivia.

And then, without the aid of neighbour's art,
Perform'd the carpenter's and *glazier's* part.

Harte.

(I.) GLAZING, *n. f.* the crusting over earthen ware by a vitreous substance, the basis of which is lead. See GLASS, N° IV, § 21.

(II.) GLAZING, ANCIENT METHOD OF. The Romans had a method of glazing their earthen vessels, which in many respects appears to have been superior to ours. The common brown glazing easily scales off, cracks, and in a short time becomes disagreeable to the eye. Besides, it is very easily destroyed by acids; nor can vessels glazed in this manner be even employed to hold wa-

ter, without part of it oozing through. Lead is also destructive to the human body, if acids are unwarily put into vessels of lead, the liquors will receive a very impregnation from the metal. The *glazing*, which is yet to be seen upon many in several places, appears to have been some kind of varnish; and Pliny gives that it was made of bitumen. He tells that it never lost its beauty, and that at length customary to glaze statues in this manner, this varnish sunk deep into the surface of the ware, it was not subject to those cracks which disfigure our vessels; and as it is able to be corroded by acids, it could not be subject to any of the accidents which may attend the use of vessels glazed with lead.

(III.) GLAZING, MODERN METHOD. The workers of common earthen ware, however not at the trouble of thus previously pure glass of lead. Their usual composition for glazing their ware is formed of white sand 20 lb. of red lead 20 lb. of pearl-ashes 20 lb. of common salt 12 lb. Powder the sand by itself, then add it to the other ingredients, mix them together: after which calcine them some time with a moderate heat, and when it is cold, pound it to powder. When used, temper it with water. The proportion of these ingredients may be occasionally varied, after being turned on the wheel, in the open air, is covered over with the composition by a brush; and when set to dry, the violent heat soon reduces it to a glass, covering the whole internal and surface of the vessel. Lead, however, is excluded from the composition of some, and other fluxes substituted in its stead. A different glazing may be prepared without lessening 40 lb. of white sand, 25 lb. of pearl-ashes, and 25 lb. of common salt; and procured before: and a more perfect transparent glazing may be made of sand 40 lb. of wood-ashes 50 lb. of pearl-ashes 20 lb. of common salt 12 lb. The following recipe is mostly from Kunkel, who says, they are glazings used at Delft, and the other Dutch factories.

1. GLAZING, BLACK. Take 8 parts lead, iron filings 3, copper ashes 3, a two measures. This when melted will be brown black; and if wanted blacker, add saffron to it.

2. GLAZING, BLUE. Take lead-ash 1 lb. clear sand or powdered flints, 1 lb. common salt 2 lb. white calcined tartar 1 lb. or other glass 1 lb. saffron 1 lb.; mix all and melt them several times, quenching in cold water. To have it fine, put the mixture into a glass-furnace for two days. Another blue glazing may be formed of 1 lb. of tartar, 1 lb. of red-lead, 1 lb. of powdered flints, fused or melted above. Or take 2 lb. of calcined lead, add 5 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. of powder of saffron, tartar, and Venetian glass 1 lb. Calcine and fuse the mixture as before, take of red lead one part, of sand 3 part

1. For a *violet blue* glazing, take 4 oz. 2 oz. of red lead, 5. oz. of powdered 1 half a dram of manganese.

GLAZING, BROWN. Take red lead and each 14 parts, and of manganese two d; or, of red lead 12 parts, and manganese part fused. A brown glazing, to be laid e ground, may be made of manganese, and of red lead and white glass, of each twice fused.

GLAZING, FLESH-COLOURED. Take 12 lead ashes, and one of white glass.

GLAZING, GOLD-COLOURED. Take of litharge, of sand or calcined flint one part; mix these very well together, then run a yellow glass with a strong fire. Pound, and grind it into a subtile powder, disten with a well saturated solution of alkali into a paste, which put into a crucible cover it with a cover. Give at first a degree of fire; then increase it, and continue you have a glass, which will be green. is glass again, and grind it to a fine powder. Then this powder with beer, so that it applied by a hair pencil upon the vessels ware. These vessels when covered with glazing must be first well heated, then put to ruffle; and, as soon as the glass runs, by holding them over burning vegetation take out the vessels. *Phil. Trans.* N°

Kunckel gives several preparations for coloured yellow glazing. This may be done by fusing a mixture of 3 parts of red antimony, and one of saffron of Mars; melting the powdered mass, and repeating the operation 4 times, or by fusing 4 or 5 composition of red lead and antimony of ounce, and of scales of iron half an ounce; mixing and fusing together 8 parts of red 6 parts of flints, one part of yellow ochre, of antimony, and one part of glass. A gold-coloured glazing may be obtained by fusing red lead and white flints, of 12 parts, and of filings of iron one part.

GLAZING, GREEN. Take 8 parts of litharge d, 8 of Venice glass, 4 of brass dust or copper; or 10 parts of litharge, 12 of pebble, and one of *as usum* or copper. A fine green glazing may be produced by hemian granite, filings of copper, red Venetian glass, in equal proportions; or white glass, red lead, and filings of copper part each; powdering the mass, and adding part of Bohemian granite to two parts of glass. A fine green may also be obtained, by grinding together any of the yellow with equal quantities of the blue glazings; the shades and tints of green will be had by the proportions of the one to the other, the choice of the kind of yellow and blue. GREEN, take 5 lb. of lead ashes, 1 lb. of 3 lb. of flint, $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of salt, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of tartar 1 lb. of copper dust.

GLAZING, IRON-COLOURED. Take 15 parts of lead or red lead, 14 of white sand or flints, calcined copper. Calcine and fuse this

GLAZING, LIVER-COLOURED. Take 12

parts of litharge, 8 of salt, 6 of flint, and one of manganese.

9. GLAZING, PURPLE BROWN. Take lead ashes 15 parts, clean sand or powdered flints 18 parts, manganese one part, and white glass 15; to which some add one of saffer.

10. GLAZING, RED. Take antimony 3 lb. litharge or red lead 3, and rust of iron one; grind them to a fine powder. Or, take 2 lb. of antimony, 3 of red lead, and one of calcined saffron of Mars; and proceed as before.

11. GLAZING, SEA GREEN. See § 6.

12. GLAZING, WHITE. For common ware, take 40 lb. of clear sand, 75 lb. of litharge or lead ashes, 26 of pot-ashes, and 10 of salt: Melt these three times into a cake, quenching it each time in clear cold water. Or, take 50 lb. of clean sand, 70 of lead ashes, 30 of wood ashes, and 12 of salt. For a *fine white*: Take 2 lb. of lead and one of tin; calcine them to ashes: of this take two parts, calcined flint, white sand, or broken white glass, one part, and salt one part; mix them well together and melt them into a cake for use. The trouble of calcining the tin and lead may be prevented by procuring them in a proper state. A *very fine white* glazing may be obtained by calcining two parts of lead and one part of tin; and taking one part of this mass, and of flints and common salt of each one part, and fusing the mixture. A white glazing may be also prepared by mixing 100 lb. of masticot, 60 of red lead, 20 of calcined tin or putty, and 10 of common salt; calcining and powdering the mixture several times.

13. GLAZING, YELLOW. Take red lead 3 lb. calcined antimony and tin of each 2 lb.; or, according to some, equal quantities of the three ingredients. These must be melted into a cake, then ground fine; and this operation repeated several times. Or, take 15 parts of lead ore, 5 of litharge of silver, and 15 of sand. A *fine yellow* glazing may be procured by mixing 5 parts of red lead, 2 of powdered brick, 1 of sand, 1 of white glazing, and 2 of antimony; calcining the mixture and then fusing it. Or, take 4 parts of white glass, one of antimony, 3 of red lead, and one of iron scales, and fuse the mixture; or fuse 16 parts of flint, one of iron filings, and 24 of litharge. A *light yellow* glazing may be produced with 10 parts of red lead, 3 of antimony, 3 of glass, and 2 of calcined tin. (See § 5.) A *citron yellow* is made of 6 parts of red lead, 7 of fine red brick dust, and two of antimony. This mixture must be calcined day and night for four days, in the ash hole of a glass-house furnace, and at last fused.

(IV.) GLAZING OF DELFT WARE, PORCELAIN, STONE WARE, &c. See DELFT, N° 3. PORCELAIN, and POTTERY.

GLAZOV, a town of Russia, in Viatka, on the Tchevtz, 56 miles ESE. of Viatka.

GLEAD, or GLADE. See GLEDE.

* GLEAM. *n. s.* [*gelima*, Saxon.] Sudden shoot of light; lustre; brightness.—

Then was the fair Dodonian tree far seen
Upon seven hills to spread his gladsome gleam;
And conquerors bedecked with his green,
Along the banks of the Ausonian stream. *Spens.*

At

At last a gleam
Of dawning light turn'd thitherward in haste
His travell'd steps. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

As I bent down to look just opposite,
A shape within the wat'ry gleam appear'd,
Bending to look on me. *Milton's Par. Lost.*
Mine is a gleam of bliss, too hot to last;
Wat'ry it shines, and will be soon o'ercast.

Dryd. Aurengzebe.

We ken them from afar; the setting sun
Plays on their shining arms and burnish'd hel-
mets,

And covers all the field with gleams of fire.

Addison's Cato.

In the clear azure gleam the flocks are seen,
And floating forests paint the waves with green.

Pope.

Nought was seen, and nought was heard,

But dreadful gleams,

Fires that glow.

Pope's St Cecilia.

(1.) * To GLEAM. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To
shine with sudden conflagration—

Observant of approaching day,

The meek-eyed morn appears, mother of dews,
At first faint gleaming in the dappled East.

Thomson's Summer.

2. To shine.—

On each hand the gushing waters play,
And down the rough cascade white dashing fall,
Or gleam in lengthen'd vistas through the trees.

Thomson.

(2.) * To GLEAM. Among falconers a hawk is
said to gleam, when she casts or throws up filth
from the gorge.

* GLEAMY. *adj.* [from *gleam*.] Flushing; dart-
ing sudden conflagrations of light.—

In brazen arms, that cast a gleamy ray,
Swift through the town the warrior bends his
way. *Pope.*

* GLEAN. *v. f.* [from the verb.] Collection
made laboriously by slow degrees.—

Plains, meads, and orchards all the day he
plies;

The gleams of yellow theme descend his thighs:
He spoils the saffron. *Dryden's Virgil.*

* To GLEAN. *v. a.* [*gleaner*, French, as *Skin-
ner* thinks, from *granum*, Lat.] 1. To gather
what the gatherers of the harvest leave behind.
—She came and gleaned in the field after the reap-
ers. *Ruth. ii.*

He reap'd the field, and they but only glean'd.
Dryden.

—The precept of not gathering their land glean,
but that something should be left to the poor to
glean, was a secondary offering to God himself.
—*Nelson.*

She went, by hard necessity compell'd,
To glean Palemon's fields. *Thomson's Autumn.*

2. To gather any thing totally scattered.—

Gather

So much as from occasions you may glean,
If aught, to us unknown, afflicts, in thus.

Shakl. Hamlet.

That you will
Of gleanings all the lord's wealth receive,
Into your own hands, cardinal, by exaction.

Shakl. H. VIII.

—They gleaned of them in the highways,
sand men. *Judges xx. 45.*

But Argive chiefs, and Agamemnon
When his resplendent arms flash'd th'
shady plain,

Fled from his well-known face with
As when his thund'ring sword and
Drove headlong to their ships, and
routed rear. *Dryden.*

—In the knowledge of bodies we must
to glean what we can from particular
since we cannot, from a discovery of
essences, grasp at a time whole
bundles comprehend the nature and
whole species together. *Locke.*

* GLEANER. *n. f.* [from *glean*.]
who gathers after the reapers.—

For still the world prevail'd, and
laugh,

Which scarce the firm philosopher
Should his heart own a gleaner in the

2. One who gathers any thing slowly
ously.—An ordinary coffee-house glean-
city is an arrant statesman. *Locke.*

(1.) * GLEANING. *n. f.* [from *glean*.]
act of gleanings, or thing gleaned.—
as the shaking of an olive tree, and as
of grapes when the vintage is done. *Job.*
—The orphan and widow are near
same common family, and have a right
ported out of the incomes of it, as the
had to gather the gleanings of the rich
vest. *Atterbury.*

(2.) GLEANING. By the custom
countries, particularly those of *Madu-
tampes*, in France, before the revolution,
and others were forbid, either by the
servants, to put any cattle into the field
vent gleanings in any manner whatever
hours after carrying off the corn, and
of confiscation.

(1.) * GLEBE. *n. f.* [*gleba*, Latin.]
soil; ground.—

Thus, like the happy plots, delight
bowers;

The grassy garlands loves, and oft at
flowers

Of rank and mellow glebe.
Fertile of corn the glebe, of oil and
With herds the pastures throng'd, with
hills.

Mark well the flow'ring almonds in
If od'rous blossoms the bearing branch
The glebe will answer to the sylvan re
Great heats will follow, and large crop

Sleeping vegetables lie,
'Till the glad summons of a genial ra
Unbinds the glebe, and calls them out

2. The land possessed as a part of the
an ecclesiastical benefice.—The ordin-
or revenue of a parsonage is of three
one in land, commonly called the *glebe*
in tythe, which is a set part of our goo-
ed to God; the third, in other offerin

God and his church by the people.

—A trespass done on a parson's *glebe* is a freehold, cannot be tried in a court. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.—

Many parishes have not an inch of *glebe*. *Swift*.

—*GLEBE*, among miners, signifies a piece of which is contained some mineral ore.

BOUS. *adj.* [from *glebe*.] Turfy. *Dist.*

OW, a town of Courland, 18 miles S. E.

EBY. *adj.* [from *glebe*.] Turfy; perhaps signifying passage fat or fruitful, if it has no meaning.—

icious flatt'ry! thy malignant seeds

in hour and by a fatal hand

diffus'd o'er virtue's *glebe* land,

rising pride amidst the corn appear,

tooke the hopes and harvest of the year.

Prior.

HOMA, *GROUND IVY*; a genus of the *ermia* order, belonging to the *didynamia* plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 44th order, *Verticillatæ*. Each pair of *stamens* come together in the form of a *calyx* is quinquefid. There are 3 species, the most remarkable of which is the

HOMA HEDERACEA, the common ground ivy; virtues were formerly attributed to it, which it is now found not to be possessive of, however, it has. The leaves are like the *vat* with ale to clarify it and give it a clear. Ale thus prepared is often drank as a *stomachic*. The expressed juice mixed with wine, and applied morning and evening, cures the white specks upon horses' eyes. The ivy grows near it do not flourish. It is very hurtful to horses if they eat much of it. If it is eaten, horses are not fond of it; cows, and swine, refuse it.

GLEDE. *n. f.* [*glidaglide*, Saxon.] A hawk.—Ye shall not eat the *glede*, the eagle, the vulture. *Deut.*

GLEDE, *GLEAD*, or *KITE*. See *FALCO*,

ACACIA, *TRIPLE-THORNED ACACIA*, or *LOCUST*; a genus of the *diœcia* order, belonging to the *polygamia* class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 33d order, *Lo-*. In this genus, says Mr Lee, "the *hermaphrodites* and *males* are on the same plant, and the *females* on a different one." The *hermaphrodite* is quadrifid; the corolla tetrapetalous; the *stamens* six, one pistil and legumen. The *male* is triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous, the *stamens* five. The female calyx is pentapetalous; the corolla pentapetalous; one pistil and legumen. There are two species, viz.

ACACIA INERMIS, so named because the *stems* are unarmed, or without thorns. It is a native of America, and in this country requires to be kept in a stove.

ACACIA TRIACANTHOS, a native of Virginia. It is of an upright growth, the trunk is guarded by thorns 3 or 4 inches in a remarkable manner. These thorns have a coming out of their sides at nearly right angles. Their colour is red. The branches are of a white colour; but are likewise green. *PART. II.*

armed with red thorns, that are proportionally smaller: they are of several directions, and at the ends of the branches often stand single. The young shoots of the preceding summer are perfectly smooth, of a reddish green, and retain their leaves often until the middle of November. Although there is a peculiar oddity in the nature and position of the spines, yet the leaves constitute the greatest beauty of these trees: they are doubly pinnated, and of a delightful shining green. The pinnated leaves, that form the duplication, do not always stand opposite by pairs on the middle rib; the pinnæ of which they are composed are small and numerous; no fewer than 10 or 11 pair belong to each of them; and as 4 or 5 pair of small leaves are arranged along the middle rib, the whole compound leaf consists often of more than 200 pinnæ of this fine green colour. They sit close, and spread open in fine weather; though during bad weather they droop, and their upper surfaces nearly join, as if in a sleeping state. The flowers are produced from the sides of the young branches in July. They are a greenish catkin, and make little show; though many are succeeded by pods, that have a wonderful effect; for these are exceedingly large, more than a foot, sometimes a foot and a half in length, two inches in breadth, and of a nut-brown colour when ripe. There is a variety of this species, with fewer thorns, smaller leaves, and oval pods. It has nearly the resemblance of the other; though the thorns are not so frequent, and the pods smaller, each containing only one seed. These trees are easily propagated, by seeds received from America in spring, which keep well in the pods, and are for the most part good. They generally arrive in February; and, as soon as possible after, they should be sown in a well sheltered warm border of light sandy earth. If no border is to be found that is naturally so, it may be improved by applying drift sand, and making it fine. The seeds should be sown about half an inch deep: and they will for the most part come up the first spring. If the summer should prove dry, they must be constantly watered; and if shade could be afforded them in the heat of the day, they would make stronger plants by autumn. Attention to this is peculiarly requisite; for as the end of the branches are often killed, if the young plant has not made some progress, it will be liable to be wholly destroyed by the winter's frost, without protection: And this renders the sowing the seeds in a warm border, under a hedge, in a well sheltered place, necessary; for there these shrubs will endure our winters, even when seedlings, and will require no farther trouble; nay, though the tops should be nipped, they will shoot out again lower, and will soon overcome it. They should remain two years in the seed-bed before they are planted out in the nursery. The spring is the best time for the work. Their distances should be one foot by two; the rows should be dug between every winter; and, being weeded in summer, they may continue with no other particular care, until they are set out to remain. These trees are late in spring before they exhibit their leaves, but keep shooting long in autumn.

* **GLEE**. *n. f.* [*gligge*, Saxon.] Joy; merriment; gayety. It anciently signified musick played at feasts. It is not now used, except in ludicrous writing, or with some mixture of irony and contempt—

She coucheth home, and by her takes the knight,

Whom all the people follow with great *glee*.

—Many wayfairs make themselves *glee*, by vexing the inebriants; who again forebode not to baigne them with perfume. *Carraw's Survey*.—

Is Blonzhinda dead? Farewel my *glee*!

No happiness is now reserv'd for me.

The poor man then was rich, and liv'd with *glee*;

Each barley-head untaxt, and day light free.

* **GLEED**. *n. f.* [from *glowan*, Saxon, to glow.] A hot glowing coal. A provincial and obsolete word.

* **GLEFFUL**. *adj.* [*gles* and *full*.] Gay; merry; cheerful. Not used.—

My lovely Aaron, wherefore look'st thou sad,
When every thing doth make a *gleeful* boast?

* **GLEEK**. *n. f.* [*gligge*, Saxon.] Musick; or musician.—What will you give us?—No money, but the *gleek*: I will give you the minstrel.

* **To GLEEK**. *v. a.* [*ghymon*, in Saxon, is a mimick or a droll.] 1. To sneer; to gibe; to droll upon.—

I can *gleek* upon occasion.
—I have seen you *gleeking* or galling at this gentleman twice or thrice.
2. In Scotland it is still retained, and signifies to fool or spend time idly, with something of mimicry or drollery.

* **To GLEEN**. *v. n.* To shine with heat or polish. I know not the original notion of this word: it may be of the same race with *glow* or with *gleam*. I have not remarked it in any other place.—

Those who labour
The sweaty forge, who edge the crooked scythe,
Bend stubborn steel, and harden *gleening* armour,

Acknowledge Vulcan's aid.
(1.) * **GLEET**. *n. f.* [It is written by *Skinner* *glis*, and derived from *glidan*, Saxon, to run softly.] A sanious ooze; a thin ichor running from a sore.—A hard dry eschar, without either matter or *gleet*. *Wifeman's Surgery*.

(2.) **GLEET** is chiefly used for the flux of a thin limpid humour from the urethra. See *Medicine, Index*.

* **To GLEET**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To drip or ooze with a thin sanious liquor.—His thumb being inflamed and swelled, I made an incision into it to the bone; this not only bled, but *gleeted* a few drops. *Wifeman*. 2. To run slowly.—Vapours raised by the sun make clouds, which are carried up and down the atmosphere, 'till they hit against the mountainous places of the globe, and by this concussion are condensed, and so *gleet* down the caverns of these mountains, whose inner parts, being hollow, afford them a basin. *Cheyne's Phil. Princ.*

* **GLEETY**. *adj.* [from *gleet*.] Ichory; thin-

ly sanious.—If the flesh lose it's red, the matter change to be thin and *gley*, suspect it corrupting. *Wifeman*.

GLEIBERG, or **OLITZBURG**, a town many, in Nassau Weisburg; 2 miles N. and 8 NW. of Weizlar.

GLEICHENBERG, a town of Styria; 10 miles N. of Rackitburg.

GLEICHENSTEIN, a town and many, in the circle of the Lower Rhinotory of Eichteld.

GLEINCK, a town of Austria; 7 m.

GLEINSTOTTEN, a town of Silesia, SE. of Vroslberg.

GLEISS, a town of Switzerland, 16 miles E. of Sion.

GLEIWITZ, or **GLIWICK**, a town in Oppeln, 36 miles SE. of Oppeln.

GLEMFORD, a village in Suffolk, Clare and Lenham.

GLEMS, a river of Germany, which the Enz, 2 miles N. of Mark-Grobingen.

(1.) **GLEN**, John, a celebrated print-graver in wood, born at Liege, about, published a copious work on ancient dresses, ceremonies, &c. illustrated figures.

(2.) * **GLEN**. *n. f.* [*gleann*, Erse.] A dale; a depression between two hills.—
From me his madding mind is
And woos the widow's daughter of

(3.) **GLEN**. See *DUN*, § 2.

(4.) **GLEN**, in geography, a river of Cumberland, running into the Till.

(5.) **GLEN**, a lake of Ireland, in 10 miles WNW. of Londonderry.

(6.) **GLEN** makes part of the names number of places in Scotland and Ireland some in England, which, according to the meaning of the word, (see § 2) either, or are seated in or near them; as following examples:

GLEN ALMOND, a beautiful valley of in Perthshire, about 8 miles N. of Crieff, able for its picturesque scenery.

GLEN-ALOT, a valley of Scotland, in landshire, 14 miles N. of Dornoch.

GLENARM, a town of Ireland, in A Glenarm Bay, 105 miles from Dublin.

GLEN-ARTNEY, a vale of Scotland, shire, 4 miles NE. of Callender.

GLENNEG, a valley of Scotland, in shire, in the parish of **GLENNEG**, in w are several ancient castles, exhibiting mens of ancient Scots architecture. See *STRUCTURE, Index*.

GLENBARVIE, a parish of Scotland, dineshire, 6½ miles long from N. to S. an lying along the *Bervie* for 2 miles, and 13,965 acres. The soil in the high part is cold but healthy. The crops bear, pease, potatoes, clover, rye-grass nips. Husbandry is much improved, the exertions of Mr Barclay of Urie. I senity of the late Lord Monboddo, th

and the tenants thriving. The leases are stated for "a life, 19 years, and a life, the possessor, during the 19 years, naming the life with which the lease ends." The population, in 1792, as given by the rev. Alex. Thom, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1307, and had increased 349, since 1755. There were then 53 ploughs, 161 horses; a considerable number of black cattle, but few sheep in the parish.

BUCKET, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 30 miles from Aberdeen. It is 4 miles long and from $\frac{1}{2}$ to one mile broad, encircled by a high wall, and seated on the rivulet *Bucket*, which runs into the Don. The soil is a light loam; the climate mild, and in summer warm, which makes the harvest pretty early. The crops are oats and grass. Grasses are beginning to be sown. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. William Thomson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 449, and increased 19 since 1755.

CAIRN, a parish in Dumfriesshire, 16 miles from E. to W. lying along the rivers Craigie, Dalquhat, and Castlefairn, on the W. side of both sides of the *Cairn*, the name of these rivers when united. It is 15 miles from Dumfries. The soil is light, warm, and fertile in grain and grass. The climate is healthy. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. Walter Grierison, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1700, and had decreased 94 since 1755. The number of sheep, on 1795, was above 9000; of horses 135, and of cattle 2,475. There were 27 proprietors, and 10, in the parish, which was divided into 90 townships.

CARREL, a valley of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, 12 miles N. of Dornoch.

CHEARNISH. See DUTHIL, N° 1.

CO, or } a valley of Scotland, in Argyllshire, } near Loch Etive; memorable for being the scene of the most cruel and bloody massacre, that ever disgraced the annals of Britain. See ENGLAND, § 67. The rev. John M'Nicol, minister of Lismore and Appin, parish in which it happened, says, "It were to be wished that a veil could be thrown over this dark page of our history, as it was the most barbarous action in modern times, sanctioned by any authority from government." See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* Vol. I, 498.

COWEN, a river of England, in Cumberland, running into the Ullswater.

CROSS, a parish of Scotland, in Mid-Lothian, 7 miles W. of Edinburgh, erected in 1616. It is about 3 miles square in extent; and as it lies on Pentland hills, is well adapted for pasturing. Accordingly, about 1200 sheep, 100 horses, and 150 black cattle, are pastured in it. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. W. Torrance, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 385 souls, and had decreased 172 since 1755. There is a distillery, a bleachfield, and 3 mills in the parish; manufactures are a grievance. The chief crops are oats and grass. Limestone, coals, sand-stone, and heavy spar, abound; and squirrels are numerous in the woods. See SCIURUS, § 1. There are some vestiges of ancient camps; a stone with a rude inscription is erected in memory of the battle of Pentland hills in 1666.

The late celebrated W. TYTLER, Esq. of Woodhouselee, and J. PHILIP, Esq. of Greenlaw, were natives of this parish.

GLEN-CROY, a romantic valley of Scotland, in Argyllshire, between two very high ridges of mountains, on the NE. side of Loch Long.

GLENDALAGH, an ancient and once celebrated town of Ireland, 5 miles NW. of Rothdrum, in Wicklow; called also, the *Sacred Character*. Glendalagh signifies "the valley of the two lakes." In this valley, surrounded by high and almost inaccessible mountains, ST KEVIN, about the middle of the 6th century, founded a monastery, which in a short time from the sanctity of its founder was much resorted to, and at length became a bishopric and a religious city. During the middle ages Glendalagh, called by Hoveden *Episcopatus Bislagenensis*, was held in great esteem, and received several valuable donations and privileges; its episcopal jurisdiction extending to the walls of Dublin. About the middle of the 12th century, it became, instead of a holy city, a den of thieves; wherefore Cardinal Papiro, in 1214, united it to the see of Dublin, which union was confirmed by King John. The O'Tools, chiefs of Firthuathal, however, by the assistance of the Pope, continued long after to elect bishops and abbots to Glendalagh, though they had neither revenues nor authority, beyond the district of Tuathal, which was the western part of the county; in consequence of which the city had become nearly a desert, in 1497, when Dennis White, the last titular bishop, surrendered his right. From the ruins still remaining, this city appears to have been a place of consequence, and to have contained 7 churches and religious houses; built in an elegant style, in imitation of the Greek architecture; the walls of the cathedral are yet standing. South of them stands a small church roofed with stone, nearly entire; and in several parts of the valley are a number of stone crosses, some of which are curiously carved, but without inscriptions. In the NW. corner of the cemetery, stands a round tower, 95 feet high, and 15 in diameter; and in the cemetery of a small church, called the *Rhesart church*, are some tombs of the O'Tools. In a perpendicular projecting rock on the S. side of the great lake, 30 yards above the surface of the water, is the celebrated bed of St Kevin, hewn out of the rock, exceedingly difficult of access and terrible in prospect. Among the ruins have been discovered a number of stones curiously carved, and containing inscriptions in Latin, Greek, and Irish. As this city was in a valley, surrounded on all sides, except the E. by inaccessible mountains, the artificial roads leading thereto are curious: the principal is that leading into the county of Kildare through Glendason. This road for near two miles is yet perfect, composed of stones placed on their edges, making a firm and durable pavement, about 10 feet broad. At a small distance from St Kevin's bed, on the same side of the mountain, are to be seen the ruins of a small stone building, called *Saint Kevin's cell*.

GLENDAL, a town of England, in Northumberland, seated on the Glen.

GLEN-DERBY, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, 10 miles N. of Dunkeld.

GLENDON, a town of England, in Northamptonshire, near Rothwell.

GLENDONAN, a parish of Perthshire, in the middle of the Ochil hills, so named from the DOVAN, which runs through it; 6 miles long from SW. to NE. and $4\frac{1}{2}$ broad. The surface, though hilly, is green and smooth; the soil light and dry. About 200 acres are generally under oats, barley, flax, and potatoes; the rest is appropriated to pasture, for which it is best adapted; feeding about 2000 sheep, 50 horses, and 220 cows. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. J. Brown, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 240, and had increased 20 since 1755.

GLENEGAD HEAD, a cape of Ireland, in Donegal. Lon. 7. 4. W. Lat. 55. 20. N.

GLENELCHAIG, a district of Scotland, in Ross-shire, in Kintail.

(1.) **GLENELG**, [from *glen*, Gael. a valley, and *feilg*, hunting.] a parish of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, about 20 miles square. It is divided into 3 districts, called *Glenelg*, *Knosdort*, and *N. Merror*. In the two former the soil is good, being partly deep black loam, partly light, and partly sandy gravel. The last is mountainous, rocky, and adapted for feeding cattle. The climate is moist, but healthy. Oats, barley, and potatoes are the chief crops, but in the best seasons, the produce does not maintain three 4ths of the inhabitants. Grazing of sheep and black cattle therefore prevails; and about 1500 stones of wool are sold annually. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. Colin M'iver, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2746; and had increased 930 since 1755; notwithstanding 1124 had emigrated at different periods. Of these, 1310 were papists. The roads are bad.

(2.) **GLENELG**, a district in the above parish, in which there are several ancient forts. See **ARCHITECTURE**, § 54, 55.

GLENELY, a river of Ireland, in Antrim, which runs into the sea, 3 miles S. of Geron Point.

GLENISK, a district of Scotland, in Forfarshire, watered by the North Esk.

GLEN-FICHAN, a vale in the W. of Argyle.

GLEN-FIDDICH, a valley in Banffshire, 12 miles E. of Inveravon, watered by the Fiddich.

GLENTFIELD, a village NW. of Leicester.

GLEN FINE, a vale in Argyle, N. of Loch Fine.

GLEN-FINGLASS, a valley in Perthshire.

GLENGAIRN, [from *glean*, Gael. *i. e.* a valley, and *garli-ambain*, the rough water,] a parish of Scotland in Aberdeenshire, united with those of Glenmuick and Tulloch. It lies on both sides of the Gairn, and part of it on the Dee. It extends 6 miles NW. of Tulloch. It has an ancient castle. See **GLENMUICK**.

GLENGAPE, a lake in Kirkcudbrightshire, abounding with large yellow trout.

GLENGARRIFF, a harbour of Ireland, in Cork, on the NE. part of Bantry Bay.

GLEN GARRY, a valley of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, N. of Loch Garry.

GLENGONAR, a valley of Scotland, in the parish of Creeton, Dumfriesshire, in which a gold has been found. The rev. J. Macnoshie, says "Q. Elizabeth sent down a German to gather gold dust in the waters of Elyan and Glengonary,

both which have their sources in the hills the lead is found. This man wrote an account of his discoveries and labours, the MS. of which is in the Advocates' library. The place where he found the gold took its name from the event, called the *Gold Scour*. There are verses repeated in the parish, importing that he made great fortune. Be that as it will, the business resumed by order of the late E. of Hopetoun discontinued, as being less profitable than common labour. Gold dust is still found on the top rocks; but the searching for it is rather an amusement, than of serious occupation. The particles seldom exceed in size the point of Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. vol. iv, 515.

GLEN-GRUDY, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, N. of Loch Farnith.

GLENHAM, GREAT, } 2 towns of England
GLENHAM, LITTLE, } Framlingham, S.

GLENHOLM, a parish of Scotland, in Perthshire, seated on Holm's water, and partly Tweed; 12 miles SW. of Peebles, and 10 miles from Edinburgh. It is about 5 miles long from N. to S. The surface being hilly, the greater part laid out in pasture; the soil of the arable is loose and sharp; and produces strong grain, grass, turnips, and potatoes. The climate is damp. The population in 1791, stated by the rev. Bernard Haldan, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 300 souls, and had decreased 92 in 1755. The number of sheep was 5,000; of horses 150. There are relics of Picts in the parish, and thirlages are not killed.

GLENICZA, a river of Poland, which runs into the Odra, near Koster in Pomerania.

GLEN-INS, a town of Ireland, in Down.

(1.) **GLENISLA**, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, three districts of Perthshire; so named from the Isla, which runs through it.

(2.) **GLENISLA**, a parish in the above district, 18 miles long, but a wide area above 2 miles wide. The soil is mostly light and stony, but in parts a deep strong loam, producing a great quantity of bear, oats, turnips, and potatoes. The climate is very pure, and longevity common. The population in 1791, stated by the rev. J. Dunlop, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1118 souls, and had decreased 145 since 1755. The number of cattle was 1696; great numbers of the latter are reared. The ruins of two old castles, one belonging to the Airy family, and demolished in 1745, are still to be seen.

GLENKENS, [Gael. *i. e.* the vale on a hill,] a district of Scotland in Kirkcudbrightshire, comprehending the parishes of Dalry, Kilmarnock, and Balmacellan.

GLEN-KINGLASS, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire.

GLEN-LEDNOCK, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, 10 miles NW. of Crieff.

GLEN-LOCHRY, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, NE. of Glenelg.

GLEN LUGG, [Gael. *i. e.* the vale on a hill,] a district, and anciently a parish, in Wigtownshire, divided, in 1745, into two parishes, named *Old* and *New Lugg*. See **LUGG**.

GLEN-LYON, a valley in Perthshire.

RE, [Gael. *i. e.* the great valley.] district of Murrayshire, in the barony abounding with wood. In 1786, on sold his fir woods of Glenmore Company for 10,000*l.* This fir is stately, and reckoned equal to New Vessels from 200 to 500 tons have, with masts 60 feet long. There is in it, one of them an oval basin, 2 acres. The other abounds with a perfect fat green trout.

RE, a valley in Perthshire, 12 miles N. of Atholl.

STON, a valley of Inverness-shire, Fort Augustus.

WICK, [Gael. *glean muc*, *i. e.* the great valley.] a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 15 miles long, lying entirely N. of the Dee, about 40 miles W. of Aberdeen. It is united with those of **TULLOCH** and **WICK**, and each of the 3 has a church, parished alternately. These united parishes form an irregular figure, about 18 miles long, intersected by the Dee. The country is mountainous and healthy; the soil, in some places deep and fertile, in others shallow, producing good grain, &c. The air is pure, dry, and salubrious. A man died in 1792, aged 102; and a woman born in Glenmuick in 1598, died in 1808, not less than 124. Husbandry is here improved. The crops are bear, barley, potatoes, and flax. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. J. Sinclair, was 15,363; of horses 716, and of sheep 1563.

WICK, a valley in Ross-shire.

WICK, the name of two cavities, or ponds, in the inferior part of the first neck.

WICK, or **WICK**, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, bordering on Perthshire with that of **INISHAIL** in 1618; divided in 1650, and re-united, soon after the death of both is 24 miles; the breadth of each extend for 8 miles on each side of the Dee. The surface is mostly level. The soil on the low grounds, is a light earth and sand, or rich loam; producing barley, turnips, and various kinds of potatoes. The latter are cultivated with care and form the chief food of the natives in the winter of the year. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. Dr Joseph McIntyre, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1569, and had increased since 1755. The number of sheep was 15,363; of black cattle are exported, (but the Dr does not state the number;) as well as wool, linen, tartans, &c. The imports are mercury, and 1000 bolls of meal. The roads, and inns, are good. There is a lead mine was wrought for many years; and a quantity of **ASBESTOS**, and beautiful **JASPER**, found in the mountains.

WICK, a vale in the above parish, 12 miles long and half a mile broad, seated

on the **URCHAY**, which winds through it, and divides it into two equal parts.

(3.) **GLENORCHY**, a village in the above valley, 15 miles NE. of Inveraray, and SE. of Bunaw.

(4.) **GLENORCHY**, Lady. See **MAXWELL**.

GLENPRASSIN, a district of Forfarshire.

GLEN-QUEICH, a valley in Perthshire, 10 miles N. of Crieff.

GLEN-RINNES, a valley in Banffshire, 7 miles NE. of Inveravon.

(1.) **GLENSHEE**, a valley in Perthshire, 15 miles E. of Blair in Atholl.

(2.) **GLENSHEE**, **SPITAL OF**, a noted pass into the Grampian mountains, a little S. of the point where the counties of Perth, Angus, and Aberdeen meet. In 1718, a small body of Highlanders, with 500 Spaniards, took possession of it; but on the approach of the king's troops, after retiring to the pass at Strachell, and from one height to another, the Highlanders dispersed, and next day the Spaniards surrendered. *Brookes's Gazetteer*.

(1.) **GLENSHEIL**, [Gael. *glean shelig*, *i. e.* the valley of hunting.] a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, 24 miles long, from NW. to SE. and from 2 to 6 broad. The climate is rainy. The surface is partly mountainous, partly level; the soil on the former is thin, stony and barren; on the latter gravel and light earth. Oats, bear, and potatoes are the only crops. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. J. M'Rae, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 721, and had increased 212 since 1755. The staple of this parish is black cattle, which are not large, but hardy, and uncommonly elegant. They sell at from 3*l.* to 5*l.* Horses, sheep, and goats are also reared, but the numbers are not mentioned by Mr M'Rae.

(2.) **GLENSHEIL**, a district in the above parish, consisting of two narrow valleys, 2 miles distant from each other, and from 3 to 5 miles long, "surrounded on each side by almost perpendicular mountains of a prodigious height." In a narrow pass in these heights, (says Mr M'Rae,) was fought in 1719, the battle of Glensheil, between some English troops and 300, or 400 Spaniards, joined by some Highlanders under the earl of Seaforth, who was dangerously wounded, and soon after his followers gave way, and the Spaniards surrendered; though the English lost their commander." This seems to be the same battle, stated by Dr Brookes to have happened at Glenshee, in Perthshire, in 1718. See **GLENSHEE**, § 2. In 1786, the proprietor, Mr M'Kenzie of Seaforth, was offered *triple rent* for this district by sheep farmers, but he nobly refused it, saying he would *never prefer sheep to men*; and let the lands to his old tenants, on a very moderate augmentation.

(1.) **GLENTANAR**, a mountainous parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 30 miles SW. of Aberdeen, and 30 NW. of Brechin. It is seated on the rivulet *Tanar*, S. of the Dee, and is united to the parish of *Aboyne*. The extent of both parishes is 9 miles in length from E. to SW. and 3 in breadth. The soil is sandy, and fertile in rainy seasons. The new husbandry has been introduced, and the E. of Aboyne's own farm of 400 acres is in high cultivation. Oats, barley, turnips, and potatoes, are the chief produce. The population of Aboyne and Glentanar, in 1796, was 1050, and had decreased

645 since 1755. The highest mountain in Glentanar, called *Sir Mount*, is 2,500 feet above the sea level, and affords an extensive prospect of Aberdeen, Montrose, and Arbroath. The Dee runs between the two parishes.

(1.) **GLENTANAR, FOREST** OR, a large forest of natural wood, in Aberdeenshire, near the above parish, (and perhaps partly in it,) 10 miles long and 6 broad, abounding with excellent Scots fir.

GLENTHAM, a village in Lincolnshire, W. of Market Rasen.

GLENTIS, a village of Ireland, in Down county, on the *Amrafa*. One of the chief fairs for black cattle in Ireland, is held at it.

GLINTRATHEN, or **LINTRATHEN**, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire. See **LINTRATHEN**.

GLEN-URQUHART, a vale in Inverness-shire.

GLEN-YALDER, a valley in Aberdeenshire, between Loch-Garr and the Dee.

GLEVUM. See **GLOUCESTER**, N° 2.

* **GLEW**. *n. f.* [*gluten*, Lat.] A viscous cement made by dissolving the skins of animals in boiling water, and drying the gelly. See **GLUE**.

(1.) * **GLIB**. *adj.* (from *ad. & Skm.*) 1. Smooth; slippery; so formed to be easily moved.—Liquid bodies have nothing to sustain their parts, nor any thing to cement them: the parts being *glib* and continually in motion, fall off from one another, which way soever gravity inclines them. *Burnet's Theory*.—Habakkuk brought him a smooth strong rope, compactly twisted together, with a noose that slipped as *glib* as a birdcatcher's gin. *Arbutnot*. 2. Smooth; voluble.—

I want that *glib* and oily art

To speak and purpose not, since what I well intend,

I'll do't before I speak.

Shak. R. Lear.

—There was never so much *glib* nonsense put together in well sounding English. *Locke*.—

Now Curl his shop from rubbish drains;

Three genuine tomes of Swift's remains:

And then to make them pass the *glibber*,

Revis'd by Tibbald, More and Cibber. *Swift*.

Be sure he's a fine spoken man;

Do but hear on the clergy how *glib* his tongue ran.

Swift.

(2.) * **GLIB**. *n. f.*—The Irish have from the Scythians mantles and long *glibs*; which is a thick curled bush of hair hanging down over their eyes, and monstrously disguised them. *Spens. on Irel.*

* To **GLIB**. *v. a.* (from the adjective.) To castrate.—

I'll geld them all: fourteen they shall not see,

To bring false generations; they are coheirs,

And I had rather *glib* myself than they

Should not produce fair issue. *Shak. Wint. Tale*.

* **GLIBLY**. *adv.* (from *glib*.) Smoothly; volubly.—Many who would startle at an oath, whose stomachs as well as conscience recoil at an obscenity, do yet slide *glibly* into a detraction. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

* **GLIBNESS**. *n. f.* (from *glib*.) Smoothness; slipperiness.—

A polish'd ice-like *glibness* doth enfold

The rock.

Chapman's Odyssey.

—The tongue is the most ready for motion of any member, needs not so much as the flexure of a

joint, and by access of humours and *nefs* too, the more to facilitate its use of the Tongue.

GLICAS, or **GLYCAS**, Michael, a Syrian, who lived in Sicily, about the 15th century, and wrote annals of what the creation to the death of Alexius, in 1118. Leunclavius added to it a *giz* carries it down to the taking of *Cy* Glidas was also the author of several curious letters.

* **GLIDE**. *v. f.* (from the verb.) or manner of passing smoothly.—

About his neck

A green and gilded snake had wrapt
Who, with her head nimble in
proach'd

The opening of his mouth; but for
Seeing Orlando, it unlinked itself,
Add with indented *glides* did slip
Into a bush. *Shak.*

* To **GLIDE**. *v. n.* [*glidan*, Sax. Dutch.] 1. To flow gently and silently. By East, among the dusty vallies
The silver streams of Jordan's cry

Broke by the jotting land on each
In double streams the briny waters.

Just before the confines of the west
The *gliding* Lethe leads her silent

Where stray the muses, in what lot
In those fair fields where sacred
Or else where Cam his winding vale

2. To pass on without change of step.

Ye *gliding* ghosts, permit me to r
The mystick wonders of your silent

3. To move swiftly and smoothly along

If one of mean affairs

May plod it in a week, why may a
Glide thither in a day?

Shoals of fish, with fins and spines

Glide under the green wave,

He trembl'd every limb, and felt

As if cold steel had *glided* through b

—All things are beheld as in a hasty motion
the objects only *glide* before the eye,
pear. *Dryden*.

* **GLIDER**. *n. f.* (from *glide*.) One

The glance into my heart did *glib*

Hey ho the *glider*;

Therewith my soul was sharply g

Such wounds soon waxen wider.

* **GLIKE**. *n. f.* [*glig*, Saxon. So
A sneer; a scoff; a flout. Not now
Where's the bastard's braves, and t
glikes? *Shakesp.*

GLIKEON, a town of European
Epirus, 26 miles W. of Atla.

GLIMANY, a town of Poland in L

(1.) * **GLIMMER**. *n. f.* (from the
Faint splendour; weak light. 2. A li

—The lesser masses that are lodged in
stony bodies, dispersedly, from their

were an inducement to the writers give those bodies the name of mica. *Woodward*.—Stones which are comets, that are generally plain and parallel; are flexible and elastic; talc, catmmer, of which there are three sorts, or the golden, the white or silvery, &c. *Woodward*.

IMER, or GLIST. See MICA.

IMMER. *v. n.* [*glimmer*, Danish, to *nen*, Dutch, to glow.] 1. To shine

est yet *glimmers* with some streaks of
Shak.

th appears so naked on my side,
purblind eye may find it out.

that side it is so well apparel'd,
so shining, and so evident,
ill *glimmer* through a blind man's eye.
Shak.

re no twilight of the sun's dull ray
upon the pure and native day. *Cowley*.
glimmering bowers and glades
er. *Milton*.

on you' dreary plain, forlorn and wild,
of desolation, void of light,
the *glimmering* of these livid flames
and dreadful? *Milt. Par. Lost*.

The sacred influence
ppears, and from the walls of heav'n
into the bosom of dim night
ring dawn. *Milton's Par. Lost*.

these sad shades this chaos in my soul,
ls of light at length began to roll;
g motion of an infant ray
m'ring thro' the cloud, and promis'd
Prior.

the winds, extinct the signal lies;
r'd in the *glimm'ring* socket dies. *Gay*.
rosy morning *glimmer'd* o'er the dales,
to pasture all the lusty males. *Pope*.
received imperfectly; to appear faint-
way the baggage post-boy, who had
t, got a *glimmering* who they were.
he Pagan priesthood was always in the
there was a perceivable *glimmering*
h rites in it, though much corrupted.

PSE. *n. f.* [*glimmen*, Dutch, to glow.]
aint light.—

ch vast room in nature,
bine, yet scarce to contribute
a *glimpse* of light, convey'd so far
this habitable, which returns
k to them. *Milton*.

ls of things, which now either wholly
apprehensions, or which our short-
on having got some faint *glimpse* of,
dark, grope after. *Locke*. 2. A quick
L.—

s the lightning *glimpse* they ran? *Milt*.
rightless youth was wing'd with vain
es;

ood, long misled by wand'ring fires,
false lights; and when their *glimpse*
gone,
struck out new spangles of her own.
Dryden.

3. Transitory lustre.—

There no dear *glimpse* of the sun's lovely face
Strikes thro' the solid darkness of the place.

Cowley.

If I, celestial fire, in aught
Have serv'd thy will, or gratified thy thought,
One *glimpse* of glory to my issue give;
Grac'd for the little time he has to live. *Dryd*.

4. Short fleeting enjoyment.—

If, while this weary'd flesh draws fleeting
breath,
Not satisfy'd with life, afraid of death,
If hap'ly be thy will that I should know
Glimpse of delight, or pause from anxious woe;
From now, from instant now, great fire, dispel
The clouds that press my soul. *Prior*.

5. A short transitory view.—

O friends! I hear the tread of nimble feet
Hasting this way, and now by *glimpse* discern
Ithuriel, and Zephon, thro' the shade. *Milton*.
—Some God punisheth exemplarily in this world,
that we might have a taste or *glimpse* of his pre-
sent justice. *Hakevill*.—A man used to such sort
of reflections, sees as much at one *glimpse* as would
require a long discourse to lay before another, and
make out in one entire and gradual deduction.
Locke.—

What should I do! while here I was en-
chain'd,

No *glimpse* of godlike liberty remain'd. *Dryden*.
6. The exhibition of a faint resemblance.—No
man hath a virtue that he has not a *glimpse* of.
Shakespeare.

GLIMS-HOLM, one of the ORKNEY islands,
a mile and a half S. of Pomona.

GLINA, a river of Croatia, which rises near
Creutz, and runs into the Lonia.

GLIN-LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in the coun-
ty of Leitrim, 7 miles NNE. of Sligo.

GLINNINO, a town of Russia, in Novogorod.

(1.) GLINSK, a town of Ireland, in Galway.

(2.) GLINSK, a town of Russia, in Tchernigof.

GLINTZENDORF, a town of Austria.

GLINVILLE, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

GLINUS, in botany, a genus of the penta-
gynia order, belonging to the decandria class of
plants; and in the natural method ranking under
the 22d class *Caryophyllei*. The calyx is penta-
phyllous; there is no corolla; the nectarium is
composed of bifid bristles; the capsule is quin-
queangular, quinquelocular, quinquevalved, and
polypermous.

GLIRES, the name of Linnæus's 4th order of
mamulia. See ZOOLOGY.

GLISSON, Francis, a learned English physi-
cian of the 17th century, who was educated at
Cambridge, and was made regius professor of the
university. In 1634, he was admitted a fellow of
the college of physicians in London. During the
civil wars, he practised physic at Colchester, and
afterwards settled in London. He greatly im-
proved physic by his anatomical dissections, and
made several new discoveries of singular use to-
wards establishing a rational practice. He wrote,

1. *De rachitide*, &c. 2. *De lymphæductis nuper re-
pertis*; with the *Anatomica prolegomena*, & *Anato-
mia hepatis*. 3. *De naturæ substantia energetica*;
*seu de viâ vitæ naturæ, ejusque tribus primis facul-
tatibus*

satibus, &c. quarto. 4. Trāstus de ventriculo & intestinis, &c. He discovered the capsula communis, or vagina portæ.

GLIST. See GLIMMER and MICA.

* To GLISTEN. *v. n.* [*glistan*, German.] To shine; to sparkle with light.—

The bleating kind

Eye the bleak heaven, and next the glistering earth,

With looks of dumb despair. *Thomf. Winter.*

—The ladies eyes glistered with pleasure. *Richardson's Pamela.*

* GLISTER. *n. s.* [Properly written *clyster*, from *κλυστήρ*.] See CLYSTER. It is written wrong even by *Brown*.—

Now enters Bush with new state air,

His lordship's premier minister;

And who, in all profound affairs,

Is held as needful as his glister. *Swift.*

—Choler is the natural glister, or one excretion whereby nature excludeth another; which descending daily into the bowels, extimulates those parts, and excites them unto expulsion. *Brown's Puig. Br.*

* To GLISTER. *v. n.* [*glistan*, German; *glisteren*, Dutch.] To shine; to be bright.—The wars flame most in Summer, and the helmets glister brightest in the fairest sunshine. *Spens. on Irel.*—

'Tis better to be lowly born.

And range with humble liveries content,
Than to be perk'd up in a glistering grief,
And wear a golden sorrow. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

The golden sun

Gallops the zodiack in his glistering coach.

Shakespeare.

All that glisters is not gold. *Shak. M. of Ven.*

You were more the eye and talk

Of the court to-day, than all

Else that glister'd in Whitehall. *Ben. Jon.*

—When the sun shone upon the shields of gold and brass, the mountains glistered therewith, and shined like lamps of fire. *1. Mac. vi. 39.*—It consisted not of rubies, yet the small pieces of it were of pleasant reddish colour, and glistered prettily. *Boyle.*

GLITNESS, one of the SHETLAND islands on the E. coast, 11 miles N. of Lerwick.

* GLITTER. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Lustre; bright show; splendour.—

Clad

With what permissive glory since his fall

Was left him, or false glitter. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—Flourish not too much upon the glitter of fortune, for fear there should be too much alloy in it. *Collier.*—Take away this measure from our dress and habits, and all is turned into such paint and glitter, and ridiculous ornaments, as are a real shame to the wearer. *Law.*

* To GLITTER. *v. n.* [*glitman*, Sax.] 1. To

shine; to exhibit lustre; to gleam; are more resplendent than the like; and so is the glittering of a blade.

Rem.—

Before the battle joins, fro
The field yet glitters with the poi

Scarce had'st thou time t' unsh
qu'ring blade;

It did but glitter, and the rebels |

4. To be specious; to be striking; hand set the most glittering temptations and on the other the dismal effects of Piety.

In glit'ring scenes, o'er her own
In crowds collected; and in con

* GLITTERAND. Shining; participle used by Chaucer and the poets. This participial termination is in Scotland. †

* GLITTERINGLY. *adv.* [With shining lustre.

GLITZBERG. See GLEIBERG. GLIUBIN, a town of European Dalmatia, 18 miles SE. of Mostar.

GLIWICE. See GLEWITZ.

* To GLOAR. *v. a.* [*gloeren*, D. squint; to look askew. *Skinner.* 1. to stare: as, what a gloarand quess

* To GLOAT. *v. n.* [This is to be ignorantly written for *gloar*.] glanced as a timorous lover —

Teach every grace to smile in)

And her deluding eyes to gloat to

* GLOBARD. *n. s.* [from *gloar* worm.

* GLOBATED. *adj.* [from *globe* shape of a globe; spherical; spheric

GLOBBA, in botany, a genus of nia order, belonging to the mona plants. The corolla is equal and t lyx trisid above; the capsule trilocu ny seeds.

(1. 1.) * GLOBE. *n. s.* [*globe*, Fr Latin.] 1. A sphere; a ball; a body of which every part of their same distance from the centre. 2. ous ball.—

The youth, whose fortune the
bey'd,

Finding his enemy betray'd,

Wept at his fall.

—Where God declares his intention minion, he meant that he would n of creatures that should have domi other species of this terrestrial glo A sphere in which the various regions are geographically depicted, or in w

† Dr JOHNSON is in a great mistake here. No such "participial termination" as *AND* is used in any part of Scotland that we know of. It is merely an erroneous orthography of some of our old Scots Poets, from Chaucer and other ancient English bards. The *G*, in the participial termination *ING*, is seldom pronounced in the common Scots dialect; but as little, as less, are the *A* and *D* of the obsolete termination *AND*. *GLITTERAND* and *Glittering* are, and *Glitterin*.

† In Scotland we have no such verb as *To GLOAR*. Dr JOHNSON has perhaps heard *gloan*, but he mistakes both the sound and the spelling, when he writes it *gloarand*.

Gores for Globes.

Fig. 4.

Astroines

Ammonite or Snake Stones.

Висшыя

တယ်လီဖုန်း

Trochitæ

Conclusion

Fig. 1

Fig-2
Naubti

Springoides
Lapis

s are laid down according to the places
y.—

astrologer who spells the stars,
es his *globe*, and in her brighter eye
ets heaven's physiognomy. *Cleav.*

These are the stars,
ife thy thought from sense, nor think to
nd
igures there as are in *globes* design'd.

Creech.
ly of soldiers drawn into a circle.—

him round
f fiery seraphim inclos'd,
right emblazoning, and horrent arms.

Milton.
LOBE, in geometry. See SPHERE.

LOBE, in geography, and astronomy, (§
3.) is particularly used for an artificial
metal, plaster, paper, or other matter;
e convex surface is drawn a map, or re-
ion either of the earth or heavens, with
al circles conceived thereon. See GEO-
., SECT. X—XV. Globes are of two
terrestrial and *celestial*; each of very con-
nse, the one in astronomy, and the other
phy, for performing many of the opera-
ese sciences, in an easy obvious manner,
be conceived without any knowledge of
ematical grounds of those arts. The
ital parts, common to both globes, are
representing that of the world; and a
hell, or cover, which makes the body
be, on the external surface of which the
ation is drawn. See AXIS, POLE, &c.
bes most commonly used are made of
id paper. See § 4.

LOBES, CONSTRUCTION OF. A wooden
ovided, somewhat less than the intended
of the globe; and into the extremes
two iron wires are driven for poles: this
be the beam, or basis of the whole struc-
a the axis are applied two spherical or
mispherical caps, formed on a kind of
mould or block. These caps consist of
d, or paper, laid one lay after another, on
d, to the thickness of a crown-piece; af-
, having stood to dry and embody, ma-
cision along the middle, the two caps
ed are slipped off the mould. They are
ied on the poles of the axis, as before
on those of the mould; and to fix them,
lges are sewed together with pack-thread,
rudiments of the globe thus laid, it
engthened and made smooth and regu-
rder to this, the two poles are hipped
iline semicircle of the size intended;
d or plaster, made of whitening, water,
heated, melted, and incorporated toge-
lauded all over the paper surface. In
n as the plaster is applied, the ball is
nd in the semicircle, the edge whereof
whatever is superfluous and beyond the
ision, leaving the rest adhering in places
ort of it. After such application of the
ie ball stands to dry; which done, it is
in the semicircle, and fresh matter ap-
s they continue alternately to apply the
PART II.

composition, and dry it. till the ball every where
accurately touches the semicircle, in which state
it is perfectly smooth, regular, and firm. The
ball thus finished, it remains to paste the map
or description thereon: in order to this, the map
is projected in several gores, or gussets, all of
whi h join accurately on the spherical surface, and
cover the whole ball. To direct the application
of these gores, lines are drawn by a semicircle on
the surface of the ball, dividing it into a number
of equal parts corresponding to those of the gores,
and subdividing those again answerably to the
lines and divisions of the gores. There remains
only to colour and illuminate the globe; and to
varnish it, the better to resist dust, moisture, &c.
The globe itself thus finished, is hung in a brass
meridian, with an hour circle, and a quadrant of
altitude; and thus fitted into a wooden horizon.

(5.) GLOBES, METHOD OF DESCRIBING THE
GORES, OR GUSSETS, FOR THE. In Chambers's
Dictionary, the following method is directed. (See
Plate CLXVIII.) "1. From the given diameter
of the globe, find a right line AB, *fig. 1.* equal to
the circumference of a great circle, and divide it
into 12 equal parts. 2. Through the several
points of division, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. with the interval
of ten of them, describe arches mutually intersect-
ing each other in D and E; these figures or pieces
duly pasted and joined together will make the
whole surface of the globe. 3. Divide each part
of the right line AB into 30 equal parts, so that the
whole line AB, representing the periphery of the
equator, may be divided into 360 degrees. 4.
From the poles D and E, *fig. 2.* with the interval
of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ 5. describe arches *a b*; these will be
twelfth parts of the polar circles. 5. After the like
manner, from the same poles D and E, with the
interval of $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ deg. reckoned from the equator,
describe arches *c d*; these will be 12th parts of
the tropics. 6. Through the degree of the equa-
tor *e*, corresponding to the right ascension of any
given star, and the poles D and E, draw an arch
of a circle; and taking in the compasses the com-
plement of the declination from the pole D, de-
scribe an arch intersecting it in *i*: this point *i* will
be the place of that star. 7. All the stars of a
constellation being thus laid down, the figure of
the constellation is to be drawn according to Bayer,
Hevelius, or Flamsteed. 8. Lastly, after the same
manner are the declinations and right ascensions
of each degree of the ecliptic *d g* to be determin-
ed. 9. The surface of the globe thus projected
on a plane is to be engraven on copper, to save
the trouble of doing this over again for each globe.
10. A ball, in the mean time, is to be prepared
of paper, plaster, &c. as before directed, and of
the intended diameter of the globe; on this, by
means of a semicircle and style, is the equator to
be drawn; and through every 30th degree a me-
ridian. The ball thus divided into twelve parts,
corresponding to the segments before projected,
the latter are to be cut from the printed paper,
and pasted on the ball. 11. Nothing now remains
but to hang the globe as before in a brazen meri-
dian and wooden horizon; to which may be ad-
ded a quadrant of altitude made of brass, and divid-
ed in the same manner as the ecliptic and equator.

If the declinations and right ascensions of the stars be not given, but the longitudes and latitudes in lieu thereof, the surface of the globe is to be projected after the same manner as before; except that, in this case, *D* and *E*, *fig. 2.* are the poles of the ecliptic, and *f b* the ecliptic itself; and that the parallel circles and tropics, with the equator *g d*, and parallels thereof, are to be determined from their declinations. *M. De La Lande*, in his *Astronomie*, 1771, *Tome 3. p. 736*, relates the following methods: "To construct celestial and terrestrial globes, gores must be engraved, which are a kind of projection, or inclosure of the globe (*fig. 3.*) similar to what is now to be explained. The length *PC* of the axis of this curve is equal to a quarter of the circumference of the globe; the intervals of the parallels on the axis *PC* are all equal, the radii of the circles *KDI* which represent the parallels are equal to the cotangents of the latitudes, and the arches of each, as *DI*, are nearly equal to the number of the degrees of the breadth of the gore (which is usually 30°) multiplied by the sine of the latitude: thus, there will be found an intricacy in tracing them; but the difficulty proceeds from the variation found in the trial of the gores when pasting them on the globe, and of the quantity that must be taken from the paper, less on the sides than in the middle; (because the sides are longer) to apply it exactly to the place that it should cover. The method used among workmen to delineate the gores, and which is described by *Mr Bion* (*Usage des Globes*, *tom. 3.*) and by *Mr Robert de Vaugondy* in vol. 7th of the *Encyclopedie*, is little geometrical, but yet is sufficient in practice. Draw on the paper a line *AC*, equal to the chord of 35° , to make the half breadth of the gore; and a perpendicular *PC*, equal to 3 times the chord of 30° , to make the half length: for these papers, the dimensions of which will be equal to the chords, become equal to the arcs themselves when they are pasted on the globe. Divide the height *CP* into 9 parts, if the parallels are to be drawn in every 10° ; divide also the quadrant *BE* into 9 equal parts through each division point of the quadrant as *G*; and through the corresponding point *D* of the right line *CP* draw the perpendiculars *HGF* and *DF*, the meeting of which in *F* gives one of the points of the curve *BEP*, which will terminate the circumference of the gore. When a sufficient number of points are thus found, trace the outline *PIB* with a curved rule. By this construction are given the gore breadths, which are on the globe, in the ratio of the cosines of the latitudes; supposing these breadths taken perpendicular to *CD*, which is not very exact, but it is impossible to prescribe a rigid operation sufficient to make a plane which shall cover a curved surface, and that on a right line *AB* shall make lines *PA*, *PC*, *PB*, equal among themselves, as they ought to be on the globe. To describe the circle *KDI* which is at 30° from the equator: there must be taken above *D* a point which shall be distant from it the value of the tangent of 60° , taken out either from the tables, or on a circle equal to the circumference of the globe to be traced; this point will serve as a centre for the parallel *DI*, which should pass through the point *D*, for it is supposed equal

to that of a cone circumscribing the globe which would touch it at the point *D*. The gores may be traced to every 10 degrees, dividing each parallel, as *KI*, into three equal parts *L* and *M*, and drawing from each through all these division points, curves represent the intermediate meridians between *BR* and *ST*, (*fig. 4.*) The *AQ* may be described by means of the declination from different points of the equator may be found in a table; for 10° , it is 12.81 , $10^\circ 30' = BQ$; for 30° , 11.29 ; &c. It is observed in general, that the paper charts are printed, such as the *Columbian* itself, a part of a line in six inches square, when it is dried after printing; this difference must therefore be corrected in the of the gores: if notwithstanding that, are found too short, it must be remedied by king from the surface of the ball a little square with which it is covered; thereby making the dimensions suitable to the gore as it is. But what is singular is, that in drawing moistened with the paste to apply it on the axis *GH* lengthens, and the side *AI* in such a manner, that neither the length side *ACK* nor that of the axis *GEH* are exactly equal to the quarter of the circumference of the globe, when compared to on the copper, or to the numbered side *fig. 4.* *Mr Bonne* having made several experiments on the dimensions that gores take, they have been parted ready to apply to the globe particularly with the paper named *jesus*, the use of for a globe of one foot in diameter that it was necessary to give to the paper copper, the dimensions shown in *fig. 4.* finding that the radius of the globe corresponds, the half breadth of the gore $\frac{1}{2} \times 12.81$, the distance *AC* for the parallel of 10° taken on the right line *LM* is 12.81 , the deviation from the parallel of 10° to the middle of the gore *ED* is 4, the line *AE* the radius of the parallel of 10° or *CEF* is 4083, and so of the others as the figure. The small circular cap welded under *H*, has its radius 253 inches which it would have if the sine of 30 was the radius of it.

(6.) GLOBES, USES OF THE. See PHYSY, and ASTRONOMY, with the Plates.

(II, i.) * GLOBE AMARANTH, or flower. *n. f.* [*amarantoides.*] A flower.

(ii.) GLOBE AMARANTH. See GLOBE ANIMALCULE. See GLOBE, § 10.

(IV, i.) * GLOBE DAISY. *n. f.* A kind of flower.

(ii.) GLOBE DAISY. See SPHERULE.

(V, i.) * GLOBE FISH. *n. f.* A kind of fish.

(ii.) GLOBE FISH. See OBSTRACULUM.

(VI.) GLOBE FLOWER. See SPHERULE.

(VII, i.) * GLOBE RANUNCULUS. [*ranunculus.*] A plant. *Miller*.

(ii.) GLOBE RANUNCULUS. See SPHERULE.

(VIII, i.) * GLOBE THISTLE. *n. f.* [*biculatus.*] A plant. *Miller*.

35 THISTLE. See **ECHINOPS.**

GLOBE. *adj.* [*globosus*, Latin.] Spheri-

Regions, to which
omission, Adam, is no more
at this garden is to all the earth,
the sea; from one entire globe
into longitude. *Milt. Par. Lest.*

then form'd the moon
and ev'ry magnitude of stars. *Milt.*

GLOBOSITY. *n. f.* [from *globosus*.] Sphericity;
—Why the same eclipse of the sun,
seen to them that live more easterly,
is elevated six degrees above the ho-
rizon, and so lower and lower
ably, 'till at last it appear not at all:
it can be given, but the *globosity* of the
of the Creation.

GLOBOSUS. *adj.* [*globosus*, Lat.] When the
intended to be on the last syllable, the
should be written *globose*, when on the first
have transferred hither a passage of
which this rule has been neglected.]
round.—

over all the plain, and wider far
this *globose* earth in plain outspread;
the courts of God! *Milton.*

brazen instruments of death discharge
flames, and turbid streaming clouds;
globous irons fly, or dreadful hiss,
the air. *Philips.*

GLOBULAR. *adj.* [*globulus*, Lat.] Having
of a small sphere; round; spherical.—
of the atoms of all visible fluids seem-
globular, there being no other figure so
to the making of fluidity. *Grew's Cos-*

GLOBULARIA. *n. f.* [Latin; *globulaire*,
A sticulous flower. *Miller.*

GLOBULARIA, GLOBULAR BLUE DAISY;
the monogynia order, belonging to the
class of plants: and in the natural me-
thod under the 48th order, *Aggregata.*
The calyx is imbricated; the proper one
inferior; the upper lip of the florets
the under one tripartite; the receptacle
is. There are several species; but only
commonly to be met with in our gardens,

GLOBULARIA VULGARIS, or common blue
has broad thick radical leaves three-
lobed at the ends, upright stalks from about 6
to 12 inches high, garnished with spear-shap-
ed leaves, and the top crowned by a globular
head of blue flowers composed of many florets
open. It flowers in June, and makes a
scarance: but thrives best in a moist shady
place. It is propagated by parting the roots
in winter.

GLOBULE. *n. f.* [*globule*, French; *glo-*
bule, Latin.] Such a small particle of matter as is
of a spherical figure; as the red par-
ticles of blood, which swim in a transparent
medium and are easily discovered by the microscope.
They attract one another when they come
within a due distance, and unite like the spheres

of quicksilver. *Quincy.*—The hailstones have o-
paque globules of snow in their centre, to inter-
cept the light within the hail. *Newton's Opticks.*
—Blood consists of red globules, twinning in a
thin liquor called serum: the red globules are e-
lastic, and will break; the vessels which admit
the smaller globules, cannot admit the greater with-
out a disease. *Arbuthnot on Ailments.*

(1.) GLOBULES. See BLOOD, § 6, 7.

* **GLOBULOUS.** *adj.* [from *globulus*.] In form
of a small sphere; round.—The white ends of such
globulous particles proceed from the air included
in the froth. *Boyle.*

(1.) GLOCESTER. See GLOUCESTER.

(2.) GLOCESTER, a village of Northumberland,
on the coast, near Ansell.

GLOCHIDION, in botany: A genus of the
syngenezia order, belonging to the monœcia class
of plants. There is no calyx; the corolla consists
of six egg shaped concave petals; the stamens are
three very small inconspicuous filaments; the an-
thers cylindric and erect; the female flowers have
no calyx; the corolla is parted into six; the peri-
carpium is a depressed roundish capsule with six
cells; the seeds are roundish and solitary.

GLOGAU, or } a duchy or principality of
(1.) GLOGAW, } Silesia, seated on both sides
of the Oder, on the borders of Poland. It is di-
vided into six circles, and produces plenty of
corn, wine, fruits, wood, and iron; and feeds nu-
merous flocks of sheep. Various woollen manu-
factures are carried on in it.

(2.) GLOGAW, GREAT, a strong town of Sile-
sia, the capital of the above duchy, N° 1. It is
not very large, but is well fortified on the side of
Poland. It has a handsome castle, with a tower,
in which several counsellors were condemned by
Duke John, in 1498, to perish with hunger. Be-
sides the Papists, there is a great number of Pro-
testants and Jews. It was taken by assault by Fre-
derick II. king of Prussia, in 1741, and the garri-
son made prisoners. After the peace in 1742, that
king settled the supreme court of justice here, it
being next to Breslaw, the most populous place
in Silesia. It is seated on the Oder, 30 miles N.
W. of Breslaw; 50 SSW. of Posen, and 113 N.
by E. of Prague. Lon. 16. 31. E. Lat. 51. 39. N.

(3.) GLOGAW, LITTLE, or } a town of Silesia,
(3.) GLOGAW, UPPER, } in the duchy of
Oppelen, belonging to Prussia. It is two miles SE.
of Great Glogaw, and 45 NW. of Breslaw. Lon.
16. 15. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

GLOGNITZ, a town of Austria, 18 miles S.
of Vienna.

GLOGOVNITZA, a town of Croatia, 4 miles
NNE. of Creutz.

* **TO GLOMERATE.** *v. a.* [*glomerare*, Latin.]
To gather into a ball or sphere. A filamentous
substance gathered into a ball is said to be *glome-*
rated, but discontinuous particles are *conglobated*.

* **GLOMERATION.** *n. f.* [*glomeration*, Lat.]
1. The act of forming into a ball or sphere. 2. A
body formed into a ball.—The rainbow consisteth
of a *glomeration* of small drops, which cannot fall
but from the air that is very low. *Baron.*

* **GLOMEROUS.** *adj.* [*glomerosus*, Latin.]
Gathered into a ball or sphere, as a ball of thread.

GLOMMACH, a cataract of Scotland, in Ross-

shire, on the heights of Glenelchaig. "The fall of water, (says the rev. Roderick Morison) is very considerable, and rendered awful by the surrounding hills and woods. The light at this place seldom exceeds twilight." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. VI. p. 253.*

GLOMME, a river of Norway, in Aggerhuys, which runs into the North Sea at Fredericksfadt. About 20,000 trees are annually floated down this river; but, being full of cataracts, it is not navigable.

* **GLOOM**, *n. f.* [*glomang*, Saxon, twilight.] 1. Imperfect darkness; dimness; obscurity; defect of light.—

Glowing embers through the room,
Teach light to counterfeit a gloom. *Milton.*

This the seat,
That we must change for heav'n? This mournful gloom,

For that celestial light? *Milton's Par. Lost.*

The still night, not now, as ere men fell,
Wholesome, and cool, and mild; but with black air

Accompany'd; with damps, and dreadful gloom. *Milton.*

Now warm in love, now with'ring in thy bloom,

Lost in a convent's solitary gloom. *Pope.*

2. Cloudiness of aspect; heaviness of mind; sultriness.

* To **GLOOM**, *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To shine obscurely, as the twilight. This sense is not now in use.—

His glist'ring armour made
A little glooming light much like a shade. *Spenser.*

Scarcely had Pegasus in the glooming East
Yet harnessed his fiery-footed team. *Spenser.*

2. To be cloudy; to be dark. 3. To be melancholy; to be sullen.

* **GLOOMILY**, *adv.* [from *gloomy*.] 1. Obscurely; dimly; without perfect light; dispassionally. 2. Sullenly; with cloudy aspect; with dark intentions; not cheerfully.—

See, he comes: how gloomily he looks! *Dryden.*

Gloomily retir'd the spider lives. *Thomson.*

* **GLOOMINESS**, *n. f.* [from *gloom*.] 1. Want of light; obscurity; imperfect light; dimness. 2. Want of cheerfulness; cloudiness of look; heaviness of mind; melancholy.—Neglect spread gloominess upon their humour, and makes them grow sullen and unconvertible. *Collier of the Spiteen.*—The gloominess, in which sometimes the minds of the best men are involved, very often stands in need of such little incitements to mirth and laughter as are apt to disperse melancholy. *Addison.*

* **GLOOMY**, *adj.* [from *gloom*.] 1. Obscure; imperfectly illuminated; almost dark; dismal for want of light.—

These were from without

The growing miseries which Adam saw
Already in part, through hid in gloomiest shade,
To sorrow abandon'd. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Deep in a cavern dwells the drowsy god,
While gloomy morn'g nor the rising sun,
Nor setting visits, nor the lightsome noon.

Dryden's Fables.

—The surface of the earth is clearer or just as the sun is bright or more overcast. *Letters.* 2. Dark of complexion.—

That fair field

Of Eona, where Proserpine gathering
Herself a fairer flow'r, by gloomy Dis
Was gather'd. *Milton's.*

3. Sullen; melancholy; cloudy of look or heart.

GLORIA PATRI. See **DOXOLOGY**.

* **GLORIED**, *adj.* [from *glory*.] 1. Honourable; decorated with glory; dignified with honours. Not in use.—

Old respect

As I suppose, toward your once glori-
My son, now captive, hither hath led
Your younger feet, while mine cast

age

Came lagging after. *Milton's.*

* **GLORIFICATION**, *n. f.* [from *glory*.] The act of giving glory; glorifying your eyes, enter upon the day with-
ving for the preservation of you the last
the glorification of God for the works of
Taylor.

* To **GLORIFY**, *v. a.* [*glorifier*, *Fr.* Lat.] 1. To procure honour or praise.

Two lucid silver currents, when the
Do glorify the banks that bound them
Justice is their virtue; that all
Makes them at sure, and glorifies the

2. To pay honour or praise in worship; glorified when such his excellency, above
is with due admiration acknowledged.

This form and manner of glorifying; God
at that time first begun; but received to
and alledged at that time as an argu-
ment of truth. *Hooker.*

Good fellow, tell us here the circle

That we for thee may glorify the Lord

—All nations shall glorify thy name. *Pf.*

—Our bodies with which the apostle calls
us to glorify God, as well as with our
of Man.—This is the perfection of every
attain its true and proper end; and the
these gifts and endowments, which God
gives us, is to glorify the giver. *Tillotson.*
praise; to honour; to extol.—Who else
find to be most licentious of life, deeper
parts of disobedience and rebellious
him they set up and glorify. *Spenser on*

No chymist yet the elixir got,

But glorifies his pregnant pot,

If by the way to him befall,

Some odoriferous thing, or medicinal

4. To exalt to glory in heaven; to raise
trial beatitude.—If God be glorified in I
shall also glorify him in himself, and shall
way glorify him. *John, xii. 32.*—Whom
fied them he also glorified. *Rom. viii.*
members of the church remaining, being
sanctified, shall be eternally glorified;
the whole church be truly and perfectly
Pearson.—The soul, being immortal, at
time or other, resume its body again in
manner. *Augustine.*

GLORIOSA, SUPERSUBLIT: A *geog.*

a order, belonging to the hexandria clata and in the natural method ranking unith order, *Sarmentaceæ*. The corolla isous, undulated, and reflected; the style There is but one species, a native of

It has a thick, fleshy, tuberous root, orth from its centre declinated round wing 8 or 10 feet long, and garnished long narrow leaves running out into a minated by a long tendril. From the t of the stalks proceed large flame-coloping flowers, consisting of six widely reflected petals. It flowers in June and l is of admirable beauty, whence its his plant requires the protection of a in this country. The flower-stalks shoot larch or April; which, being long and nust have tall sticks for their support. s are propagated by offsets, which are in tolerable plenty, and may be separane after the stalks decay, or in spring r ones arise.

GLORIOUS. *adj.* [*gloriosus*, Lat. *gloriosus*, fastful; proud; haughty; ostentatious.

followers, who make themselves as of the commendation of those they solbusiness for want of secrecy. *Bacon*.— are *glorious* must needs be factious; for stands upon comparisons. *Bacon*. 2. ustrious; excellent.—It is frequently uological writers, to express the brightomphant sanctity rewarded in heaven.— know that thou art Lord, the only God, is over the whole world. *Dan.* iii. 22.— us in respect of the brightness and splencelestial body, still made more *glorious* ick by the authority which his Father itted to him of universal Judge. *Nel-*

tial justice holds her equal scales, nger virtue does the weight incline; r thee thy *glorious* foe prevails, defends the cause that once was thine.

Prior.

remember we are Cato's friends, like men who claim that *glorious* title.

Addison's Cato.

t stand amongst the first servants of he *glorious* amongst those that have good fight. *Law*—If there be nothing as doing good, if there is nothing that o like to God, then nothing can be so he use of our money, as to use it all f love and goodness. *Law*.

GLORIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *glorious*.] No lidly; illustriously.—They inspire with ial flames which shine so *gloriously* in . *Dryden's Duf*.—

wits sometimes may *gloriously* offend, to faults true criticks dare not mind.

Pope.

GLORY. *n. s.* [*gloire*, Fr. *gloria*, Lat.]

old poets it was used sometimes as one ore.] 1. Praise paid in adoration.—*Glo-* n the highest. *Luke* ii. 12. 2. The feven prepared for those that please God. ult guide me with thy counsel, and af-

terwards receive me into thy *glory*. *Psalms* lxxiii. 24.—

Then enter into *glory* and resume

His seat at God's right hand, exalted high

Above all names in heav'n.

Milton.

—It is hardly possible for you to beseech and in-treat God to make any one happy in the highest enjoyments of his *glory* to all eternity, and yet be troubled to see him enjoy the much smaller gifts of God, in this short and low state of human life. *Law*. 3. Honour; praise; fame; renown; ce-lebrity.—

Think it no *glory* to swell in tyranny. *Sidney.*

Glory is like a circle in the water,

Which never ceaseth to enlarge itself,

'Till by broad spreading it disperse to nought.

Shak.

And with that word and warning soon was

light,

Each soldier longing for near coming *glory*.

Fairfax.

Israel's bright sceptre far less *glory* brings,

There have been fewer friends on earth than kings.

Cowley.

—Can we imagine that neither the ambition of princes or interest, or gain, in private persons, or curiosity and the desire of knowledge, or the *glo-* ry of discoveries, could ever move them in that endless time to try their fortunes upon the sea. *Burnet*.—

Your sex's *glory* 'tis to shine unknown,

Of all applause, be fondest of your own. *Young.*

4. Splendour; magnificence.—Solomon, in all his *glory*, was not arrayed like one of these. *Mat.* vi. 29.—

Treated so ill, chas'd from your throne,

Returning, you adorn the town;

And with a brave revenge do shew

Their *glory* went and came with you. *Waller.*

—Aristotle says, that should a man under ground converie with works of art, and be afterwards brought up into the open day, and see the several *glories* of the heaven and earth, he would pro-nounce them the works of God. *Speculator*. 5. Lustre; brightness.—

Now sleeping flocks on their soft fleeces lie;

The moon, serene in *glory*, mounts the sky.

Pope's Winter.

From op'ning skies may streaming *glories* shine,

And saints embrace thee with a love like mine.

Pope.

6. A circle of rays which surrounds the heads of saints in pictures.—It is not a converting but a crowning grace; such an one as irradiates, and puts a circle of *glory* about the head of him upon whom it descends. *South*.—A smile plays with a surprising agreeableness in the eye, breaks out with the brightest distinction, and sits like a *glory* upon the countenance. *Collier*. 7. Pride; boastfulness; arrogance.—By the vain *glory* of men they entered into the world, and therefore shall they come shortly to an end. *Wisd.* xiv. 14.—

On death-beds some in conscious *glory* lie,

Since of the doctor in the mode they die.

Young.

8. Generous pride.—The success of those wars was too notable to be unknown to your ears, to which

which all worthy fame hath *glory* to come unto.

Sidney.

(2.) **GLORY.** See § 1. *Def.* 3. The desire of fame and reputation appears to be one of the principal springs of action in human society. *Glory*, therefore, is not to be contemned, as some of the ancient philosophers affected to teach; but we should regulate our pursuit after it by the dictates of reason; and if the public approbation will not follow us in that course, we must leave her behind. False ideas of glory have deluged the world with blood in all ages. If the actions of the hero, from the prejudices of mankind, conduct soonest to glory and with the greatest splendor, it is because the service he has done seems to be for *all*; and because we think, without reflecting, that he has saved our habitations, our wealth, our children, and every thing that is dear to us. If the man of science, who in his study has discovered and calculated the motions of the heavenly bodies, who in his alembics has unveiled some of the secrets of nature, or who has exhibited to mankind a new art, rises to fame with less noise; it is because the utility which he procures is more widely diffused, though it is often of less service to the present than to succeeding generations. The consequences, therefore, of these two advantages, are as opposite as the causes are different; and while the benefits procured by the warrior appear to have no more influence, and while his glory becomes obscure, that of a celebrated writer or inventor still increases, and is more and more enlarged. His works bring back his name to that age which uses them, and thus still add to his celebrity and fame. This posthumous fame indeed has been decry'd by some writers. The author of the *Religion of Nature delineated* has treated it as highly irrational and absurd. "In reality (says he) the man is not known ever the more to posterity, because his name is transmitted to them: He doth not live, because his name does. When it is said, Julius Cæsar subdued Gaul, conquered Pompey, &c. it is the same thing as to say, the conqueror of Pompey was Julius Cæsar; i. e. Cæsar and the conqueror of Pompey is the same thing; Cæsar is as much known by one designation as by the other. The amount then is only this, that the conqueror of Pompey conquered Pompey; or somebody conquered Pompey; or rather, since Pompey is as little known now as Cæsar, somebody conquered somebody. Such a puerbness is this boasted immortality! and such is the thing called *glory* among us! To the discerning, this fame is mere air!" But surely it were to consider too curiously (as Horatio says to Hamlet) to consider thus. To be convinced of the great advantage of cherishing this high regard to posterity, this noble desire of an after life in the breath of others, one need only look back upon the history of the ancient Greeks and Romans. For what other principle was it which produced that exalted strain of virtue in those days, that may well serve, in many respects, as a model to these? Was it not the *consentans laus bonorum*, the *incorrupta vox bene judicantium* (as Tully calls it), "the concurrent approbation of the good, the uncorrupted applause of the wise," that animated their most generous pursuits? In short, can it be reasonable to extinguish a passion which

our Creator has universally lighted up man's breast. Revelation is so far from eradicating the seed, which the Deity has planted in our nature, that it rather cherishes and forward its growth. To *quit honour*, and to be *lost in every branch*, are in the number of those merits which the Jewish dispensation required, and the person from whom Author of the Christian system receives is herself represented as rejoicing that *missions should call her blessed*.

* To **GLORY** *v. n.* (*glorior*, Lat.) to be proud of.—With like judgment when he had happened to do a thing he had performed some notable mischief.—They were wont, in the pride of their proceedings, to *glory*, that whereas Luther blow away the roof, and Zuinglius the walls of popish superstition, the last work of all remained, which was to very ground and foundation of popery. Let them look they *glory* not.

Nor build their evils on the graves of
For then my guiltless blood must
them.

—Your *glorifying* is not good. 1 Cor.
Thou hast seen mount A
While storms and tempests thunders
And oceans break their billows at
It stands unmoved, and *glories* in it

—This title of Freeholder is what I
and what most effectually calls to the
happiness of that government under
Addison.—If others may *glory* in the
may not we, whose parents were call
attend on him at his altar? *Atturb*
out of the reach of misfortune; no
should *glory* in his prosperity. *Clary*

GLOS, or GLOS LA FERRIÈRE
France, in the dep. of Evreux, 9 mi
gle, and 18 W. of Evreux.

* To **GLOSE** *v. a.* To flatter;
Hammer. See To **GLOZE**.

(1.) * **GLOSS** *n. f.* [*γλῶσσα*; *gloss*]
A scholium; a comment.—They ne
tence, which mentioneth the word
but forthwith their *glosses* upon it
preached, the scripture explained,
unto us in sermons. *Hooker*.—

If then all souls, both good and ill
With gen'ral voice, that souls can
'Tis not man's flatter'ing *gloss*,
speech,

Which, like God's oracles, can new
—Some mutter at certain passages
putting ill *glosses* upon the text, and
the left hand what I offer with the right

All this, without a *gloss* or comment
He could unriddle in a moment.

—In many places he has perverted
by his *glosses*, and interpreted my w
phemy and bawdry, of which they
ty. *Dryden's Fables*.—

They give the scandal, and the
Their *glosses* teach an age too apt to

the text in short *glosses*, was Accur-
l. *Baker on Learning*.—
res, cov'nants, articles they draw,
he fields themselves, and larger far
codes with all their *glosses* are. *Pope*.
lustre. In this sense it seems to have
ation; it has perhaps some affinity

coat all over-grown with rust,
neath enveloped with gold,
ftering *gloss* dark'ned with filthy dust.
Spenser.

You are a sectary,
e plain truth: your painted *gloss* dis-
e,
hat understand you, words and weak-
Shakespeare.

opinions from all sorts of people,
ould be worn now in their newest *gloss*.
Shakespeare.
t will be whether it will polish so well;
es are more resplendent than plates of
s.—

Weeds that the wind did tose
ns wore: the youths, woven coats,
cast a faint dim *gloss*,
of oil. *Chapman's Iliads*.

: colour of devotion, giving a lustre to
nd a *gloss* to humility. *South*.—Groves,
eadows, are at any season pleasant to
but never so much as in the opening
g, when they are all new and fresh,
rst *gloss* upon them. *Spectator*. 3. An
n artfully specious; a specious repre-
This sense seems to partake of both
—

ainters oft with filly poets join,
e world with strange but vain conceit;
ings the stuff, the other stamps the coin,
needs nought else but *glosses* of deceit.
Sidney.

art of my secret meaning to draw you
hatred, or to set upon the face of this
fairer *gloss* than the naked truth doth
Her.—

seems with forged quaint conceit
gloss upon his bad intent. *Henry VI*.
The common *gloss*
ogians. *Milton*.

ss is derived from the Greek *γλωσσα*,
ie office] of a *gloss* being to explain
s that of the tongue to discover the
COMMENTARY.

ss is likewise used for a literal transla-
book, into another language word for

GLOSS. *v. a.* [*glosser*, French, from
x. To explain by comment.—

chment then, large as the fields, he draws
es, big as *gloss'd* civil laws. *Donne*.
ate by specious exposition or represen-
this the paradise, in description where-
glossing and deceiving eloquence hath
? *Hooker*.—

not reason wholly on your conduct?
e the art to *gloss* the foulest cause.

Philip's Briton.
ellish with superficial lustre.—

But thou, who lately of the common strain
Wert one of us, if still thou dost retain
The same ill habits, the same follies too,
Gloss'd over only with a saint-like shew,
Then I resume the freedom which I gave,
Still thou art bound to vice, and still a slave.

Dryden's Persf.

(2.) * To GLOSS. *v. n.* 1. To comment.—

Thou detain'st *Briseis* in thy hands,
By priestly *glossing* on the gods commands. *Dryd.*

2. To make lly remarks.—

Her equals first observ'd her growing zeal,
And laughing *gloss'd*, that *Abra* serv'd so well.

Prior.

* GLOSSARY. *n. f.* [*glossarium*, Lat. *glossaire*,
Fr.] A dictionary of obscure or antiquated words.
—According to Varro, when *delubrum* was ap-
plied to a place, it signified such a one, *in quo dei*
simulacrum dedicatum est; and also in the old *glos-*
surics. *Stillingfleet*.—I could add another word to
the *glossary*. *Baker*.

* GLOSSATOR. *n. f.* [*glossateur*, Fr. from
gloss.] A writer of glosses; a commentator.—The
reason, why the assertion of a single judge does not
prove the existence of judicial acts, is because his
office is to pronounce judgment, and not to be-
come an evidence: but why may not the same be
said of two judges? Therefore, in this respect,
the *glossator's* opinion must be false. *Ayliffe*.

* GLOSSER. *n. f.* [*glossarius*, Lat.] 1. A scho-
liast; a commentator. 2. A polisher.

* GLOSSINESS. *n. f.* [from *glossy*.] Smooth
polish; superficial lustre.—Their surfaces had a
smoothness and *glossiness* much surpassing whate-
ver I had observed in marine or common salt. *Boyle*.

GLOSSOCOMMON, in mechanics, a name
given by Mr Heron to a machine composed of va-
rious dented wheels with pinions, for raising great
weights.

* GLOSSOGRAPHER. *n. f.* [*γλωσσα* and *γραφω*] A
scholiast; a commentator.

* GLOSSOGRAPHY. *n. f.* [*γλωσσα* and *γραφω*.] The
writing of commentaries.

GLOSSOPETRA, or GLOTTOPETRA, [from
γλωσσα, a tongue, and *πετρα*, a stone.] in natural
history, a kind of extraneous fossil, somewhat in
form of a serpent's tongue; frequently found in
the island of Malta and divers other parts. See
Plate CLXVII, fig. 4. The vulgar notion is, that
they are the tongues of serpents petrified. Hence
their extraordinary virtue in curing the bites of
serpents. The general opinion of naturalists is,
that they are the teeth of fishes, left at land by
the waters of the deluge, and since petrified. The
several sizes of the teeth of the same species, and
those of the several different species of sharks, af-
ford a vast variety of these fossil substances. Their
usual colours are black, bluish, whitish, yellowish,
or brown; and in shape they usually approach to
a triangular figure. Some are simple, others tri-
cuspidate, having a small point on each side of the
large one: many of them are quite straight; but
they are frequently found crooked, and bent in all
directions; many of them are serrated on their
edges, and others plain; some are undulated on
their edges, and slightly serrated on these undu-
lations. They differ also in size as much as in fi-
gure; the larger being 4 or 5 inches long, and the

unlike

ster-house lies Strongbow who conquer-

There are 12 chapels in Gloucester, and monuments of many great persons. John made it a borough, governed by Henry III., who was crowned here, corporation. By its present charter

les I, it is governed by a steward, a recorder, 12 aldermen, out of whom is chosen, a town-clerk, 2 sheriffs, chosen out of 26 common councilmen, a sword and 4 serjeants. It has 12 incorporated companies, whose masters attend the all public occasions, &c. Besides the there are 5 parish churches, (formerly hospitals, and an infirmary. There one bridge over the river Severn, with a wharf, and customhouse. K. Edward I. liament here in 1272, wherein some were made, now called the *Statutes of*

and he erected a gate on the S. side of still called by his name, though almost in the civil wars. Richard II. also liament here: and Richard III, in conf his having born the title of *Duke of* added the two adjacent hundreds of J King's Barton to it, gave it his sword maintenance, and made it a county of

after the restoration, the hundreds away by act of parliament, and the I down; because the inhabitants stout against Charles I, when he besieged it which, though the siege was raised of Essex, it suffered 20,000 l. damage, houses and 6 churches destroyed, which so much that it has scarce yet recovered size and grandeur. It has many

statues of the English kings; several es supported with pillars; and large nonasteries, which were once very nu-

has a barley market; and a hall for called the *Booth hall*. Its chief manu-ns. In this branch the number of peo- d is astonishing, there being at least ferent processes. Under the bridge is

ne to supply the town, which is also water from Robin Hood's well, to is a fine walk from the city. The fa-

n way, called *Ermin Street*, which be-avid's in Pembrokeshire, and reaches

ton, passes through this city. The on Wed. and Sunday; and fairs A-

y 5th, Sept. 28th, and Nov. 28th; ically for fat hogs. Here is a charity ove 80 children, of whom above 70 and a well endowed blue coat school.

ds two members to parliament. It is NE. of Bristol, and 106 WNW. of m. 2. 15. W. Lat. 51. 48. N.

CESTER, a town and township of 4, in Essex county, containing 5 pa- 317 citizens in 1795. It has a good ports in 1794 amounted to 229,613

comprehends Cape Anne, and lies 16 E. of Salem, and 34 NE. of Bolton.

CESTER, a large maritime county of bounded on the N. by Burlington y the Atlantic, S. by Salem, Cum- Cape May counties, and W. by the

PART II.

Delaware. It is 62 miles long, and 28 broad; and is divided into 10 townships; containing 13,172 citizens, and 191 slaves, in 1795. It abounds with iron ore, which is manufactured. A glass-work has also been erected. Woodbury is the capital.

(5.) GLOUCESTER, a small town in the above county, (N^o 4.) formerly the capital, on the E. bank of the Delaware, 3 miles below Philadelphia.

(6.) GLOUCESTER, a large township of Rhode Island, in Providence county, containing 4025 citizens, in 1795.

(7.) GLOUCESTER, a fertile and well cultivated county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Piankittank, E. by Mathews county and Chesapeake bay, S. and SW. by York river, and NW. by King and Queen counties. It is 55 miles long and 30 broad; and contained 6435 citizens, and 7563 slaves, in 1795.

(8.) GLOUCESTER, a town in the above county, (N^o 7.) on the N. side of the York, 17 miles from York Town, and 80 SE. of Richmond.

(9.) GLOUCESTER ISLAND, or DUKE OF GLOUCESTER'S ISLAND, an island in the South Sea, 6 miles long and 1 broad. The natives are armed with long pikes. Lon. 140. 4. W. Lat. 19. 15. S.

(10, 11.) GLOUCESTER ISLANDS, two isles in the South Sea, lying the one in Lon. 146. 0. W. and Lat. 20. 38. S.; the other in Lon. 146. 15. W. and Lat. 20. 34. S.

(1.) * GLOVE. *n. s.* [*glofe*, Saxon, from *the glove*, Danish, to divide.] Cover of the hands.—

They flew about like chaff i' th' wind;
For haste some left their masks behind,
Some could not stay their *gloves* to find *Dryden*.
White *gloves* were on his hands, and on his head

A wreath of laurel *Dryden*.

(2.) GLOVES, in commerce, are distinguished into leathern, silk, thread, cotton, worked, &c. Leathern gloves are made of chamois, kid, lamb, doe, elk, buff, &c. Gloves now pay a duty to the king, which increases according to their value.

(3.) GLOVE, THROWING THE, was a practice or ceremony very usual among our ancestors, being the challenge whereby another was defied to single combat. See BATTLE, § 3. It is still retained at the coronation of our kings; when the king's champion casts his glove in Westminster-hall. See CHAMPION, § 1-3. Favyn supposes the custom to have arisen from the eastern nations, who in all their sales of lands, goods, &c. used to give the purchaser their glove by way of investiture. To this effect he quotes Ruth iv. 7. where the Chaldee paraphrase calls *glove* what the common version renders *flow*. He adds, that the Rabbins interpret by *glove* that passage in the cviiith Psalm, "Over *Edom* will I cast out my *flow*."— He also says, that the custom of blessing *gloves* in the coronation of the kings of France, was a relic of the eastern practice of giving possession with the *glove*, l. xvi. p. 1017, &c. Anciently the judges were prohibited to wear gloves on the bench. And at present in the stables of some princes, it is not safe to go in without pulling off the gloves.

* To GLOVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover as with a glove.—

My limbs,
Weaken'd with grief, being now enrag'd with
grief,

Are thrice themselves: hence therefore, thou
nice crutch;

A scaly gauntlet now, with joints of steel,
Must glove this hand. *Shak. Henry IV.*

The next he preys on is her palm,
That alms'ner of transpiring balm;
So lost, 'tis air but once remov'd;

Tender as 'twere a jelly glaz'd. *Clenweland.*

(1.) * GLOVER. *n. f.* [from *glove*] One
whose trade is to make or sell gloves.—Does he
not wear a great round beard like a *glover's* par-
ing knife? *Shak. Merry Wives.*

(2.) GLOVER, Richard, the author of *Leonidas*
and several other esteemed works, was the son of
Richard Glover a Hamburgh merchant in London,
and was born in St Martin's lane in 1712. He
very early showed a strong propensity to poetry;
and while at school, he wrote, amongst other
pieces, a poem to the memory of Sir Isaac New-
ton, prefixed to the view of that incomparable
author's philosophy, published in 4to. in 1728, by
Dr Pemberton. But though possessed of talents
calculated to excel in literature, he devoted his
attention to commerce, and commenced a Ham-
burgh merchant. He still, however, cultivated the
belles lettres, and associated with persons em-
inent in science. One of his earliest friends was Mat-
thew Green, the author of some admirable poems,
which in 1737, after his death, were collected
and published by Mr Glover. In 1737, Mr Glo-
ver married Miss Nunn, with whom he received
a handsome fortune; and published *Leonidas, a*
poem, in 4to, which soon passed through 3 editions.
It was inscribed to Lord Cobham; and on its first
appearance was received with great approbation.
Lord Lyttelton, in his *Common Sense*, and in a
poem addressed to the author, praised it in the
warmest terms; and Dr Pemberton published,
Observations on Poetry, especially epic, occasioned
by the late poem upon *Leonidas*, 1738, 12mo,
merely to point out its beauties. In 1739, Mr
Glover published *London or the Progress of Com-
merce*, 4to; and a ballad intitled, *Hofier's Ghost*.
Both these pieces seem to have been written with
a view to incite the public to resent the misbeha-
viour of the Spaniards; and the latter had a very
considerable effect. The political dissensions at
this period raged with great violence especially in
the metropolis; and at different meetings of the
livery, Mr Glover was called to the chair, and
acquitted himself in a very able manner, his con-
duct being patriotic and his speeches masterly.
His talents for public speaking, his knowledge of
political affairs, and his information concerning
trade and commerce, soon afterwards pointed
him out to the merchants of London as a proper
person to conduct their application to parliament
on the neglect of their trade. He accepted the
office; and in summing up the evidence gave
striking proofs of his oratorical powers. This
speech was pronounced Jan. 27, 1742. In 1744,
the Duchess of Marlborough died, and by her will
left to Mr Glover and Mr Mallet 500*l.* each, to
write the History of the Duke of Marlborough's
Life. This bequest, however, never took place.

It is supposed that Mr Glover very ear-
ly had his share of it; and Mallet, though
long as he lived, never made any pro-
fit. About this period Mr Glover withdrew
from public notice. He had been
with the attention of Frederic Prince
who once presented him with a copy
of the Classics, elegantly bound; and,
sitting himself on account of the
in his circumstances, sent him 500*l.*
Mr Glover produced at Drury-lane
Medea; which was acted 9 nights.
Mr Mossop, Mrs Cibber, and
ard, were among the performers;
berion wrote a pamphlet to recom-
mend it, 1761, Mr Glover published *Medea*,
written on the Greek model; but it
until 1767, when it appeared at Dr
Mrs Yates's benefit. At the accession
sent majesty, having surmounted his
he was chosen M. P. for Weymouth.
time, he interested himself about
one of Mr Sullivan's elections; and
introduced the fable of the man, horse,
whence he drew this conclusion, that
merchants made use of armed force
their trade, it would end in their
1770, his poem of *Leonidas* was repub-
lished, 12mo, corrected and extended
to 12; several new characters being
the old ones placed in new situations,
mities arising, in June 1772, from
the bank of Douglas, Heron, and Co.
occasioned Mr Glover's taking a very
in the settling those complicated
Feb. 1774, he called the minutants
together, at the King's Arms tavern
proposals before them for the security
mands, with which they were fully
also undertook to manage the inter-
merchants and traders of London
the trade of Germany and Holland,
dealers in foreign linens, in their ap-
parliament in May 1774. Both his speech
occasions were published that year.

engaged on behalf of the West India
in their application to parliament, as
witnesses, and summed up the evidence
masterly manner. This speech was
For his exertions in this business, he
mented with a service of plate, worth
ter this he retired to ease and indepen-
spent the remainder of his days with di-
fides an epic poem of considerable len-
some tragedies and comedies in MS
Nov. 25th, 1785; leaving a most esti-
mable man, a citizen, and an author.

(3.) GLOVER, a township of Ver-
mont county, N.E. of Craftsborough.

* To GLOUT. *v. n.* [A low word
find no etymology.] To pout; to
It is still used in Scotland.—

She lurks in midst of all her den,
From out a ghastly whirlpool all he
Where, *gloating* round her rock,
falls.

ring with sullen spight, the fury shook
 stted locks, and blasted with each look.

Garth.

SW. n. f. [from the verb.] 1. Shining
 Vehemence of passion. 3. Brightness
 of colour.—

he pale complexion of true love,
 e red glow of scorn and proud disdain.

Shak.

iving glow his bloomy beds display,
 g in bright diversities of day.

Pope.

suppose that the great pile might hap-
 pended with the ornamental, that the
 rave, and majestic dignity of Raffaele
 te with the glow and virtue of a Paulo,
 et, are totally mistaken. *Reynolds.*

* GLOW. *v. a.* [*glewan*, Saxon; *gloy-*
 1] To make hot so as to shine. Not

On each side her

pretty dimpled boys, like smiling Cupids,
 ivers colour'd fans, whose wind did seem
 w the delicate cheeks which they did
 ul.

Shak.

To GLOW. *v. n.* 1. To be heated so as
 without flame.—

ithence silence lesseneth not my fire,
 d it flames, and hidden it does glow,
 reveal what ye so much desire.

Spenser.

His goodly eyes,
 'er the files and musters of the war
 low'd like plated Mars, now bend, now
 n

ffice upon a tawny front.

Shak.

nd, wife to the emperor Henry II. to
 innocency, did take seven glowing irons,
 another, in her bare hands, and had
 o harm.

all parts like, but all alike inform'd
 adiant light, as glowing iron with fire.

Milton.

m with vehement heat.—

would you find it easy to compose
 ettled steeds, when from their nostrils
 ws
 rching fire that in their entrails glows.

Addis. Ovid.

op'ning heav'nstheir happy regions show,
 waving gulphs with flaming vengeance
 w.

Smith.

that glow

of woe,

Pope.

l heat of body.—

Did not his temples glow

ame sultry winds and scorching heats?

Addis. Cato.

cord slides swiftly through his glowing
 ids.

Gay.

ibit a strong bright colour.—

With smile that glow'd.

l rosy red, love's proper hue.

Milton.

in a gown that glows with Tyrian rays.

Dryden.

A malicious joy,
 red and fiery beams cast through your
 ge

ing pleasure.

Dryd. and Lee's Oed.

the mingled strength of shade and light,

A new creation rises to my sight;

Such heav'nly figures from his pencil flow,

So warm with life his blended colours glow,

Amidst the soft variety I'm lost.

Addison.

Like th' ethereal glow'd the green expanse.

Savage.

Fair ideas flow,

Strike in the sketch, or in the picture glow.

Pope.

Not the fair fruit that on yon branches glows.

With that ripe red th' autumnal sun bestows,

Can move the god.

Pope.

Each pleasing Blount shall endless smiles be-

flow,

And fair Belinda's blush for ever glow.

Pope.

Here clearer stars glow round the frozen pole

Pope.

5. To feel passion of mind, or activity of fancy.—

You strive in vain

To hide your thoughts from him, who knew
 too well

The inward glowings of a heart in love.

Cato.

Forc'd compliments and formal bows

Will shew thee just above neglect;

The fire with which thy lover glows,

Will settle into cold respect.

Prior.

Did Shadrach's zeal my glowing breast inspire

To weary tortures, and rejoice in fire.

Prior.

Let the gay conscience of a life well spent

Calm ev'ry thought, inspire ev'ry grace,

Glow in thy heart, and smile upon thy face.

Pope.

With furies surrounded,

Despairing, confounded.

He trembles, he glows,

Amidst Rhodope's snows.

Pope.

So perish all, whose breasts ne'er learn'd to
 glow

For others good, or melt at others woe.

Pope.

To praise is always hard,

When real virtue fires the glowing bard.

Lewis.

6. To rage or burn as a passion.—

A fire which every windy passion blows;

With pride it mounts, and with revenge it glows.

Dryden.

When crept into aged veins,

Love slowly burns, and long remains;

It glows, and with a sullen heat,

Like fire in logs, it warms us long.

Shadwell.

(1.) * GLOWWORM. *v. f.* [*glow* and *worm*.] A

small creeping insect with a luminous tail.—

The honey bags steal from the humble bees,

And for night-tapers crop their waxen thighs,

And light them at the fiery glowworm's eyes.

Shak.

The glowworm shews the matten to be near,

And 'gins to pale his ineffectual fire.

Shak.

—A great light drowneth a smaller that it cannot
 be seen; as the sun that of a glowworm.

Bacon's

Nat. Hist.—

The man, who first upon the ground

A glowworm spy'd, supposing he had found

A moving diamond, a breathing stone;

For life it had, and like those jewels shone:

He held it dear, 'till by the springing day

Informed, he threw the worthless worm away.

Waller.

(2.) GLOWWORM, in zoology. See LAMPYRIS.

* GLOZE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Flattery;
 insinuation.—

Now to play dealing; lay these gloves by.

Shak.

3. Specious show; gloss. Not used.—

Precious couches full oft are shaken with a fever,

If then a bodily evil in a bodily *gloss* be not hidden,

Shall such morning dews be an ease to the heat of a love's fire?

Sidney.

To *GLOZE*. *v. n.* [*glezen*, Saxon.] 1. To flatter; to wheedle; to insinuate; to fawn.—

Man will hearken to his *glozing* lies,

And easily transgress.

Milt. Par. Lost

So *gloz'd* the tempter, and his progeny: 'd:
Into the heart of Eve his words made way.

Milton.

—A false *glozing* parasite would call his foothar-dine's valour, and then he may go on boldly, because blindly, and by mistaking himself for a lion, come to perish like an ass. *Sonnet.*

Now for a *glozing* speech.

Fair protestations, specious marks of friendship.

Philips.

2. To comment. This should be *gloss*.—

Which Salique land the French unjustly *gloze*
To be the realm of France. *Shak. Henry V.*

• *GLOZEN*. *n. f.* [from *gloze*.] A flatterer.

• *GLUBOKAIA*, a to *n. f.* Russian in Kullivan.

• *GLUCINA*, [from *glucina*, to sweeten,] a peculiar earth discovered by Vauquelin in the beryl and emerald, so named from its characteristie property of forming salts of a saccharine taste. Its general properties are these: 1. It is white; 2. insipid; 3. adhesive to the tongue; 4. insoluble in water, and 5. in ammoniac; but, 6. soluble in the fixed alkalis, 7. in the carbonate of ammoniac; and, 8. in almost all the acids, except the carbonic and phosphoric, and forming salts of a saccharine taste; 9. infusible; but, 10. fusible with borax into a transparent glass; 11. It absorbs $\frac{1}{2}$ of its carbonic acid; 12. decomposes the aluminous salts; and, 13. is not precipitable by well saturated hydro sulphurets. Its specific characters, which are not found united in any of the other known earths, are these: 1. Its salts are saccharine, and slightly astringent; 2. It is soluble in the carbonate of ammoniac; 3. It is very soluble in the sulphuric acid by excess; 4. It decomposes the aluminous salts; 5. It is completely precipitated from its solutions by ammoniac; and, 6. Its affinity for the acids is intermediate between magnesia and alumina. 100 parts of beryl contain 16 of glucina. M. Vauquelin justly remarks, that, "in the sciences, a body, a principle, or a property, formerly unknown, though it may often have been used, or even held in the hands, and referred to other simple species, may, when once discovered, be afterwards found in a great variety of situations, and be applied to many useful purposes. Chemistry affords many recent examples of this truth."

• *GLUCKOV*, a town of Russia, in Novgorod.

• *GLUCKSBURG*, a town and fort of Denmark, in *Sh. w. k.*; 9 miles E. of Flensburg.

• *GLUCKSTADT*, a considerable town of Germany, in the duchy of Holstein, with a strong castle, 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ m. to Denmark; seated on the Elbe, near its mouth; 28 miles NW. of Hamburg. *Lon.* 9. 15 E. *Lat.* 53. 54 N.

(1.) * *GLUE*. *n. f.* [*glu*, Fr. *gluten*, Lat. *Welsh.*] A viscous body commonly made

ing the skins of animals to a jelly; any tenacious matter by which bodies are held together; a cement — Water, and all fluids, receive dry and more terrestrial bodies, on the one hand, and more fluid bodies, on the other; so that, as well said by one of the ancients of earth, every substance, one is a *glue* to another. *Nat. Hist.*—The driest and most transparent is the best. *Mason.*—

To build the earth did chance matter

And through the parts cementing glue.

—The flowers of grains, mixed with water, make a sort of *glue*. *Arbuthnot on Almonds.*

(2.) *GLUE* is differently denominated according to its preparation and the various uses it is intended for; as *common glue*, *glove glue*, and *gum glue*. But the two last are more properly *size*. The common or strong glue is made by carpenters, joiners, cabinet makers, &c. is made of skins of animals, as oxen, cows, sheep, &c. Whole skins are rarely used for this purpose, but only the shavings, parings, or the feet (sinews), &c. The whole skin, however, is undoubtedly the best, as that made of sinews is the very worst.

(3.) *GLUE*, METHOD OF MAKING.—To make glue of parings, they first steep them in water; then, washing them well out, they pass, while hot, through a sieve, to separate the impurities; and then let it stand some time to purify it further; when all the filth has subsided to the bottom of the vessel, they melt it a second time. They next pour it into flat moulds, whence it is taken out pretty solid, and cut into square pieces or cakes; afterwards dry it in the wind, in a sort of net; and at last string it to finish its dryness. The glue made of sinews, feet, &c. is made in the same manner; only with this difference, they bone and scour the sinews, &c. and do not steep. Of this commodity there is a considerable exportation from England; the English is universally allowed to be the best. It is so, not only from the excellency of the materials, but from the skill of the manufacturers. This is the Flanders glue. In Denmark it is made by the tanners from fragment skins dried with much care. In France it is a separate trade; and the glue makers pick materials as they can, from the several skins, and boiling these with cow heels, &c. glue; which as they purchase every thing to render it dear, as well as of an inferior quality. The duty on exportation is 100, and on importation 3s. 10d. on every cwt. The best glue is made from the skins of the ox, and is the best if a bull's head is used. Glue is considerably improved in quality by keeping it in water for some time, and then drying it; or by laying a piece of it to steep 3 or 4 days in water, and then drying it; or by boiling it well considerably without melting, and then drying it; or by boiling it well considerably without melting, and then drying it.

will hold against fire or water, it is made thus: Mix a handful of quick-oz. of linseed oil; boil them to a good hen spread it on tin plates in the shade, become exceeding hard, but may be red over a fire as glue, and will effect is to admiration. Neumann observes, dissolved in a solution of lapis calaminatus of nitre, and afterwards inspissated, extremely slippery tenacious mass, which is use for entangling flies, caterpillars, insects, if it were not too expensive.

E, METHOD OF PREPARING AND USING A QUART OF WATER ON THE FIRE; then put lb. of good glue, and boil them gently till the glue be entirely dissolved and of stence. When glue is to be used, it is made thoroughly hot; after which, with a pen or brush, besmear the faces of the joints as possible; then clapping them together, lengthwise one upon another, 2 or 3 together, till they are close; and let them stand till they are dry and firm. Mr Boyle gives the receipt for preparing a fine strong glue as follows: Steep the isinglass for 24 hours in brandy. When the menstruum has become soft, and the isinglass is dissolved, they must be mixed together, and kept stirring till they are well mixed, and till a drop thereof, suffers to turn into a strong jelly. Then strain the mixture through a clean linen cloth into a bottle, and be kept close stopped. A gentle heat will dissolve this glue into a transparent and colourless fluid, but very strong; so that wood glued together with it will break rather than in the place where they are joined.

GLUE v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To join with cement.—

I fear thy overthrow
Of my body's parting with my soul:
And fear *glu'd* many friends to thee.

Shak. Henry VI. teacheth a fool is as one that *glues* a together. *Ecclus. xxii. 7.*—The custom of the Holy Virgin is so much in vogue among the Italians, that one often sees in their churches a canvas over the head of the figure. *Ben Jonson's Discov.*—Most wounds, if kept clean, will heal the air, the flesh will *glue* together with a restorative balm. *Derham.* 2. To hold together parts of all homogeneous hard bodies, by touch one another, stick together very; and for explaining how this may be, he invented hooked atoms, which is begging the question; and others tell us their bodies are together by rest; that is, by an occult attraction rather by nothing. *Newton's Opticks.* 3. To unite; to inviscate.—Those wasps and flies are sensual men plunged in their pleasures; and when they are once *glued* to it is a very hard matter to work them. *L'Estrange.*—Intemperance, sensuality, and lusts, do debase men's minds and clog their senses; sink us down into sense, and *glue* us to low and inferior things. *Tillotson.*—The curbed groan that else had come;

And pausing, view'd the present in the tomb:
Then to the heart ador'd devoutly *glu'd*
Her lips, and, raising it, her speech renew'd.

Dryden.

I hear thee, view thee, gaze o'er all thy charms,
And round thy phantom *glue* my clasping arms.

Pope.

* **GLUEBOILER.** *n. f.* [*glue* and *boil.*] One whose trade is to make glue.

* **GLUER.** *n. f.* [from *glue.*] One who cements with glue.

* **GLUM** *adj.* [A low cant word formed by corrupting *gloom.*] Sullen; stubbornly grave.—Some, when they hear a story, look *glum*, and cry, Well, what then? *Guardian.*

GLUMA, } *n. f.* in botany, a species of calyx,
GLUME, } consisting of 2 or 3 membranous valves, which are often pellucid at the edges. See *BOTANY, Index.*

GLUMMEN, a town of Prussia, in the prov. of Nantangen, 24 miles S. of Königsberg.

GLURENTZ, or } a town of Germany, in the
GLURNZ, } Tyrol, on the Adige, 3 miles W. of Tyrol, and 36 W. of Brixen. It was built in 1361, and surrounded with walls in 1530. It was taken by the French, under gen. Desfleurs, on the 25th March 1799; but during the battle with the Austrians near it, in which the latter lost 5700 men, and 28 pieces of cannon, this town was accidentally set on fire, and totally burnt down on the 26th.

GLUSBURN, a town S. of Skipton, Yorksh.

(1.) * **GLUT.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. That which is gorged or swallowed.—

Disgorged soul

Their devilish *glut*, chain'd thunderbolts, and hail
Of iron globes. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

2. Plenty even to loathing and satiety.—

So death

Shall be deceiv'd his *glut*; and with us two

Be forc'd to satisfy his ravenous maw. *Milt.*

—Let him but set the one in balance against the other, and he shall find himself miserable, even in the very *glut* of his delights. *L'Estrange.*—A *glut* of study and retirement in the first part of my life, cast me into this; and this will throw me again into study and retirement. *Pope to Swift.* 3. More than enough; overmuch.—If you pour a *glut* of water upon a bottle, it receives little of it. *Ben Jonson's Discov.* 4. Any thing that fills up a passage.—The water some suppose to pass from the bottom of the sea to the heads of springs, through certain subterranean conduits or channels, until they were by some *glut*, stop, or other means, arrested in their passage. *Woodward.*

(1.) **GLUT,** among falconers, the slimy substance that lies in a hawk's paunch.

* **To GLUT.** *v. n.* [*engloutir*, French; *glutio*, Lat. to swallow; *γλῦζω.*] 1. To swallow; to devour.—

'Till cram'd and gorg'd, nigh burst

With suck'd and *glutted* offal. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

2. To cloy; to fill beyond sufficiency; to sate; to disgust.—The ambassador, making his oration, did so magnify the king and queen, as was enough to *glut* the hearers. *Bacon.*—

Love breaks friendship, whose delights

Feed, but not *glut* our appetites.

Denham.

What

What way remove
His settled hate, and reconcile his love,
That he may look propitious on our toils,
And hungry graves no more be *glutted* with our
spoils. *Dryden.*

No more, my friend ;
Here let our *glutted* execution end. *Dryd. Æn.*
I found

The fickle ear soon *glutted* with the sound,
Condemn'd eternal changes to pursue,
'Tir'd with the last, and eager of the new. *Prior.*
3. To feast or delight even to satiety.—
With death's carcass *glut* the grave. *Milt.*
His faithful heart, a bloody sacrifice,
Torn from his breast, to *glut* the tyrant's eyes.
Dryden.

A sylvan scene, which, rising by degrees,
Leads up the eye below, nor *gluts* the sight
With one full prospect ; but invites by many,
To view at last the whole. *Dryden.*

4. To overfill ; to load.—He attributes the ill suc-
cess of either party to their *glutting* the market,
and retailing too much of a bad commodity at
once. *Arbutnot's Polite Lying.* 5. To saturate.
—The menstruum, being already *glutted*, could
not act powerfully enough to dissolve it. *Boyle.*

GLUTA, in botany ; a genus of the pentandria
order, belonging to the gynandria class of plants.
'The calyx is campanulated and deciduous ; there
are 5 petals glued below to the column of the
germ ; and the filaments inserted on the top of
the column, on which also the germen sits.

GLUTÆUS. See ANATOMY, § 215.

GLUTEN. See BREAD, § 12, and CHEMIS-
TRY, *Index.*

* GLUTINOUS. *adj.* [*glutineux*, French ;
from *gluten*, Latin.] Gluy ; viscous ; tenacious.
—The cause of all vivification is a gentle and pro-
portionable heat, working upon a *glutinous* and
yielding substance ; for the heat doth bring forth
spirit in that substance, and the substance being
glutinous, produceth two effects : the one that the
spirit is detained, and cannot break forth ; the o-
ther, that the matter, being gentle and yielding, is
driven forwards by the motion of the spirits, after
some swelling, into shape and members. *Bacon.*—
Next this marble venomb'd seat,

Smear'd with gums of *glutinous* heat. *Milton.*
—Nourishment too viscid and *glutinous* to be sub-
dued by the vital force. *Arbutn. on Alim.*

* GLUTINOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *glutinous*.]
Viscosity ; tenacity.—There is a resistance in fluids,
which may arise from their elasticity, *glutinousness*,
and the friction of their parts. *Cheyne.*

(1) * GLUTTON. *n. f.* [*glouton*, Fr. ; from
glutire, Latin, to swallow.] 1. One who indulges
his self too much in eating.—The Chinese eat
horseflesh at this day, and some *gluttons* have used
to have cats *broiled*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Thro' Mæch's gullet the runs down
While the virt' *glutton* dines alone ;
And, void of delicity and thought,
She follows Beld's endless draught. *Prior.*
—If a *glutton* was to say in excuse of his gluttony,
that he only eats such things as it is lawful to eat,
he would make as good an excuse for himself as
the greedy, covetous, ambitious tradesman, that

should say, he only deals in lawful busi-

2. One eager of any thing to excess.—
The rest bring home in state the b
To that last scene of bliss, and leave t
All those free joys insatiably to prov
With which rich beauty feasts the g

Gluttons in murder, wanton to del
Their fatal arts so impiously employ

(2.) GLUTTON, in zoology, the Er
of a species of quadrupeds, ranked i
under the genus *MUSTELA*, or *Weas*
Dr Gmelin, and Mr Kerr, under that
or *Bear*. There are 2 varieties, viz.
and reddish brown. See *URSUS*, N°

* To GLUTTONISE. *v. n.* [fro
To play the glutton ; to be luxurious.

* GLUTTONOUS. *adj.* [from *g*
ven to excessive feeding ; delighted
with food.—

When they would smile and sav
debts,

And take down th' interest in thei
maws.

—The exceeding luxuriousness of thi
age, wherein we press nature with c
burdens, and finding her strength de
take the work out of her hands, an
to the artificial help of strong waters.

Well observe

The rule of not too much, by temper
In what thou eat'st and drink'st ; &
thence

Due nourishment, no *glutinous* defi

* GLUTTONOUSLY. *adv.* [from
With the voracity of a glutton.

(1.) * GLUTTONY. *n. f.* [*glutton*
from *glutton*.] Excess of eating ; lux
table.—*Gluttony*, a vice in a great fortu
in a small. *Holyday*—

Their sumptuous *gluttonies* and gorg
On citron tables or Atlantick stone.

Well may they fear some miserab
Whom *gluttony* and want at once a

—The inhabitants of cold moist count
nerally more fat than those of warm
but the most common cause is too gr
tity of food, and too small a quantity
in plain English *gluttony* and laziness.

(2.) GLUTTONY, INSTANCES OF F
NARY. There is a morbid sort of *glutt*
fames canina, i. e. *dog-like appetite*, w
times occurs, and renders the person ic
an object of pity and of cure as in ether d.
BULIMY.) But habitual gluttons may b
among the monsters of nature, and e
able for endeavouring to bring a fami
places where they live. K. James I. w
was presented to him who could eat av
at one meal, asked "What could h
than another man ? and being answerd
not do so much," said "Hang him t
is unfit a man should live that eats as
men, and cannot do so much as one."
peror Clodius Albinus devoured more
thel of apples at once. He eat 300 figs t

raches, 10 melons, 20 lb. of grapes, 100 apples, and 400 oysters. Hardi-Canute, the Danish king in England, was so fond of food, that a historian calls him *Bocca di vino's-mouth*." His tables were sometimes 2-day with the most costly viands the air, sea, or land, could furnish; and he lived he died; for, revelling at a Lambeth, he fell down dead. One day, at the reign of Aurelianus, at one meal, he ate a boar, one hundred loaves of bread, and a pig; and drank above three gallons of wine. Fuller says, that one Nicholas Harrison in Kent, eat a whole sheep at law; at another 30 dozen of pigeons. William Sidley's, he eat as much victuals as sufficed 30 men. At Lord Wotton's dinner at one dinner 84 rabbits; which, at a man, would have served 168 men. His breakfast 18 yards of black pudding. He ate a whole hog at one sitting; and afterwards 3 pecks of damofins. One Mallet, at law, in the reign of Charles I. eat at a dinner provided in Westminster for his practice not being sufficient to support a better meat, he fed generally on oysters, hearts, &c. He lived to near 60 years, but during the 7 last years of his life moderately as other men.

GLU, a town near Penryn, Cornwall.
GLY, *adj.* [from *gluc*.] Viscous; tenacious.—It is called balsamick mixture, is a *gluy* spumous matter. *Harvey*.—*gluy* was some new foundations lay in combs. *Dryden's Ann. Mirab.*—*gluy* is the composition of the vapour, let it have one quality of being very *gluy* or viscous; it will mechanically solve all the phænomena of the grotto. *Addison*.

GLU. See GLICAS.

GLUCINE, KNOBBED-ROOTED LIQUORICE—genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*.

The calyx is bilabiate; the carina is a small lobe turning back the vexillum with its

GLUCINE ABRUS is a native of Egypt and

The stalks and roots are very sweet. Herman affirms, that the juice obtained from them by decoction is little inferior to that of licorice whence its name of *wild liquorice* in America where it is native.

GLUCINE FRUTECENS, the Carolina kidney-

It has shrubby climbing stalks, twining support, 15 or 20 feet high, adorned with large pinnate leaves of 3 pair of foliicles terminated by a single large flower, and from the axillas clusters of large purple flowers, succeeded by long pods of the climbing kidney-bean. It flowers in July, but the seeds do not ripen in any country. It is cultivated in our gardens howsoever easily propagated, either by seeds imported from America, or by layers.

GLYCIRRHIZA, LIQUORICE, a genus of the order, belonging to the diadelphia class and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order, *Papilionaceæ*. The calyx is

bilabiate; the upper lip tripartite, and the under one entire; the legumen ovate and compressed. There are two species.

1. **GLYCIRRHIZA ECHINATA**, the prickly-podded liquorice, resembling the common sort, only the pods are prickly: and

2. **GLYCIRRHIZA GLABRA**, the common liquorice, with long, thick, creeping roots, striking several feet deep into the ground; upright, firm, annual herbaceous stalks, 3 or 4 feet high, garnished with winged leaves of four or five pair of oval lobes, terminated by an odd one; and from the axillas erect spikes of pale blue flowers in July, succeeded by short smooth pods. The root is the useful part, which is replete with a sweet, balsamic, pectoral juice, much used in all compositions for coughs and disorders of the stomach. Both these species are very hardy perennials; but this last is the sort commonly cultivated for use, its roots being fuller of juice and sweeter than the other. The roots are perennial: but the stalks rise in spring and decay in autumn. They are propagated by cuttings of the small roots issuing from the sides of the main ones near the earth, divided into lengths of 6 or 8 inches, each having one or more good buds. The proper season for procuring the sets for planting is in open weather from October to March; but from the middle of February till the middle of March is rather the best season for planting. An open situation is to be preferred. The soil ought to be a light loose temperature, and 3 or 4 feet deep: for the roots of liquorice will arrive at that depth and more, and the longer the roots the more valuable they are. The ground should be trenched 3 spades deep; then proceed to plant the sets, by line and dibble, a foot distant in each row; putting them perpendicular into the ground, with the tops about an inch under the surface; let the rows be a foot or a foot and a half asunder. The London gardeners sow a crop of onions on the same ground the first year; which might be done without detriment to the liquorice or the onions; as the liquorice does not rise above 10 or 12 inches the first summer; keep the ground clean from weeds by hoeing. If there be a crop of onions, use the small hoe, cutting out the onions to 4 or 5 inches distant, clearing away such as grow immediately close to the liquorice plants; and when the onions are gathered, give the ground a thorough hoeing with a large hoe, to loosen the surface and destroy all weeds; and in autumn cut down the decayed stalks of the liquorice, and nothing more is necessary to be done till February or March, when it is proper to give a slight digging between the rows. During spring and summer, keep down all weeds by broad hoeing; and in autumn, when the stalks are in a decaying state, cut them down to the surface of the earth. In 3 years after planting, the roots of the liquorice will be fit to take up. The proper season for this is, from the beginning of November till February; for they should neither be taken up before the stalks are fully decayed, nor deferred till late in spring, otherwise the roots will be apt to shrivel and diminish in weight. In taking them up, the small side roots are trimmed off, the best divided into lengths for fresh sets; and the main roots tied in bundles

for sale. Sell them as soon as possible after they are taken up, before they lose much of their weight. They are sold to the druggists from about 20s. to 40s. per cwt.; and an acre of ground has produced 3000 and upwards, which have been sold for above 60l.; but the price is commonly in proportion to the goodness of the roots. This plant is cultivated in most countries of Europe for the sake of its root. British liquorice is preferable to foreign; this last being generally mouldy, which this root is very apt to become, unless kept in a dry place. The powder of liquorice usually sold is often mingled with flour, and probably too often with substances not quite so wholesome; the best sort is of a brownish yellow colour (the fine pale yellow being generally sophisticated), and of a very rich sweet taste, much more agreeable than that of the fresh root. Liquorice is almost the only sweet that quenches thirst; whence it was called by the Greeks *αλυσ*. See *ANUSON*. Galen says, that it was employed in this intention in hydropic cases, to prevent the necessity of drinking. Mr Fuller, in his *Medicina Gymnastica*, recommends it as a very useful pectoral; and says it softens acrimonious humours, and is gently detergent; which is confirmed by experience. An extract is directed to be made from it in the shops. It is chiefly brought from abroad, though the foreign extract is not equal to such as is made with proper care in Britain.

GLYFORD, a town SE. of Bodmin, Cornwall.

(1.) * GLYN, *n. s.* [Irish; *gleann*, *glyn*, plur. *Erle*; *glenn*, Scottish.] A hollow between two mountains.—Though he could not beat out the Irish, yet he did shut them up within those narrow corners and *glyns* under the mountain's foot. *Spenser's Ireland*.

(2.) GLYN, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

(3.) GLYN OF AGALLOW, a town in Cork.

(4.) GLYN OF THE DOWNS, a narrow romantic valley in Ireland, in Wicklow, 13 miles from Dublin; not much wider than the breadth of the road which leads through it, along the banks of a gurgling rivulet. The sides of the valley are steep and rocky, but ornamented with various trees.

GLYNN, a county of Georgia, in the Lower District, bounded on the W. and N. by the Alamaha and Liberty county; E. by the Ocean, and S. by Camden county. Brunswick is the capital.

GLYPH, *n. s.* in sculpture and architecture, any canal or cavity used as an ornament.

(1.) GMELIN, John George, brother to Dr Gmelin, physician at Tubingen, and uncle to the celebrated Dr S. G. Gmelin, (Nº 2.) was author of the *Flora Siberica*, and of *Travels in Siberia*, an interesting work in 2 vols. We have met with no memoir of this author.

(2.) GMELIN, Samuel Gottlieb, LL. D. professor at Tubingen, and member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St Petersburg, was born at Tubingen in 1745. He was celebrated for his knowledge in natural history, as well as for his travels, which he commenced in June 1768. Having traversed the provinces of Moscow, Veronetz, New Russia, Azof, Casan, and Astracan, he visited, in 1770 and 1771, the harbours of the Caspi-

an, and examined with attention the Persian provinces which border on it, of which he has given a circumstantial account in the 3 first vols of his *Travels*. Among his observations, he attempted to pass into the western provinces of Persia, which are infested with numerous banditti; and quitted, in 1772, Einzillee, a small trading place in Georgia, on the southern shore of the Caspian; on account of many difficulties and dangers, until Dec. 1, 1773, reach Sallaz, at the mouth of the Koor. Thence he proceeded to Baku and Kuba, in Shirvan, where he received a friendly reception from Ali Feth Khan, the sovereign of that district. After he had been by 20 Uralian Cossacks, and when he had made a days journey from the Russian frontier, and his companions were, on the 5th of March, arrested by the order of Usmei Khan, a Tartar prince, through whose territories he was obliged to pass. Usmei urged as a reason for this arrest, that 30 years ago several of his subjects had escaped from his dominions, and had sought an asylum in the Russian territories; and that Gmelin should not be released until they were restored. The professor was removed from prison to prison; and at length, wearied by continued persecutions, he expired, in 1774, at Achmet-Kent, a village of Mount Caucasus. His death was occasioned partly by the loss of several papers and collections, and partly by disorders contracted from the fatigue of his long journey. Some of his papers had been taken to Kassar during his imprisonment, and were, with great difficulty, rescued from the hands of the barbarian who had detained them. The arrangement of these papers, which form the 4th volume of his travels, was confided to the care of Guindensack, and his death was completed by Dr Pallas.

GMELINA, in botany; a genus of the spermia order, belonging to the didyma of plants; and in the natural method under the 40th order, *Parfonate*. The calyx is quadridentate; the corolla campanulate bell shaped; there are two bipartite and simple anthers; the fruit is a plum, with a large kernel.

GNA, or AGNO, a river of Italy, in Austria, which rises in the Vicentine March, runs through the ci-devant Venetian diocese of Cologna, dividing it into nearly two equal parts, and after joining the Baciaglione, falls into the Adriatic.

GNAA, a town of Germany, in Spuria, SE. of Graz, and 20 S. of Vienna.

GNADENHUEITEN, a town of the State of the North Western Territory, in the United States, is situated on the River by Moravians. It is situated on the River 10 miles from Lake St Clair, and 22 NW. of it.

(1.) GNAPHALIMUM, *composit.* LOCKS, ETERNAL OR EVERLASTING. A genus of the polygama superflua belonging to the syncnema class of plants in the natural method ranking under the order, *Compositae*. The receptacle is naked, pappus feathered; the calyx imbricated, marginal scales roundish, parched, and c-

: 42 species; the most remarkable of

GNAPHALUM ARBOREUM, or tree gnaphalium, a woody stem, branching 4 or 5 feet high, with sessile leaves, with revolute borders, their upper side, and roundish bunches of small flowers.

GNAPHALUM MARGARITACEUM, the pearly flower, has creeping, very spread-crowned with broad, spear-shaped, very leaves; herbaceous thick, woolly root and an half high, branching out-furnished with long, acute-pointed white, rays, and terminated by a corymbose cluster of flowers, which appear in June and are very ornamental.

GNAPHALUM ODORATISSIMUM, the sweet-scented flower, hath shrubby winged stalks, irregularly a yard high, with corymbs of bright yellow flowers, changing yellow.

GNAPHALUM ORIENTALE, the oriental gold-rod, 3 varieties, with yellow, gold-colour-white silvery flowers. They have shrub-rising 2 or 3 feet high.

GNAPHALUM PLANTAGINIFOLIUM, has fleshy radical leaves, decumbent running herbaceous simple stalks, rising 6 or 8 inches, terminated by a corymbus of white flowers, July, &c.

GNAPHALUM STECHAS, has a shrubby stalk, to slender branches 3 feet long, terminated by corymbose clusters of yellow flowers, appearing in May and June.

GNAPHALUM, CULTURE OF THE DIFFERENT SPECIES OF. The 2d, 5th, and 6th sorts will thrive in any soil or situation. The 1st and 5th increase exceedingly by their slips, the 6th is easily propagated by slips. The 1st and 4th species are somewhat tender; they should be kept in pots, to be sheltered in a green-house or garden frame in winter. They may be planted in the full ground, in a warm situation, especially the ORIENTAL varieties, and likewise the ODORATISSIMUM; for these two species will struggle through an ordinary winter, and make a verdure during summer. All these are propagated by slips or cuttings of their shoots. The roots of all these species will retain their vigour, if carefully gathered in a dry place after they are blown.

GNAR. v. n. [*gnarran*, Saxon; *knorren*, Dutch.] To growl; to snarl.—

He 'gan to rear his bristles strong,
And gnar, until day's enemy
Should appease.

Spenser.
Is the shepherd beaten from thy side,
Whose lives are gnarling who shall gnaw thee

Shakespeare.
Gnawing sorrow hath less power to bite
Than that which mocks at it, and sets it light. Shak.
The warring porter durst not whine for doubt;
Nor the furies while their sovereign spoke.

Fairfax.
GNARLED. adj. [*gnar*, *nar*, or *kurr*, is in
PART II.

Staffordshire a hard knot of wood which boys drive with sticks.] Knotty.—

Merciful heav'n!

Thou rather with thy sharp and sulph'rous bolt
Split'st the unwedgeable and gnarled oak,
Than the soft myrtle. Shak. *Meas. for Meas.*

GNARMACK, a town of England in Cornwall, NW. of Truro.

(1.) * **TO GNASH. v. a.** [*knaschen*, Dutch.] To strike together; to clash.—

The seer, who could not yet his wrath assuage,
Row'd his green eyes, that sparkl'd with his rage,
And gnash'd his teeth. Dryden's *Virgil*.

(2.) * **TO GNASH. v. n.** 1. To grind or collide the teeth.—He shall gnash with his teeth, and melt away. *Psf. cxii. 10.*—There shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth. *Matth. viii. 2.* To rage even to collision of the teeth; to fume; to growl.—

His great iron teeth he still did grind,
And grimly gnash, threat'ning revenge in vain.

Spenser.

—They gnashed upon me with their teeth. *Psaln xxxv. 16.*—

They him laid

Gnashing for anguish, and despite and shame,
To find himself not matchless. Milton.

With boiling rage Atides burn'd,
And foam betwixt his gnashing grinders churn'd.

Dryden.

(1.) * **GNAT. n. f.** [*gnat*, Sax.] 1. A small winged stinging insect.—

Her whip of cricket's bone, the lash of film;
Her waggoner, a small grey-coated gnat. Shak.
2. Any thing proverbially small.—Ye blind guides, which strain at a gnat and swallow a camel. *Mat. xxiii. 24.*

(2.) **GNAT**, in zoology. See **CULEX**.

(1.) * **GNATFLOWER. n. f.** [*gnat* and *flower*.] A flower otherwise called the bee-flower.

(2.) **GNAT FLOWER**. See **OPHRYS**, N° 2.

* **GNATSNAPPER. n. f.** [*gnat* and *snapper*.] A bird so called, because he lives by catching gnats.—They deny that any bird is to be eaten whole, but only the gnat-snapper. *Hake-will on Providence*.

(1.) * **TO GNAW. v. a.** [*gnagan*, Sax. *knaghen*, Dutch.] 1. To eat by degrees; to devour by slow corrosion.—

A knowing fellow that would gnaw a man
Like to a vermine, with his hellish braine,
And many an honest soul, even quick had slain.

Chapman.

To you such scabb'd harsh fruit is giv'n, as
raw

Young soldiers at their exercisings gnaw. Dryd.
2. To bite in agony or rage.—

Alas, why gnaw you so your nether lip?
Some bloody passion shakes your very frame.

Shakespeare. *Othello*.

—They gnawed their tongues for pain. *Rev. xvi. 10.*—

He comely fell, and dying gnaw'd the ground.
Dryden.

3. To wear away by biting.—

Gnawing with my teeth my bonds asunder,
I gain'd my freedom. Shak. *Comedy of Err.*

Like rotten fruit I fall, worn like a cloth,
Gnaw'd into rags by the devouring moth. Sandys.

St Christian. This point he labours out of his *Stromata*, where he shows, that the Gnostic, or learned person, has religion. He affirms, that were it possible, knowledge of God to be separated from salvation, the Gnostic would make choice the knowledge; and that if he promise him impunity in doing of any thing once spoken against, or offer him those terms, he would never alter a sentence. In this sense the father uses opposition to the heretics of the same rank, that the true Gnostic is grown out of the holy scripture; and that he orthodox doctrine of the apostles and their successors; whereas the false Gnostic abandons apostolical traditions, as imagining that he knows more than the apostles.

The Gnostics was sometimes also more particular for the successors of the Nicolaitans, in the 2d century, upon their names of the first authors. Such were thoroughly acquainted with all their verities, and visions, may consult *St Irenaeus*, *Clement Alexandrinus*, *Origen*, *Justinus*; particularly the first of these relates their sentiments at large, and in detail. Indeed, he dwells more on the particulars than any other sect of Gnostics; but he lays down general principles whereon all their systems were founded, and the method he follows in explaining scripture. He accuses the Gnostics of reducing into religion certain vain and idle notions, i. e. a kind of divine prophecies, which had no other foundation than their own wild imagination. He confessed, that these æons or emanations were expressly delivered in the sacred scriptures; and insisted, that Jesus Christ had intimated in his parables to such as could understand.

They built their theology not only on the gospels and the epistles of St Paul, but also on the writings of Moses and the prophets. These last were particularly serviceable to them, on account of the prophecies and allusions with which they abounded, which are capable of different interpretations, though their doctrine, concerning the creation of the world by one or more inferior beings of imperfect nature, led them to deny the authority of the books of the Old Testament, which contradicted this idle fiction, and with an abhorrence of Moses and the Law, they sought to overthrow the authority of the Old Testament; alleging, that he was actuated by a malignant author of this world, who coveted glory and authority, and not the good of men. Their persuasion that matter was the centre and source of all evil, and that the body was a great curse, led them to treat the body with contempt, to despise marriage, and reject the doctrine of the resurrection of the body and its re-union with the soul and spirit. Their notion, that matter was a curse in nature, and occasioned all calamities, wars, and desolations, led them to apply themselves to the study of magic, in order to weaken the powers or suspend the operations of their malignant agents. They considered Jesus Christ as the Son of God, who came into the world for the rescue and happiness of miserable

mortals, oppressed by matter and evil beings; but they rejected our Lord's humanity, on the principle that every thing corporeal is essentially and intrinsically evil; and therefore they denied the reality of his sufferings. They set a great value on the beginning of the gospel of St John, where they fancied they saw a great deal of their æons or emanations under the term, *the Word, the Life, the Light, &c.* They divided all nature into three kinds of beings, viz. *hylic*, or material; *psychic*, or animal; and *pneumatic*, or spiritual. On the like principle they also distinguished three sorts of men; *material*, *animal*, and *spiritual*. The first, who were material, and incapable of knowledge, inevitably perished, both soul and body; the third, such as the Gnostics themselves pretended to be, were all certainly saved; the psychic, or animal, who were the middle between the other two, were capable either of being saved or damned, according to their good or evil actions. With regard to their moral doctrines and conduct, they were much divided. The greatest part of this sect adopted very austere rules of life, recommended rigorous abstinence, and prescribed severe bodily mortifications, with a view of purifying and exalting the mind. However, some maintained, that there was no moral difference in human actions; and thus, confounding right with wrong, they gave a loose rein to all the passions, and asserted the innocence of following blindly all their motions, and of living by their tumultuous dictates. They supported their opinions and practice by various authorities: some referred to fictitious and apocryphal writings of Adam, Abraham, Zoroaster, Christ, and his apostles; others boasted, that they had deduced their sentiments from a secret doctrine of Christ, concealed from the vulgar; others affirmed, that they arrived at superior degrees of wisdom by an innate vigour of mind; and others asserted, that they were instructed in these mysterious parts of theological science by Theudas, a disciple of St Paul, and by Matthias, one of the friends of our Lord. The tenets of the ancient Gnostics were revived in Spain, in the 4th century, by a sect called the *PRISCILLIANISTS*. At length the name *Gnostic*, which originally was glorious, became infamous, by the idle opinions and dissolute lives of the persons who bore it.

GNOU, or } in zoology. See CAPRA, N° IX.
GNU, }

(1.) * To GO. v. n. pret. *I went; I have gone.* [gan, Saxon. This was probably changed to *gone*, or *gang*, then contracted to *go*. *Went* is the preterite of the old verb *wend*.] 1. To walk; to move step by step.—

You know that love

Will creep in service where it cannot go. *Shak.*
—After some months those muscles become callous; and, having yielded to the extension, the patient makes shift to go upon it, though lamely. *Wifeman.* 2. To move; not stand still.—Rise, let us be going. *Matt.* xxvi. 46. 3. To walk solemnly.—If there be cause for the church to go forth in solemn procession, his whole family have such business come upon them that no one can be spared. *Hooker.* 4. To walk leisurely, not run.—

And must I go to him?

—Thou must run to him; for thou hast staid so long, that *going* will scarce serve the turn. *Shak.*
5. To march or walk a-foot.—I will only go through on my feet. *Num. xx. 19.* 6. To travel; to journey.—

From them I go,

This uncouth errand sole.

Milton.

7. To proceed; to make a progress.—

Thus others we with defamation wound,

While they stab us; and so the jell goes round.

Dryden.

8. To remove from place to place.—

I am in blood

Stept in so far, that, should I wade no more,

Returning were as tedious as go o'er. *Shak.*

9. To depart from a place; to move from a place; the opposite of *to come*.—

I hope it be not *gone*, to tell my lord

That I kiss aught but him. *Shak. Cymbel.*

At once, good-night:

Stand not upon the order of your *going*,

But go at once.

Shak. Marbeth.

—And when she had so said she went her way.

Yo. xi. 18.—I will let you go, that ye may sacrifice, only you shall not go very far away. *Ex. viii.*

18.—Colchester oysters are put into pits, where the sea goeth and cometh. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

A young tall squire

Did from the camp at first before him go. *Cowley.*

Then I concur to let him go for Greece,

And with our Egypt fairly rid of him. *Dryden.*

Go first the master of thy herds to find,

True to his charge, a loyal swain and kind.

Pope's Odyssey.

10. To move or pass in any manner, or to any end.—

Though the vicar be bad, or the parson be evil,

Go not for thy tything thyself to the devil. *Tass. r.*

—She may go to bed when she list; all is as she will. *Shak.*—

You did wish that I would make her turn;

Sir, she can turn and turn, and yet go on. *Shak.*

—I am glad to see your lordship abroad: I heard say your lordship was sick: I hope your lordship goes abroad by advice. *Shak. Henry IV.*—The

mourners go about the streets. *Ezek. xii. 5.*—The

sun shall go down over the prophets, and the

day shall be dark over them. *Mat. iii. 6.*—Put e-

very man his sword by his side, and go in and

out from gate to gate throughout the camp.

Ex. xxxii. 27.—

The sun, which once did shine alone,

Hung down his head, and wish'd for night,

When he beheld twelve suns for one

Going about the world, and giving light. *Herbert.*

His seen, the rest at awful distance stood,

As if they had been there as servants set,

To stay, or to go on, as he thought good,

And not pursue, but wait on his retreat. *Dryd.*

—Turn not children going, till you have given

them all the satisfaction they are capable of. *Locke.*

—History only acquaints us that his fleet went up

the Elbe, he having carried his arms as far as that

river *Arbut.*—The last advice I give you relates

to your behaviour when you are going to be hang-

ed, which, either for robbing your master, for

housebreaking, or going upon the highway,

very probably be your lot. *Swift.*—

come for gold will go off with pewee

rather than return empty. *Swift.*

—Thou art in company with others.—Thou art

adorned with thy tabrets, and shalt

dances of them that make merry. *Job.*

Away, and with thee go the way

That seek't my friendship, and the way

—He goeth in company with the wicked

man, and walketh with wicked men.

8.—Whatever remains in story of

kingdom of old, is so obscure, I wish

that it may go along with those of

islands. *Temple.* 12. To proceed in

life good or bad.—And the Levites

away far from me, when Israel came

to me, I went astray away from me after they

shall even bear their iniquity. *Ezek.*

To proceed in mental operations.—

I was too far engaged myself for the

liking it, truly I should have kept

I had once again gone over it. *Dryd.*

have gone through the speculative

of the Divine Providence. *Hale's Orig.*

I hope, by going over all these

may receive some tolerable satisfaction

great subject. *South.*—If we go over

Christianity, we shall find that, in

particulars, they enjoin the same things

have made our duty more clear and

son.—In their primary qualities we

very little way. *Locke.*—I go over

this argument again, and enlarge a

on them. *Locke.*—They are not able

time to reckon, or regularly go over

rate series of numbers. *Locke.* 14.

road.—I will go along by the highway

ther turn to the right hand, nor to the

in. 27.—Who shall bemoan thee? Or

aside to ask how thou doest? *Jer. x.*

His horses go about

Almost a mile. *S.*

—I have endeavoured to escape into

freedom of a private scene, where a

his own way and his own pace. *Ten*

march in a hostile or warlike manner

You were advis'd his flesh was

Of wounds and scars, and the

spirit

Would list where most trade of d

Yet did you say go forth. *S.*

—We be not able to go up again

for they are stronger than we. *Act.*

Let us go down after the Philistines

spoil them until the morning light

36.—Thou art not able to go against

fight with him. *1 Sam. xvii. 33.*—

of Jacob shall be among the Gentiles

among the beasts of the forest; w

through, both treadeth down and tear

and none can deliver. *Mic. v. 8.* 1

state or opinion for better or worse

hearken to the king's words to go from

1 *Mac. ii. 22.*—The regard of the

in so great a danger, made all those

which went to wreck, to be light

parison of their lives and liberty. *Knolles*.
look upon men and matters with an evil
I are best pleased when things go back-
hich is the worst property of a servant of
or state. *Bacon*.—

goes to ruin, they themselves contrive
b the honey, and subvert the hive. *Dryd*.
d men, by their providence and good
ry, accommodating their expences to their
keep themselves from going backwards
world. *Locke*.—Cato, we all go into your
Addison. 17. To apply one's self.—See-
elf confronted by so many, like a resolute
ne went not to denial, but to justify his
lehood. *Sidney*.—Because this atheist goes
cally to work, he will not offer to affirm
the parts of the embryo could, accord-
explication, be formed at a time. *Bentley*.
have recourse to.—Dare any of you, hav-
tter against another, go to law before the
nd not before the saints? *1 Cor.* 19. To
t to do.—So extraordinary an example,
generate an age, deserves for the rarity,
was going to say, for the incredibility of it,
lation of all that knew him, and consider-
orth. *Locke*. 20. To shift; to pass life not
ell.—Every goldsmith, eager to engross to
as much as he could, was content to pay
r-it, rather than go without. *Locke*.—
they must have; but if they speak for this
that colour, they should be sure to go
it. *Locke*. 21. To decline; to tend to-
death or ruin. This sense is only in the
les going and gone.—

is far gone, and, truly, in my youth,
er'd much extremity for love,
near this. *Shak. Hamlet*.

be in party or design.—
ey with the vanquish'd prince and party go,
leave their temples empty to the foe. *Dryd*.
escape.—Timotheus himself fell into the
f Dositheus and Sosipater, whom he be-
with much craft to let him go with his life.
xii. 24. 24. To tend to any act.—
ere be some women, Silvius, had they
mark'd him

rcels as I did, would have gone near
all in love with him. *Shak. As you like it*.

be uttered.—His disciples personally ap-
among them, and ascertained the report
ad gone abroad concerning a life so full of
s. *Addison*. 26. To be talked of; to be
—It has the greatest town in the island
s under the name of Ano-Caprea, and is
al places covered with a very fruitful soil.
1. 27. To pass; to be received.—Because
r of my acquaintance set forth her praises
e, I will only repeat them, and spare my
ngue, since she goes for a woman. *Sidney*.
the man went among men for an old man
lays of Saul. *1 Sam.* xvii. 12.—A kind ima-
n makes a bold man have vigour and en-
e in his air and motion: it stamps value u-
s face, and tells the people he is to go for
h. *Collier*.—Clipping should be finally stop-
d the money which remains should go ac-
s to its true value. *Locke*. 28. To move

by mechanism.—This pope is decrepid, and the
bell goeth for him. *Bacon*.

Clocks will go as they are set; but man,
Irregular man's never constant, never certain.

Otway.

'Tis with our judgments as our watches, none
Go just alike, yet each believes his own. *Pope*.
29. To be in motion from whatever cause.—

The weyward sisters, hand in hand,
Posters of the sea and land,
Thus do go about, about. *Shak. Macbeth*.
—Cleft and washed money goes about, when the
entire and weighty lies hoarded up. *Waller*. 30.
To move in any direction.—Doctor, he is a curer
of souls, and you a curer of bodies: if you should
fight, you go against the hair of your professions.
Shak Merry Wives.—Shall the shadow go forward
ten degrees, or go back ten degrees? *2 Kings* xx.
9. 31. To flow; to pass; to have a course.—

The god I am, whose yellow water flows
Around these fields, and fattens as it goes,
Tyber my name. *Dryden's Æn*.

32. To have any tendency.—

Athenians, know
Against right reason all your counsels go;
This is not fair, nor profitable that,
Nor t'other question proper for debate. *Perf*.
33. To be in a state of compact or partnership.—
As a lion was bestriding an ox that he had newly
plucked down, a robber passing by cried out to
him, half shares: you should go your snip, says the
lion, if you were not so forward to be your own
carver. *L'Estrange*.—There was a hunting match
agreed upon betwixt a lion, an ass, and a fox,
and they were to go equal shares in the booty.
L'Estr. 34. To be regulated by any method: to
proceed upon principles—Where the multitude
beareth sway, laws that shall tend to the preser-
vation of that state must make common smaller
offices to go by lot, for fear of strife and divisions
likely to arise. *Hooker*.—We are to go by another
measure. *Spratt*.—The principles I there went on,
I see no reason to alter. *Locke*.—The reasons that
they went upon were very specious and probable.
Bentley. 35. To be pregnant.—

Great bellied women,
That had not half a week to go. *Shak. H. VIII*.
The fruit she goes with,

I pray that it good time and life may find. *Shak*.
—Of living creatures some are a longer time in
the womb, and some shorter: women go com-
monly nine months, the cow and the ewe about
six months. *Bacon*.—Some do go with their young
the sixth part of a year, or two over or under, that
is, about six or nine weeks: and the whelps of
these see not till twelve days. *Brown*.—

And now with second hopes she goes,
And calls Lucina to her throws. *Milton*.
36. To pass; not to remain.—She began to afflict
him, and his strength went from him. *Judg.* xvi.
19. When our merchants have brought them, if
our commodities will not be enough, our money
must go to pay for them. *Locke*. 37. To pass, or
be loosed; not to be retained.—

Then he lets me go,
And, with his head over his shoulder turn'd,
He seem'd to find his way without his eyes. *Shak*.
Let

Let go the hand of that arch heretick.

Shak. K. John.

38. To be expended.—Scholars are close and frugal of their words, and not willing to let any go for ornament, if they will not serve for use. *Felton.*
39. To be in order of time or place.—We must enquire farther what is the connexion of that sentence with those that go before it, and those which follow it. *Watts's Log.* 40. To reach or be extended to any degree.—Can another man perceive that I am conscious of any thing, when I perceive it not my self? No man's knowledge here can go beyond his experience. *Locke.* 41. To extend to consequences.—It is not one matter that either directs or takes notice of these: it goes a great way barely to permit them. *L'Estrange.* 42. To reach by effects.—Considering the cheapness, so much money might go farther than a sum ten times greater could do now. *Wilkins.* 43. To extend in meaning.—His voracious expressions go no farther than virtue may allow. *Dryden's Ovid.* 44. To spread; to be dispersed; to reach.

Whose flesh, torn off by lumps, the ravenous
foe

In morsels cut, to make it farther go. *Tate's Juu.*

45. To have influence; to be of weight; to be of value.—I had another reason to decline it, that ever uses to go far with me upon all new inventions or experiments; which is, that the best trial of them is by time, and observing whether they live or no. *Temple.*—'Tis a rule that goes a great way in the government of a sober man's life, not to put any thing to hazard that may be secured by industry, consideration, or circumspection. *L'Estr.*—Whatever appears against their prevailing vice goes for nothing, but is either not applied, or passing for libel and slander. *Swift.* 46. To be rated one with another; to be considered with regard to greater or less worth.—I think, as the world goes, he was a good sort of man enough. *Arbuth.* 47. To contribute; to conduce; to concur; to be an ingredient.—The medicines which go to the ointments are so strong, that, if they were used inwards, they would kill those that use them. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—More parts of the greater wheels go to the making one part of their lines. *Gloucester's Scylla.*—There goes a great many qualifications to the completing this relation: there is no small share of honour and conscience and sufficiency required. *Coluer.*—I give the sex their revenge, by laying together the many vicious characters that prevail in the male world, and shewing the different ingredients that go to the making up of such different humours and constitutions. *Addison.*—Something better and greater than high birth and quality must go toward acquiring those demonstratious of publick esteem and love. *Swift to Pope.* 48. To fall out, or terminate; to succeed.—

Your strong passion much more than your
right,

Or else it must go wrong with you and me.

Shak.

How'er the business goes, you have made fault
I th' boldness of your speech. *Shak.*

—I will send to thy father, and they shall declare unto him how things go with thee. *Job. x. 8.*—In many armies, if the matter should be tried by duel

between two champions, the victory falls
the one side; and yet, if it be tried by the
it would go on the other side. *Bacon.*—It is
the constant observation of all, that if a
had a cause depending in the court, it was
one but it went against him. *South.*—At
of the prince's law, the father, calling
ing how things would go, went over, the
others, to the prince. *Saunders.*—Whether it
goes for me or against me, you must pay
reward. *Watts's Logic.* 49. To be in
This sense is impersonal.—It shall go in
that is left in his tabernacle. *Job. xx.*—
his name Beriah, because it went evil
house. *1 Corin. vi. 23.* 50. To proceed,
or consequence.—

How goes the night, boy?

—The moon is down: I have not
clock;

And she goes down at twelve.

I had hope,

When violence was ceased, and war
All would have then have gone well.

—Duration in itself is to be considered as,
in one constant, equal, uniform course.
51. To Go about To attempt; to endeavour
to set one's self to any business—

O dear father,

It is thy business that I go about.

I told him, but so found, as well I do
He could not lose himself, but went about
His father's business.

—Which answer exceedingly united the
minds to them, who concurred only with
as they saw them like to prevail in what
went about. *Clarendon.*—Some men, from
persuasion that they cannot reform their
root out their old vicious habits, never set
as attempt, endeavour, or go about it.
—Either my book is plainly enough writ
be rightly understood by those who peruse
attention and indifference, or else I have
mine so obscurely that it is in vain to go
mend it. *Locke.*—They never go about, a
mer times, to hide or palliate their vices;
pose them freely to view. *South.* 52. To Go
To err; to deviate from the right.—If an
wife go aside, and commit a trespass again
Numb. v. 32. 53. To Go between. To inter
to moderate between two.—I did go between
as I said; but more than that, he loved her
indeed, he was mad for her. *Shak.* 54.

by. To pass away unnoticed.—
Do not you come my tardiness to chide
That laps'd in time and passion, lets go
Th' important acting of your dread covet

So much the more our carver's excel
Which lets go by some sixteen years, and
her

As she liv'd now.

What's that to us? The time goes by;

55. To Go by. To find or get in the course
In argument with men a woman ever
Goes by the worse, whatever be her cause

—He's sure to go by the worst that conter

try : that is too mighty for him. *L'Ess.*
 57. To observe as a rule.—'Tis not
 posed, that by searching one can possi-
 ge of the size and form of a stone ; and
 e frequency of the fits, and violence of
 oms, are a better rule to go by. *Sharr.*
 o down. To be swallowed ; to be re-
 ot rejected.—Nothing so ridiculous, no-
 rpossible, but it goes down whole with
 tth and earnest. *L'Ess.*—Folly will not
 down in its own natural form with dis-
 idges. *Dryden.*—If he be hungry, bread
 own. *Locke.*—Ministers are so wise to
 r proceedings to be accounted for by
 at a distance, who often mould them in-
 ems that do not only go down very well
 ouse, but are supplies for pamphlets in
 it age. *Swift.* 58. To Go in and out.
 : business of life.—The Lord shall pre-
 going out and thy coming in. *Pf.* 59.
 and out. To be at liberty.—He shall
 out, and find pasture. *John.* x. 9. 60.
 f. To die ; to go out of life : to de-

mid the friends we miss were safe arrived :
 rust go off ; and yet, by these I see,
 t a day as this is cheaply bought. *Shak.*
 manner he went off, not like a man that
 out of life, but one that returned to his
 tier. 61. To Go off. To depart from

eaders having charge from you to stand,
 it go off until they hear you speak. *Shak.*
 o on. To make attack.—

Bold Cethegus,

valour I have turn'd into his poison,
 ais'd so to daring, as he would
 pon the Gods.

Ben Jonson.
 62. To proceed.—He found it a great
 ep that peace, but was fain to go on in his
 nez.—He that desires only that the work
 id religion shall go on, is pleased with it,
 s the instrument. *Taylor.*—I have esca-
 threats of ill fits by these motions : if
 , the only poltice I have dealt with is
 the belly of a fat sheep. *Temple.*—To
 the soul as going on from strength to
 to consider that she is to shine for ever
 accessions of glory, and brighten to all
Addison.—Go on in the glorious course
 undertaken. *Addison.*—Copious bleeding
 t effectual remedy in the beginning of
 ; but when the expectoration goes on
 y, not so proper, because it sometimes
 it. *Arbutnot.*—I have already hand-
 abuses during the late management,
 venient time shall go on with the rest.
 Then we had found that design imprac-
 e should not have gone on in so expen-
 nagement of it. *Swift.*—Many clergy-
 in so diminutive a manner, with such
 slots and interlineations, that they are
 : to go on without perpetual hesitations,
 dinary expletives. *Swift.*—I wish you
 go on with that noble work. *Berkley.*
 o over. To revolt ; to betake himself
 party.—In the change of religion, men
 r understandings don't so much confi-

dier the principles as the practice of those to whom
 they go over. *Addison.*—Power, which, accord-
 ing to the old maxim, was used to follow, is now
 gone over to money. *Swift.* 65. To Go out. To
 go upon any expedition.—You need not have
 pricked me : there are other men fitter to go out
 than I. *Shak.* 66. To Go out. To be extinguished.

Think'st thou the fiery fever will go out,

With titles blown from adulation ? *Shak.*

—Spirit of wine burned till it go out of itself, will
 burn no more. *Bacon.*—The care of a state, or an
 army, ought to be as constant as the chymist's fire,
 to make any great production ; and if it goes out
 for an hour, perhaps the whole operation fails.
Temple.—

The morning, as mistaken, turns about ;

And all her early fires again goes out. *Dryden.*

—Let the acquaintance be decently buried, and
 the flame rather go out than be smothered. *Collier*
of Friendship.—

My blood runs cold, my heart forgets to
 heave,

And life itself goes out at thy displeasure.

Addison's Cat.

And at her felt approach and secret might,

Art after art goes out, and all is night. *Pope.*

67. To Go through. To perform thoroughly ; to
 execute.—Finding Pyrocles every way able to go
 through with that kind of life, he was desirous for
 his sake as for his own to enter into it. *Sidney.*—

If you can as well go through with the statute laws
 of that land, I will think you have not lost all your
 time there. *Spenser.*—Kings ought not to suffer

their council to go through with the resolution and
 direction, as if it depended on them, but take the
 matter back into their own hands. *Bacon.*—He

much feared the earl of Arim had not the linets
 of mind enough to go through with such an under-
 taking. *Ciarendon.*—The amazing difficulty and

greatness of his account will rather terrify than in-
 form him, and keep him from setting heartily a-
 bout such a task, as he despairs to go through with

it. *South.*—The powers in Germany are borrow-
 ing money, in order to go through their part of
 the expence. *Addison.* 68. To Go through. To

suffer ; to undergo.—I tell thee that it is absolute-
 ly necessary for the common good that thou
 shouldst go through this operation. *Arbutnot.*—

69. To Go upon. To take as a principle.—This
 supposition I have gone upon through those papers.
Addison. 70. The senses of this word are very

indistinct : its general notion is motion or progre-
 sion. It commonly expresses passage from a place,
 in opposition to come. This is often observed

even in figurative expressions. We say, the words
 that go before and that come after : to day goes
 away and to-morrow comes.

(2.) To Go. This verb is one of the many Eng-
 lish words which are often used without meaning,

in the bombastic dialect of modern affectation.
 That eminent and judicious critic, the late prof.

J. Hay Beattie has justly ridiculed the fashionable
 phrases,—To go to jay, To go to prove, To go into

a variety of matter, &c. in his humorous dialogue
 in the shades between Dean Swift, a London

bookseller and Mercury, which we have repeat-
 edly quoted. See BEATTIE, § 2 ; BLUSH, § 2 ;

To FEEL, § 3, &c. "Indeed," (says Mercury

to

to Swift) "the words, *line, meet, marked, feel, go*, and some others, may be used on all occasions, whether they have *meaning* or not.—His arguments *went to prove*, &c. Accounts from Spain *go to say*, that, &c. This because more verbose, is thought more elegant than—Accounts from Spain *say*—His arguments proved, &c."

(3.) * *Go to. interj.* Come, come, take the right course. A scornful exhortation.—

Go to, then, O thou far renowned son
Of great Apollo; shew thy famous might
In medicine.

Spenser.

Go to, go to, thou art a foolish fellow;

Let me be clear of thee.

Shak.

My favour is not bought with words like these:

Go to; you'll teach your tongue another tale.

Roscoe.

(1.) GOA, an island of the Indian Ocean near the W. and Malabar coast of Indostan, separated from the continent by the Mandova. It is 22 m. long and 6 broad, according to Dr Brookes; but Mr Cruttwell makes it only 24 in circumference. The soil is fertile, and produces excellent fruits, corn, &c. The climate is moderate from Oct. to March; in April and May very sultry, and from June, to Sept. almost constant rain.

(2.) GOA, a strong city of Asia, the capital of the above island. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and is the chief town of all their settlements on this side the Cape of Good Hope. It is built on the N. side of the island, having the convenience of a fine river, capable of receiving ships of the greatest burden, where they lie within a mile of the town. Its banks are beautified with churches, castles, and gentlemen's houses. The air being unwholesome, it is not so well inhabited as formerly. The viceroy's palace is a noble building; and stands at a small distance from the river, over one of the gates of the city, which leads to a spacious street, terminated by a beautiful church. This city contains a great number of handsome churches, convents, and cloisters, with a stately hospital; all well endowed, and kept in good repair. The market-place takes up an acre of ground; and in the shops may be had the produce of Europe, China, Bengal, and other countries. Every church has a set of bells, some of which are continually ringing. There are many Indian converts; but they generally retain some of their old customs; particularly they cannot be brought to eat beef. The clergy are numerous and illiterate; the churches are finely embellished, and have great numbers of images. In one of these churches, is a magnificent chapel of St Francis Xavier, whose tomb it contains: the tomb is of fine black marble from Lisbon; on the 4 sides of it the principal actions of his life are elegantly carved in basso relievo; the figures are admirably executed: It's form is pyramidical, and terminates with a coronet of mother-of-pearl. Within this chapel are excellent paintings by Italian masters; the subjects chiefly from Scripture. The tomb and chapel, must have cost an immense sum, the Portuguese justly esteem them the greatest rarities in the place. The houses are large and showy, but poorly furnished. Greens, fruits, roots, with a little bread, rice, and fish, are the principal diet of the natives, though they have hogs and fowls in plenty. The

river's mouth is defended by several fortifications, with large cannon on both sides the residence of a captain general, and commander of all the Portuguese forces in India. They have two regiments of European infantry, 3 legions of sepoy, 3 troops of horse, and a militia; in all, about 5000. Goa is at present in little estimation with the European powers; indeed the bigotry of the natives and their superstitious attachment to the idol so general, that the country formerly inhabited by a few thinly inhabitants, the chief part of whose inhabitants have been civilized: for they will not suffer any European to live within the precincts of the city, and these few are unable to carry on any dry or manufactures of the country.

Portugal is obliged to send annually 200,000 rials of money, to defray the expences of the army which is generally swallowed up by the soldiers. There was formerly an idol in Goa, but it is now abolished: the idol remains, and its black outside is a fit emblem of the cruel and bloody transactions that go on within its walls. Provisions are to be had in great plenty and perfection. The chief trade of Goa is in Arrack. Lon. 73. 46. E. Lat. 15. 28. N.

(3.) GOA, a town in the island of Ceylon, on the S. coast. Lon. 120. 30. E. Lat. 6. 30. N.

* GOAD, *n. s.* [*gad*, Saxon.] A sharp instrument with which oxen are driven forward. Oft in his harden'd hand a goad he

* *To GOAD. v. a.* [from the noun.] To drive with the goad. 1. To incite or urge forward; to instigate; to drive forward.

Most dangerous

Is that temptation, that doth *goad* us

To sin in loving virtue.

Goaded with most sharp occasions
Which lay nice manners by, I put
The use of your own virtues.

Of all that breathes the various p
Stung with delight, is *goaded* on by

(1.) GOADBY, Robert, an eminent English writer, who was born at Sherborne in Dorsetshire, where he compiled an *Illustration of the Holy Scriptures* in 3 vols fol. and a work entitled, *The Christian's Instructor*, the life of Bonaventura, &c. and established a new paper in the western counties, entitled the *Sherborne Post*, which has a great circulation. He d. 12th, 1778.

(2, 3.) GOADBY, 2 villages in Leicestershire.

(1.) * GOAL, *n. s.* [*gaule*, French.] A pole, set up to mark the bounds of a race, or a landmark set up to bound a race, or a marked out to which racers run.—

As at the Olympian games, or Py
Part curb their fiery steeds, or spur
With rapid wheels.

And the slope sun his upward be
Shoots against the dusky pole,
Pacing toward the other goal.

2. The starting post.—

Hast thou beheld, when from the
Start,

ithful charioteers with heaving heart
the race? *Dryden.*

al purpose; the end to which a design
or poet has always the *goal* in his eye,
sets him in his race: some beautiful de-
he first establishes, and then contrives
, which will naturally conduct him to
Dryden.—

individual seeks a several *goal*;
iv'n's great view is one, and that the
ole. *Pope.*

in, who here seems principal alone,
acts second to some sphere unknown;
s some wheel, or verges to some *goal*;
: a part we see, and not a whole. *Pope.*
metimes improperly written for *gaol* or

AL. See GAOL, § 1 and 2.

AR, James, a learned Dominican, born
n 1601. In 1618 he was sent on a mis-
: Levant. On his return he resided at
ere he was much esteemed by the Lite-
647, he published at Paris, *Gregorium*
m, in Gr. and Lat. folio. He also pub-
-tal translations of some of the Byzan-
lans, and died in 1651.

GOAR. *n. f.* [*goror*, Welsh.] Any edging
n cloth to strengthen it. *Skinner.*

AR, ST, ST GEVER, or ST GOWER, a
ermany, now in the French republic,
f the Rhine and Moselle, lately in the
f Hesse Rheinfeldt; with a strong fort
the W. bank of the Rhine, near Rhein-
was surrendered to the French, Oct.
with all its military stores. It lies 15
of Coblenz, and 15 NW. of Bingen.
2. E. Lat. 50. 10. N.

SHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the
ie Upper Rhine, on the E. bank of the
miles E. of ST GOAR.

GOAT. *n. f.* [*gat*, Saxon and Scottish.]
nt animal that seems a middle species
eer and sheep.—

of *goat*, and slips of yew. *Sba. Macbeth.*
yclops care not for your *goat*-fed Jove,
er blest ones; we are better farre. *Chapm.*
y draw naked boys riding and playing
paper-mills upon *goats*, eagles, or dol-
icham.—

little bear that rock'd the mighty Jove,
an whose borrow'd shape conceal'd his
e,

c'd with light; the nursing *goat's* repaid
caven, and duty rais'd the pious maid.

Creech.

AT, in zoology. See CAPRA.

BEARD. See GOAT'S-BEARD.

GOAT-CHAFER. *n. f.* An insect; a kind
Bailey.

AT-CHAFER. See SCARABÆUS.

HERD. *n. f.* [*gat* and *byrd*, Sax. a feed-
er.] One whose employment is to tend

t think same *goatberd* proud,
s on yonder bank,
le straying herd themself doth shroud
the bushes rank? *Spenser's Past.*
ft gave the *goatherd* good contentment,
.. PART. II.

and the marquis and his servant chased the kid a-
bout the stack. *Wotton.*

* GOATISH. *adj.* [from *goat*.] Resembling a
goat in any quality: as, rankness; lust.—An ad-
mirable evasion of a whoremaster, man, to lay his
goatish disposition on the change of a star. *Shaks.*
K. Lear.—The last is notorious for its *goatish* smell,
and tufts not unlike the beard of that lecherous a-
nimal. *More against Atheism.*

GOAT ISLAND, an isle of the United States, on
the coast of Rhode Island, opposite Newport.
Fort Washington is built on it.

* GOATMARJORAM. *n. f.* The same with
GOATSBEARD.

* GOATMILKER. *n. f.* [*goat* and *milker*.] A
kind of owl so called from sucking goats. *Bailey.*

(1.) * GOATSBEARD. *n. f.* [*goat* and *beard*;
barba capri.] A plant.

(2.) GOAT'S-BEARD. See TRAGOPOGON.

GOAT'S ISLAND, an island, in the E. Indian
Ocean, one of the Bashee islands. Lon. 121. 0. E.
Lat. 20. 6. N.

* GOATSKIN. *n. f.* [*goat* and *skin*.]—

Then fill'd two *goat/skins*, with her hands divine;
With water one, and one with sable wine. *Pope.*

* GOATSMILK. *n. f.* [*goat* and *milk*.] This is
more properly two words.—After the fever and
such like accidents are diminished, asses and *goat's*-
milk may be necessary. *Wijman.*

(1.) * GOAT'S RUE. *n. f.* [*galega*.] A plant.—
Goat's Rue has the reputation of being a great a-
lexipharmick and sudorifick: the Italians eat it
raw and boiled; with us it is of no esteem. *Hill.*

(2.) GOAT'S RUE. See GALEGA.

(1.) GOAT'S STONES, greater. See SATYRIUM.

(2.) GOAT'S STONES, lesser. See ORCHIS.

(1.) * GOATS-THORN. *n. f.* [*goat* and *thorn*.]
An herb.

(2.) GOATS-THORN. See ASTRAGALUS, § 2.

GOATSUCKER. See CAPRIMULGUS.

(1.) GOAVE, GRAND, a town of Hispaniola,
10 miles SW. of Leogane.

(2.) GOAVE, LITTLE, or } a sea port of Hispa-

(2.) GOAVE, PETIT, } niola, with a har-
bour capable of admitting ships of the largest size;
20 miles WSW. of Leogane. Lon. 55. 5. W. of
Ferro. Lat. 18. 30. N.

* GOB. *n. f.* [*gobe*, French.] A small quanti-
ty. A low word.—Do'st think I have so little wit
as to part with such a *gob* of money? *L'Estrange.*

GOBAN, a town of Persia, in Chusistan.

* GOBBET. *n. f.* [*gobe*, Fr.] a mouthful; as
much as can be swallowed at once.—

Therewith she spew'd, out of her filthy maw,
A flood of poison, horrible and black,

Full of great lumps of flesh and *gobbets* raw. *Spens.*

By devilish policy art thou grown great,

And like ambitious Sylla, overgorg'd

With *gobbets* of thy mother's bleeding heart.

Shakspeare's Henry VI.

—The cooks, slicing it into little *gobbets*, prick it
on a prong of iron, and hang it in a furnace. *Sar-
dys's Travels.*—

The giant gorg'd with flesh, and wine, and
blood,

Lay stretch'd at length, and snoring in his den,
Belching raw *gobbets* from his maw, o'ercharg'd

U u u

With

With purple wine and cruddled gore confus'd.

Addison.

* To GOBBET. *v. a.* [from the noun] To swallow at a mouthful. A low word.—Down comes a kite powdering upon them, and gobbets up both together. *L'Estrange.*

(1.) GOBBI, a province of Loango, in Africa, between CAMMA, and Cape Lopez Gonzalvo.

(2.) GOBBI, the capital of the above prov. lies about a day's journey from the sea. Their rivers abound with a variety of fish; but are infested with sea horses, which do great mischief both by land and water. The principal commerce with the natives is in logwood, elephants teeth, and tails, the hair of which is highly valued.

* To GOBBLE. *v. a.* [gobber, to swallow, old Fr.] To swallow hastily with tumult and noise.—The sheep were so kren upon the acorns, that they gobbled up now and then a piece of the coat along with them. *L'Estrange.*

Of last year's corn in barn great store;

Fat turkeys gobbling at the door. *Prior.*

The time too precious now to waste,

And supper gobbled up in haste,

Again affix'd to cards they ran. *Swift.*

* GOBBLER. *n. s.* [from gobble.] One that devours in haste; a gormand; a greedy eater.

GOBBO CORTONESE. Peter Paul, a celebrated painter of fruit and landscapes, born at Cortona in 1520. He learned the principles of design from his father; was afterwards the disciple of Crescenzio at Rome, and perfected himself in his profession, by copying after nature, with judgment and accuracy. By his skill in the chiaro-scuro he gave an exact and expressive roundness to his fruits, &c. But he chiefly excelled in colouring. He died in 1640.

GOBCEIN, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate of the Rhine, 18 miles SE. of Philipshurg. Lon. 8. 16. E. Lat. 49. 6. N.

(1.) GOBELIN, Giles, a famous French dyer, in the reign of Francis I. who discovered a method of dying a beautiful scarlet, and his name has been given ever since to the finest French scarlets.

(2.) GOBELIN, a small river of France, in the department of Paris.

(3.) GOBELIN, *n. s.* in commerce, a fine kind of French tapestry, first manufactured at Paris, in 1666.

* GO-BETWEEN. *n. s.* [go and between.] One that transacts business by running between two parties. Commonly in an ill sense.—Even as you came in to me, her assistant, or go between, parted from me: I say I shall be with her between ten and eleven. *Shak. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

GOBIER, Charles, a French author, born at St Malo, in 1644. He was a Jesuit, and being secretary to the missions of that society, wrote *Lettres curieuses et edifiantes*, containing the natural history, geography and policy, of the countries explored by the Jesuits; and *Histoire des Isles Mariannes*. He died at Paris in 1708.

GOBIN, ST, a town and castle of France, in the dep. of Aisne, and late prov. of Picardy, near Fere. It has a manufactory of fine plate glass. Lon. 3. 23. E. Lat. 49. 29. N.

GOBIUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of thoracici. They have two

holes between the eyes, 4 rays in the of the gills, and the belly fins are unival form. There are 8 species, distinguished by the number of rays in their (1.) * GOBLET. *n. s.* [goblet, Fr.] or cup, that holds a large draught.—

My figur'd goblets for a dish of wine

We love not loaded boards, a

crown'd;

But free from surfeits our repose is found

Crown high the goblets with a cheerful

Enjoy the present hour, adjourn a

thought.

(2.) GOBLATS are ordinarily of a ray and without either foot or handle. Hence the word from the Greek *goblatos*, (1.) * GOBLIN. *n. s.* [Fr. *gobelin*, *ser* has once retained; writing it in this

This word some derive from the Gibe-

tion in Italy; so that *elfe* and *goblin* is

Gibelline, because the children of either

terrified by their nurses with the name of

but it appears that *elfe* is Welsh, and

than those fictions. *Wulf Uithon*, are

the night, and the Germans likewise

spirits among them named *Gobolids*,

gobcha might be derived.] 1. An

walking spirit; a frightful phantom.—

Angels and ministers of grace descend

Be thou a spirit of health, or goblin

Bring with thee airs from heav'n, or

hell!

To whom the goblin, full of wrath

Art thou that traitor angel? *Milton.*

—Always, whilst he is young, be sure

his tender mind from all impressions of

of spirits and goblins, or any fearful ap-

pearances in the dark. *Locke.* 2. A fairy; an el

His son was Elfinel, who overcame

The wicked goblins in bloody field

But Elfant was of most renowned

Who all of crystal did Panthea build

Go, charge my goblins that they

joint

With dry convulsions; shorten up

With aged cramps. *Shakespeare*

Mean time the village rouses up the

While well attested, and as well be

Heard solemn goes the goblin story round

(2.) GOBLIN. See APPARITION, GU

GOBLIN, and SPECTRE.

GOBONY. See COMPONE.

GOBRIAS, one of the 7 Persian conspired against Smerdis the Magian usurped the throne on the death of

A. A. C. 521. See PERSIA. He was in-law of Darius I, and accompanied the expedition against the Scythians.

* GO-BY. *n. s.* Delusion; artifice; tion; over reach.—Except an apprenticed how to adulterate and varnish, and go by upon occasion, his master may

with neglect. *Collier.*

* GO-CART. *n. s.* [go and cart.]

in which children are inclosed to tea

walk, and which they push forward

ger of falling.—

ing children, who are try'd in
to keep their steps from sliding,
members knit, and legs grow stronger,
of such machine no longer. *Prior.*

town of the French republic, in the
Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Cleves;
6 miles S. of Cleves. It has three
id was surrounded with walls in 1291.
E. Lat. 51. 39. N.

LEIM, or } a town of Germany, in
LEN, } the duchy of Wirtemberg,
Heidelberg, and 24 NNW. of Stuttgard.

LANG, a county of Sardinia.

ANO, the capital of the above county,
, seated on the Thurso, 25 miles E.

LENIUS, Conrad, a learned German
n in Westphalia, in 1486. He wrote
cero De Officiis, a translation of Lu-
otinus, &c. He died in 1539.

LENIUS, Rodolph, a voluminous Ger-
born in the county of Wardeck, in
was about 50 years professor of logic
and died there in 1628. His works
hiloſophical.

LENIUS, Rodolph, a German physi-
Wirtemberg, in 1572. He was pro-
fic and mathematics at Marburg. He
atise of the cure of wounds by the Mag-
d in 1621.

D. n. s. [*god*, Sax. which likewise sig-
The same word passes in both senses
cidental variations through all the
ialects.] 1. The Supreme Being.—*God*
nd they that worship him must wor-
pirit and in truth. *John* iv. 24.—

God above
een thee and me. *Shak. Macbeth.*
urches of *God* are united into one by
discipline and government, by virtue
same Christ ruleth in them all. *Pearson.*
me Being, whom we call *God*, is ne-
existent, eternal, immense, omni-
ient, and best being; and therefore
who is and ought to be esteemed most
ly. *Grew's Cosm.* 2. A god; an idol.
icrificeth unto any *god*, save unto the
he shall be utterly destroyed. *Exod.*

to wanton boys are we to the *gods*,
us for their sport. *Shak. K. Lear.*
god of arms, whose iron sceptre sways
ing North, and Hyperborean seas,
ian colds, and Thracia's Winter coast,
nd thy steeds, and thou art honour'd

Dryden.
n or thing deified or too much ho-
hose end is destruction, whose *god* is
Phil. iii.—

I am not Licio,
at scorns to live in this disguise,
one as leaves a gentleman,
s a *god* of such a cullion. *Shak.*

§ 1. *def.* 1. See CHRISTIANITY,
ICS, MORAL PHILOSOPHY, and THE-

§ 1. *def.* 2.) is also used in speaking of
ies of the heathens, many of whom

were only creatures to which divine honours and
worship were superstitiously paid. The Greeks
and Latins did not mean by the name *God*, an all-
perfect being, whereof eternity, infinity, omnipre-
sence, &c. were essential attributes: with them,
the word only implied an excellent and superior
nature; and accordingly they give the appellation
gods to all beings of a rank or class higher and
more perfect than that of men; and especially to
those who were interior agents in the divine admi-
nistration, all subject to the one Supreme. Thus
men themselves, according to their system, might
become gods after death; inasmuch as their souls
might attain to a degree of excellence superior to
what they were capable of in life. See MYTHO-
LOGY.

* *To God.* v. a. [from the noun.] To deify; to
exalt to divine honours.—

This last old man,
Lov'd me above the measure of a father;
Nay, *godded* me, indeed. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

GODAH, a town of Asia, in Indostan.

(1.) GODALMIN, or } a parish of England, in
(1.) GODALMING, } Surry which is divided
into 9 tythings. It is agreeably diversified with
hills and valleys. The Wye runs through it, sup-
plies it with fish, and drives 4 corn and 2 paper
mills. A bridge was built over it in 1785. This
parish abounds with a peculiar kind of peats, that
are reckoned better than pit coals.

(2.) GODALMING, a town in the above parish,
(N^o 1.) on the Wye, where it divides into several
streams. It is a corporation, and by its charter
the chief magistrate is a warden chosen yearly,
with 8 assistants. It carries on manufactures of
kerseys and stockings; and is famous for liquorice.
It has a market on Wed. and fairs Feb. 13, Sept.
28, and Nov. 28. In 1739, the small-pox carried
off above 500 persons in three months, which was
more than a 3d of the inhabitants. It lies 4 miles
SW. of Guildford and 35 of London. Lon. 0. 34.
W. Lat. 51. 13. N.

GODANNA, a town of Persia, in the prov. of
Irak, 105 miles E. of Ispahan.

GODAVERY, GODURY, or GONDA, a river
of Indostan, which rises about 70 miles NE. of
Bombay, and whose waters, at least in the upper
part of its course, are esteemed *sacred* by the Hin-
doo; who believe that ablutions performed in
them have a greater religious efficacy than those
performed in any other river. After crossing Dow-
latabad and Golconda, from W. to E. it runs SE.
and receives the Bain Gonga; about 90 miles from
the sea, it divides into two large branches at Raja-
mundry; and these subdividing into inferior bran-
ches, its waters fall into the Bay of Bengal by
various mouths; which form harbours at Bandar-
malanka, Coringa, Ingeram, Narlapour, Yalam,
&c. between Lon. 81. 40. and 82. 50. E. and be-
tween Lat. 16. 20. and 16. 50. N.

* GODCHILD. n. s. [*god* and *child*.] A term of
spiritual relation; one for whom one became spon-
sor at baptism, and promised to see educated as a
Christian.

GODDARD, Jonathan, M. D. an eminent phy-
sician and chemist, and one of the first promoters
of the Royal Society. He was born about 1617;
educated and graduated at Oxford; was elected a

fellow of the college of physicians in 1646, and appointed reader of the anatomical lecture in 1647. Oliver Cromwell appointed him first physician to the army, a member of the council of state, and warden of Merton college. But he lost this office on the restoration. He was elected professor of physic in Gresham college, in 1655. He prepared all his own medicines; and in 1668, published a treatise, recommending that practice to all physicians. He was the inventor of the *Gutta Anglicana*. He died of an apoplectic fit in 1674. Bishop Seth Ward says, he was the first Englishman who made a telescope.

* **GODDAUGHTER**. *n. f.* [*god* and *daughter*.] A girl for whom one became sponsor in baptism. A term of spiritual relation.

(1.) * **GODDESS**. *n. f.* [*from god*.] A female divinity.—

Hear, nature, hear; dear *godde*s, hear a father!
Shakespeare.

A woman I forswore; but I will prove,
Thou being a *godde*s, I forswore not thee:
My vow was earthly, thou a heav'nly love. *Shak.*

I long have waited in the temple nigh,
Built to the gracious *godde*s's Clemency;
But rescue thou the pow'r. *Dryden's Fob.*

From his seat the *godde*s born arose,
And thus undaunted spoke. *Dryden's Fob.*
—When the daughter of Jupiter presented herself
among a crowd of *godde*s's, she was distinguished
by her graceful stature and superior beauty. *Addis.*

Modesty with-held the *godde*s's train. *Pope.*
(2.) **GODDESSES**. The ancients had almost as
many *godde*s's as gods: such were Juno, Minerva,
Diana, &c. The virtues, graces, and principal
advantages of life; truth, justice, piety, liberty,
fortune, victory, &c. were all represented as
*godde*s's; which was paying no small compliment
to the sex. But to balance this, the Furies,
Harpies, &c. were also represented as *godde*s's.

* **GODDESS-LIKE**. *adj.* [*godde*s and *like*.] Resembling a *godde*s.

Then female voices from the shore I heard;
A maid amidst them *godde*s-like appear'd. *Pope.*
GODDINGTON, two small towns of England, in Kent and Oxfordshire.

GODEAU, Anthony, bishop of Grasse and Vence, in France, was born at Dreux, in 1605. He was a very voluminous writer. His principal works are, 1. *An ecclesiastical history*, in 3 vols. fol. containing the first 8 centuries, as he never finished more. 2. *Translation of the Psalms into French verse*; which was so well approved, that even those of the reformed religion preferred it to that of Marot. He died in 1671.

GODERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine, 9 miles NE. of Montivilliers, and 15 NW. of Gaudebec.

(1.) * **GODFATHER**. *n. f.* [*god* and *father*.] The sponsor at the font.—He had a son by her, and the king did him the honour to stand *godfather* to his child. *Bacon's Henry VII.*—Confirmation, a profitable usage of the church, transferred from the apostles, consists in the child's undertaking in his own name the baptismal vow; and, that he may more solemnly enter this obligation, bringing some

godfather with him, not now, as in bapt. procurator. *Hammond.*

(2.) **GODFATHERS** and **GODMOTHERS**: sons who, at the baptism of infants, a their future conduct, and solemnly promise they will renounce the devil and all his works, follow a life of piety and virtue; and themselves under an indispensable obligation to instruct them, and watch over their conduct. This custom is of great antiquity in the Christian church, and was probably instituted to prevent being brought up in idolatry, in case the child died before they arrived at the years of discretion. The number of *godfathers* and *godmothers* formerly great, but is reduced to 2, in the church of Rome; and 3, in the church of England.

(1.) **GODFREY** of Bouillon, or Boulogne, of Lorraine, a most celebrated crusader, and general. He was chosen general of the Christians who undertook the recovery of the Holy Land, and led them to prepare for the war. He took Jerusalem from the Turks in 1099; and was made king of Jerusalem. His piety would not permit him to wear gold in the city where his Saviour was crowned with thorns. The sultan of Egypt afterwards sent a terrible army against him; which he defeated, with the slaughter of about 100,000 of the enemy. He died in 1106.

(2.) **GODFREY**. See **GODMOTHER**.
GODHEAD, or **GOOD HOPE**, a sea in W. Greenland. Lon. 50. 10. W. Lat. 70. 10. N.

* **GODHEAD**. *n. f.* [*from god*.] A deity; divinity; divine nature. It is used of idols and of the true God.—

Be content;

Your low-laid son our *godhead* will adore
At the holy mount

Of heav'n's high-seated top, th'imperial
Of *godhead*, fix'd for ever firm and fast
The filial pow'r arriv'd. *Milton's*

So may thy *godhead* be content,
So the returning year be bl. st.

2. A deity in person; a god or *godhead*: your *godheads* to borrow of men, men like the gods. *Shakespeare's Timon.*—

Adoring first the *genius* of the place
The nymphs and native *godheads* yet
Dry.

GODIVA, a lady of the 11th century, celebrated for an uncommon act of generosity and spirit, to the people of Coventry. See **C** N° 1.

* **GODLESS**. *adj.* [*from god*.] Without duty to God; atheistical; wicked; impious.—Of these two sorts of men, but the one has utterly no knowledge of the other studies how to persuade thee there is no such thing to be known. *Ham.*

That *godless* crew

Rebellious.

For faults not his, for guilt and crime
Of *godless* men, and of rebellious sin
Ham his ungrateful country lent,
Their best Camillus, into banishment

* **GODLIKE**. *adj.* [*god* and *like*.] Resembling a divinity; supremely excellent.

Adam his illustrious guest besought,
us the *godlike* angels answer'd mild. *Milt.*
ng and much revolving in his breast,
est the mighty work he might begin
iour to mankind, and which way first

his *godlike* office now mature. *Milton.*
rince shall be so wise and *godlike*, as, by
1 laws of liberty, to secure protection
ragement to the honest industry of man-
ke.

GODLING. *n. f.* [from *god.*] A little divini-
mutive god.—

puny *godlings* of inferior race,
bumble statues are content with brass.

Dryden's Juv.

GODLINESS. *n. f.* [from *godly.*] 1. Piety to
General observation of all the duties
l by religion.—Virtue and *godliness* of life
ed at the hands of the minister of God.

GODLY. *adj.* [from *god.*] 1. Pious towards
rant that we may hereafter live a *godly*,
, and sober life. *Com. Prayer.* 2. Good;
; religious.—Help, Lord, for the *godly*
th, for the faithful fail among the chil-
en. *Pf. xii.* 1.—The same church is real-
this world, in relation to all *godly* per-
ained in it, by a real infused sanctity.

GODLY. *adv.* Piously; righteously. By
should be *godlily*, but the repetition of
le is too harsh.—The apostle St Paul
that every one that will live *godly* in
us must suffer persecution. *Hooker.*

GODLYHEAD. *n. f.* [from *godly.*] Goodness;
ness. An old word.—

his, and many more such outrage,
your *godlyhead* to assuage
ricorous rigour of his might. *Spenser.*

GODMAN. *n. f.* an epithet applied to our Savi-
the divine and human natures being u-
is person.

GODMANCHESTER, a borough of Hunt-
re, 16 miles from Cambridge, and 57
don. It has a bridge over the Ouse,
to Huntingdon; was formerly a Ro-

by the name of *Durosponte*, where
man coins have been often dug up;
ding to old writers, in the time of the
was the see of a bishop, and had a castle
ne Gorman a Danish king, from which

was called GORMANCHESTER. It is
a fertile soil, abounding with corn. It is
no town in England kept more ploughs
than this has done. The inhabitants for-
rived their kings with nine score ploughs
, finely adorned with trappings, &c.
made it a corporation, under 2 bailiffs
tendants. Here is a school, called the
nmar School of queen Elizabeth. On
de of the town is an ancient seat of the
ndwich. Near this place, in the Lon-
between Huntingdon and Caxton, is a
known to travellers by the name of *Beg-*

GODMANHAM, a town in Yorkshire.

GODMANSTON, a town in Dorsetshire.

GODMOTHER. *n. f.* [*god* and *mother.*] A

woman who has undertaken sponson in baptism.
A term of spiritual relation.

(2.) **GODMOTHERS.** See **GODFATHER**, § 2.

(1.) **GODOLPHIN**, John, an eminent English
civilian, born in the island of Sicily, in 1617, and
educated at Oxford. In 1642-3, he was created
LL. D. in 1653, he was appointed one of the
judges of the admiralty; and at the Restoration,
he was made one of the king's advocates. He was
esteemed as great a master of divinity as of law;
and published, 1. The holy limbeck. 2. The holy
arbour. 3. A view of the admiral's jurisdiction.
4. The orphan's legacy. 5. *Repertorium canonicum*,
&c. He died in 1678.

(2.) **GODOLPHIN**, in geography, a hill of Eng-
land, in Cornwall, E. of Mount's Bay, and 4 miles
from Market-Jew; famous for its tin mines.

(1.) **GODRA**, a circar of Indostan, in Guzerat.

(2.) **GODRA**, the capital of the above circar, 55
miles E. of Amedabad. Lon. 73. 40. E. Lat. 22.
50. N.

GODSHILL, a hill in the Isle of Wight.

* **GODSHIP.** *n. f.* [from *god.*] The rank or cha-
racter of a god; deity; divinity.—

Discourfing largely on this theme,

O'er hills and dales their *godships* came. *Prior.*

GOD'S MERCY, ISLANDS OF, four isles at the
NW. extremity of Hudson's Straits. Lon. 73. 0.
W. Lat. 63. 45. N.

* **GODSON.** *n. f.* [*god* and *son.*] One for whom
one has been sponsor at the font.—

What, did my father's *godson* seek your life?

He whom my father named? your Edgar? *Shak.*

GODSTONE, a village in Surry.

GODSTOW, a place NW. of Oxford, in an
island formed by the Isis, after it is joined by the
Evenlode. It is famous for fish, but more so for
the ruins of that nunnery, which Rosamond quit-
ted for the embraces of Henry II. The natives
show a great hole in the earth, where, they say,
is a subterraneous passage, under the river to
Woodstock, by which she used to pass and repass.
Little more now remains than ragged walls, scat-
tered over a considerable extent of ground. An
arched gateway, and another venerable ruin, part
of the tower of the conventual church, are still
standing. Near the altar in this church Rosamond
was buried, but the body was afterwards remo-
ved by order of a bishop of Lincoln. The only
entire part is small, formerly a private chapel.
Not many years ago, a stone coffin, said to have
been Rosamond's, was to be seen here. The cha-
pel now serves for a stable.

GODURY. See **GODAVERY**.

* **GODWARD.** *adj.* To *Godward* is toward God.
So we read, *Hæc Arethusa tenus, for bælenus Are-*
thusa.—And such trust have we through Christ to
Godward. 2 *Cor.*

GODWICK, a village in Norfolk.

(1.) **GODWIN**, earl of Kent. See **ENGLAND**,
§ 18.

(2.) **GODWIN**, Francis, successively bishop of
Landaff and Hereford, was born in 1567. He was
the son of Dr Thomas Godwin, bishop of Bath
and Wells; and was a good mathematician, an
excellent philosopher, a pure Latinist, and an ac-
curate historian. He understood the true theory
of the moon's motion a century before it was ge-
nerally

generally known. He first started those hints afterwards pursued by Bp. Wilkins, in his *Secret and Swift messenger*, and published *A catalogue of the lives of English bishops*. He has been accused of flattery, in disposing of preferments, to provide for his children. He died in 1648.

(3.) GODWIN, Mrs. See WOLLSTONECRAFT.

(4.) GODWIN, Thomas. See GODWYN, N° 2.

(5.) GODWIN SANDS. See GOODWIN, N° 3.

(1.) * GODWIT. *n. f.* [*god*, and *wita*, an animal.] A bird of particular delicacy.—

Not ortolan nor godwits crown his board.

Cowley.

(2.) GODWIT. See SCOLOPAX.

(1.) GODWYN, E. of Kent. See ENGLAND, § 17.

(2.) GODWYN, Thomas, a learned English author born in 1517, master of the free-school at Abington in Berkshire; where he educated many youths, who became eminent in church and state. He was a man of great learning: He wrote *Historia Romana antiquiora*, *Synopsis antiquitatum Hebraicarum*, *Moses & Aaron*, *Florilegium Pharaicon*, &c. He died in 1642.

* GODVELD. } *adv.* [corrupted from *God*

* GODVELD. } *shield* or *protecl.*] A term of thanks. Now not used.—

Herein I teach you,

How you should bid *godveld* us for your pains,
And thank us for your trouble. *Shak. Macbeth.*

* GOEL. *adj.* [*golen*, Saxon.] Yellow. An old word.—

In March at the furthest, dry season or wet,
Hop roots so well chosen let skilful go set;

The *goeler* and younger, the better I love;
Well gutted and pared, the better they prove.

Tupper.

GOELANS, a promontory of N. America on the N. side of Lake Ontario, 33 miles SW. of Fort Frontinac.

GOELL, a town in Holstein, near Oldenburg.

GOELWARA, a circar of Indostan in Guzerat, on the W. coast of the Gulf of Cambaya.

* GOER, *n. f.* [from *go*.] 1. One that goes; a runner.—

I would they were in Africk both together,
Myself by with a needle, that I might prick
The *goer* back. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

Such a man

Might be a copy to these younger times;
Which follow'd well, would now demonstrate
them

But *goers* backward. *Shak. All's well.*

—Nothing could hurt either of us so much as the intervening officious impertinence of those *goers* between us, who in England pretend to intimacies with you, and in Ireland to intimacies with me. *Pope to Swift.* 2. A walker; one that has a gait or manner of walking good or bad.—The earl was so far from being a good dancer, that he was no graceful *goer*. *Wotton.* 3. The foot. Obsolete,

A double mantle, cast

A'thwart his shoulders, his faire *goers* grac'ft
With fitted shoes. *Chapman.*

GOEREE, William, a learned bookseller of Amsterdam, born at Middleburg, in 1635. He was a man of taste, and wrote, 1. A General Introduction to the Art of Painting: 2. A Treas-

ure on the principles of Architecture, Jewish Antiquities; printed at Utrecht, in 2 vols. folio. He died at Amsterdam.

(1.) GOES, or TER-GOES, a town of the vian republic, in the dept. of the Meuse, devant prov. of Zealand; seated on the N. of the isle of S. Beveland, of which it is a tal, on an arm of the Scheldt, from whence a canal. It was nearly destroyed by action of the sea, in 1548: In 1564, great it was burnt: The Dutch took it in 16 Prince Maurice fortified it; so that it has gates and 4 bastions. In 1618, the town was burnt, but was rebuilt in an elegant Its chief trade is in grain and salt. It is E. of Flushing, and 20 of Middleburg. 50. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2.) GOSA, a town of Portugal, in the of Beira, 9 miles E. of Coimbra.

GOESIUS, William, a learned Dutch born at Leyden, and son-in-law of Damianus. Among other critical works, he has notations on Petronius Arbiter; which, joined to Burman's edition of that work, died in 1618.

GOEZ, Damianus, a Portuguese of great repute, born at Alanguar, of a noble family, and educated at the court of K. He travelled through the chief countries of and became acquainted with Erasmus, Olaus Magnus, Cardinals Bembo and Conrad Glöcenius, Peter Nannius, &c. literati. He married and spent several years at Louvain; and not only wrote the history of the siege in 1542, but bravely put himself at the head of the soldiers, and contributed much to the defence. After this K. John III. recalled Portugal, in order to write the history of the kingdom; but the favours with which the march loaded him, procured him so many enemies that he was first falsely accused and confined at Lisbon; and afterwards found murder in his own house. He wrote, 1. *Fides, Religio, que Ethiopeum*: 20. *De Imperio et rebus orum*: 3. *Hispania*: 4. *Urbis Olisipontis*: 5. *Chronica do Rey Dom Emanuel*: 6. *do Principe Dom Joan*: and others which have been often printed, and are esteemed.

GOFF, Thomas, B. D. an English born at Essex, in 1592. He was educated at Westminster, studied at Oxford; took or obtained the living of E. Claudon, Surrey but marrying a *Xanthippe*, her tongue at shortened his days, and he died in 1617 wrote 5 tragedies, published after his death several sermons, besides two Latin funerals printed in 1622 and 1627.

GOFFSTOWN, a town of New Hampshire in Hillsborough county, on the W. side of Merrimack, 60 miles W. of Portsmouth.

GOG and MAGOG, two names joined together in scripture. (Ezek. xxxviii. xxxix. 1, 2, &c. Rev. xx. 8.) *Mog* Magog the son of Japhet, but *Sayanothim* (Gen. x. 2. 1. Chr. i. 5.) *Gog* was prince of the country or people. The general ancients made *Magog* the father of the

and several interpreters discovered
 steps of their name in the provinces of
 ary. Others supposed that the Per-
 sian descendants of Magog. Some have
 hat the Goths were descended from
 Magog; and that the wars described by
 and undertaken by Gog against the
 those which the Goths carried on a-
 Roman empire, in the 5th century.
 s placed Gog in the neighbourhood of
 He derives the name of this celebra-
 tion from the Hebrew *Gogebasan*, "the
 Gog." He maintains that Prometheus,
 chained to Caucasus by Jupiter, is Gog,
 er. There is a province in Iberia call-
 ed Gogarene. Most commentators think,
 and Magog, mentioned in Ezekiel and
 Apoc. 19. 17. are to be taken in an allegorical
 such princes as were enemies to the
 saints. Thus many by Gog in Eze-
 kiel and Antiochus Epiphanes, the perse-
 cutors of the Jews who were firm to their religi-
 on, the person of the same name in the Revela-
 tion of the church and faithful. Some
 have endeavoured to prove that Gog, spoken of
 means Cambyses king of Persia. Others
 of plausibility think that Gog and Magog
 relations denote all the enemies of the
 world should be persecutors of it to the
 consummation of ages. From the present state
 of opinion, and the rapid progress of infi-
 delity in the civilized parts of Europe and Ame-
 rica, it is not improbable, that Gog and Ma-
 gog are the two last powerful opponents of
 Christianity, DEISM and ATHEISM.

GOG, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland,
 NW. of Linköping.

GOG, Antony Herman, a German physi-
 cian, author of *Aristoxeni Harmonicorum Elemen-
 ta*, published at Venice in 1592.

GOGGLE. *v. n.* To look askint.—

He'd all over with disgrace,
 When by her in such a place,
 He made him hang his head, and scowl,
 Like and goggle like an owl. *Hudibras*.
 Lights, nor groans, nor goggling eyes did
 it. *Dryden*.

GOGGLE-EYED. *adj.* [*see* *egen*, Sax.]
 d; not looking straight.—They are de-
 moniacal, or lame; and very unseemly
 upon, except to men that be goggle-eyed
 . *Ascham*.

GOGGLES, in surgery, instruments used for
 curing, or that distortion of the eyes
 called strabismus, or this disorder. They are short
 tubes, composed of ivory stained black,
 with a plate of the same ivory fixed in the
 their anterior extremities. Through the
 each of these plates is a small circular
 hole the size of the pupil of the eye, for
 the passage of the rays of light. These gog-
 gles are continually worn in the day time,
 till the muscles of the eye are brought to act re-
 gularly and uniformly, so as to direct the pupil
 straight forwards; and by these means the cure
 is sooner or later effected.

GOG, an island of Russia, in the Gulf

of Finland, 80 miles W. of Petersburg. Lon. 44-
 48. E. of Ferro. Lat. 60. 10. N.

GOGLIONIS, a town of Naples, in the prov.
 of Capitanata $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. of Termoli.

GOGMAGOG HILLS, hills three miles from
 Cambridge, remarkable for the intrenchments and
 other works cast up there: which some suppose
 were a Roman camp; and others a work of the
 Danes.

GOGNO, a river of the Piedmontese republic,
 which runs into the Po, near St Nogaro.

GOGO, a town of Indostan, in Guzerat, near
 the Gulf of Cambaya, 64 miles NW. of Surat,
 and 84 SSW. of Amedabad. Lon. 71 53. E. Lat.
 21. 45. N.

GOGOLEV, a town of Russia, in the province
 of Kiev, 20 miles E. of Kiev.

GOGRA, or Soorjew, a large river of Asia,
 which rises in Thibet, from Lake Lanke-Dhe, in
 Lat. 33. 17. N. and forcing its way through Mount
 Himmaleh, runs SE. and joins the Ganges above
 Chuprah in Bahar.

GOGUET, Antony-Yves, a French writer,
 author of a celebrated work, intitled, *L'Origine
 des Loix, des Arts, des Sciences, & de leur Progres
 chez les anciens Peuples*, 1758, 3 vols. 4to: which
 has been since translated into English. His father
 was an advocate, and he was born at Paris in 1716.
 The reputation he gained by it was great: but he
 enjoyed it a short time, dying in the same year of
 the small pox; which he always dreaded. Con-
 rad Fugere, to whom he left his library and his
 MSS. was so deeply affected with his death, that
 he died himself about 3 days after him.

(1.) GOHUD, a circar of Indostan, in Agra,
 subject to a rajah, who is tributary to the Poonah
 Mahrattas

(2.) GOHUD, the capital of the above circar;
 35 miles SSE. of Agra. Lon. 78. 44. E. Lat. 26.
 24. N.

GOJAM, a province of Abyssinia, remarkable
 for having in it the sources of the Nile. It is
 bounded on the N. by the high mountains of A-
 mid-Amid; on the S. by the Nile, on the W. by
 the GULT, on the E. by the Temci, and on the
 NE. by the kingdom of Damot. It is about 75
 miles long from N. to S. and 42 broad from E.
 to W. It is very populous, but the men are ac-
 counted the worst soldiers in Abyssinia. It has
 great numbers of very beautiful cattle.

GOIGN, the S. extremity of Argyllshire.

GOIN, a town of France, in the department
 of Meuse, and late province of Lorraine: 9 miles
 S. of Metz.

* GOING. *n. s.* [from *go*.] 1. The act of walk-
 ing.—

When nobles are their taylor's tutors,

No hereticks burnt, but wenches suitors,

Then comes the time, when lives to see't,

That going shall be us'd with feet. *Shak.*

2. Pregnancy.—The time of death has a far great-
 er latitude than that of our birth; most women
 coming, according to their reckoning, within the
 compass of a fortnight; that is, the twentieth part
 of their going. *Grew's Cosm. Sac.* 3. Departure.

Thy going is not lonely; with thee goes

Thy husband; him to follow thou art bound.

Milton.
 GOYX,

GOIT, a river of England, in Cheshire, which runs into the Mersey, 3 miles E. of Stoford.

GOITO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Mincio, and late duchy of Mantua; between the lakes of Mantua and Garda; 9 miles NNW. of Mantua. It was taken by the allies in 1701, and by the Prince of Hesse in 1706. Lon. 10. 40. E. Lat. 45. 16. N.

GOKEWELL, a town of Lincolnshire NW. of Brig.

GOLA. *n. f.* The same with **CYMATIUM**.—In a cornice the *gola*, or cymatium of the corona, the coping, the modillions or dentelli, make a noble show. *Spectator*.

GOLAN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Posnania; 10 miles NE. of Posen.

GOLBORN, 2 English villages; 1. in Cheshire, SW. of Tattenhall; 2. in Lancashire, near Derby.

(1.) **GOLCONDA**, a province of Indostan, in the Deccan; bounded on the N. by Berar, on the E. by the gulf of Bengal; on the S. by Mysore and the Carnatic, and on the W. by Dowlatabad and Vishapour. It was anciently called **TELLINGANA**, or *Tilling*, and was an independent kingdom; its monarch had an army of half a million of men; but in 1687 it was conquered by Aurengzebe. It abounds in corn, rice, and cattle; but it is most remarkable for its diamond mines, which are the most considerable in the world; 6000 men being usually employed in them. The diamonds are generally purchased of the black merchants, who buy parcels of ground to search for these precious stones in. They sometimes fail of meeting with any, but in others they find immense riches. It has also mines of salt, fine iron for sword blades, and manufactures of calicoes and chintzes. It is subject to the Great Mogul, and governed by the *Nizam* of the Deccan. It is very fertile, and abounds with vines, fruits, rice, &c. Its winter begins in June, with furious storms of wind, thunder and rain. **HYDRABAD** is the capital.

(2.) **GOLCONDA**, a fortress and town of the above kingdom, (N° 1.) which form one of the largest cities in the East Indies; being about 6 miles in circumference; and formerly the residence of the kings. It is now much frequented by European merchants. It is seated round the side and foot of a mountain, which has the form of a sugar loaf. The palace is very large and has a fine view of Hydrabad. The fort has 5 towers, and stone walls 3 feet thick, mounted with cannon. It is 5 miles WNW. of Hydrabad. Lon. 70. 10. E. Lat. 16. 30. N.

(I. 1.) * **GOLD**. *n. f.* [*gold*, Sax. *golud*, riches, Welsh. It is called *gold* in our English tongue, either of *geol*, as *Stahger* says, which is in Dutch to shine; or of another Dutch word, which is *gelten*, and signifies in Latin *valere*, in English to be of price or value: hence cometh their ordinary word *gold*, for *mon y. Peacham on Drawing*] 1. Gold is the heaviest, the most dense, the most simple, the most ductile, and most fixed of all bodies, not to be injured either by air or fire, and seeming incorruptible. It is soluble by means of sea-salt; but is injured by no other salt. Gold is frequently found native, and very rarely in a state of ore. Pure Gold is so fixed, that Boerhaave informs us of an ounce of it set in the eye of a glass turned

for two months, without losing a *Hill on Fossils*.—Gold hath these nature of weight, closeness of parts, fixations or softness, immunity from rust, and or tincture of yellow. *Bacon's Nature*

Ah! Buckingham, now do I ply
To try if thou be current gold indeed
—We readily say this is gold, and that
let, only by the different figures and
presented to the eye by the pencil. *L*

The gold fraught vessel, which is
beat,

He sees now vainly make to his ret
2. Money.—

For me the gold of France did not
Although I did admit it as a motive
The sooner to effect what I intended
Thou that so stoutly hadst resisted
Give me thy gold, if thou hast any
For I have bought it with an hundred

3. It is used for any thing pleasing
So among the ancients *χρυσον* *εσπερον*;
Animamque moremque aureos eduxit
The king's a bawcock, a heart of
A lad of life, an imp of fame. *Sh*

(2.) **GOLD**, *adj.* golden; made of;
(3.) **GOLD**, the most valuable of all
is of a bright yellow colour when pure
comes more or less white or high-colour
portion as it is alloyed with silver or
is the heaviest of all known bodies,
excepted, its specific gravity being 19
tilled water at 19.640 to 1000. See *G*

Index. It melts in a low white heat
according to Mr Wedgwood's calcu
degrees of Fahrenheit's, or 32 of his
mometer for its fusion; a heat greatly
that which melts silver or copper; th
quiring only 4717, and the latter 458
heit. Other metallurgists, however,
copper requires for its fusion a greater
heat than either gold or silver; and
firmed by the experience of those who
these metals.

(4.) **GOLD BROCADE**. See *BROCA*

(5.) **GOLD, COMBINATIONS OF, W**
METALS. See *CHEMISTRY*, § 990.
metallic state, cannot be combined with
ble earth, but its calces may; for which
are often used in enamel painting and
where they produce a beautiful vi
Glass is tinged by them of a beaut
which we have an account in Neri's
making, though Dr Lewis says he never
ceed, in making it diffuse itself equally
the substance of the glass. See *GLASS*.

(6.) **GOLD, DUCTILITY AND EXT**
OF. Gold, is the most ductile, as
most malleable, of all metals. Accord
stedt, one grain of it may be stretched
cover 98 Swedish ells, equal to 63.66 f
of silver wire; but Wallerius asserts,
of gold may be stretched in such a m
cover 400 ells of wire. At any rate, it
is prodigious; for according to the
calculations, the millionth part of it
may be made visible to the naked eye

ity inferior to its ductility. Boyle, quoted in his *Treatise of Colours*, says, that an half of gold may be beaten into a leaf of one inch square, which, if intersected by lines drawn at right angles to each other, distant only the 100th part of an inch from each other, will produce 25 millions of little squares, each very easily discernible by the naked eye. Mr Magellan tells us, that its surface may be beaten by the hammer 159,092 times. "I have," (says he) "by an intelligent gold-beater, that the finest gold leaf is that of new skins, and must have an alloy of 3 parts of copper to the ounce of pure gold, or would be too soft to pass over the irregularities of the skins. He affirms that 80 books, or leaves of gold, each measuring 3.3 square inches, each leaf containing 10.89 square inches less than 384 grains. Each book, therefore 15 leaves, = 272.23 inches, weighs less than 56.718 square inches." From this calculation it appears, that the thickness of a leaf of gold is less than one 282,020th of an inch; 16 oz. of gold would be sufficient to cover a wire equal in length to the whole circumference of the globe. Gold is more elastic than lead or tin, but less so than iron, or steel. It grows hard by hammering, but loses its ductility on being heated. Nature reserves the ductility of gold more than a leaf of brass or tin. The former will render a leaf of standard gold brittle by only touching it with the finger, and a very small quantity of heat with it will destroy its ductility and render it brittle. Dr Lewis says, that even the variations which arise from tin in the fire, make gold so brittle that it flies in pieces under the hammer. This opinion, however, was controverted by Alchorne, Esq; of the Royal Mint; who, by a series of experiments, which he made, and published in the *Philos. Trans.* for 1784, concluded, that though tin, like other inferior metals, renders gold, in proportion to the quantity added to it, yet there does not appear in it anything specifically inimical to that precious metal, and "that, when brittleness has been occasioned by the addition of tin to gold, the former may be again adulterated with arsenic. M. Tillet, from a new set of experiments, recorded in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris*, 1790, has drawn a conclusion much more favourable to the experience of all former metallurgists, that, though "gold, when perfectly pure, has a small portion of the finest tin, may, by a proper management, be extended to a certain degree by the hammer, and still better by rollers; as it cannot be annealed without danger, it is by this defect deprived of the advantage of recovering its original softness, and is been strongly hammer-hardened."

GOLD, ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS WITH. See ELECTRICITY, Index.

GOLD, EXPERIMENTS RESPECTING THE COLOUR OF. Gold leaf exhibits a fine green colour, when interpolated between the eye and the sun or any other luminous body. If exposed for some time to a strong heat, it becomes

ignited, and at last melts, assuming a fine bluish green colour; and, when cold, crystallizes into quadrilateral pyramids. This bluish green colour, according to Mr Magellan, as well as the former, when a thin film of the metal is interposed betwixt the eye and the luminous body, is owing to transmitted light. "The green light (says he) is transmitted in both cases, since all reflected colours are produced by the transmission of light, as the ingenious philosopher Mr Delaval has lately discovered and demonstrated, in his very elaborate treatise on this subject, inserted in the 2d vol. of the *Memoirs published in 1785*, by the Philosophical Society of Manchester." Sir Isaac Newton in his *Optics*, (page 162, edit. 1730,) accounts for that phenomenon, saying, that "gold foliated, and held between the eyes and the light, looks of a greenish blue, and therefore (says he) massy gold lets into its body the blue rays to be reflected to and fro within it, till they be stopped and stifled; while it reflects the yellow outwards, and therefore looks yellow. It is therefore, in the two above cases, that some of the blue rays are transmitted along with the yellow ones; and both together appear of a bluish green. If gold be exposed to the joined rays of light, excepting only the yellow ones, which we suppose stopped after they were separated by a prism, it only looks white like silver; "which shows (says Sir Isaac Newton) that its yellowness arises from the excess of intercepted rays, tinged that whiteness with their colour when they are let to pass. It is a pleasing observation to look with a deep magnifier on various pieces of gold, silver, and Dutch (copper) leaves, between the eye and the sunbline. The particles of silver are seen in the form of oblong dark lumps, with some interstices, like net-work, between them: those of the copper leaf are more numerous and more regularly distributed; but the particles of the gold leaf appear like little green semi-transparent and similar particles, uniting between themselves by nearly diaphanous joints, as if they were forced to flatten on their edges, rather than they would break their mutual cohesion with one another."

(9.) **GOLD; FORMS AND PLACES IN WHICH IT IS FOUND.** Gold is more generally found native than any other metal; (see *CHEMISTRY*, § 981.) though Bergman says, he does not know an instance of its ever being found perfectly free of alloy. Kirwan says it is seldom found so, being generally alloyed with silver, copper, or iron, and sometimes with all the three. According to Walmersley, native gold is found, 1. In solid masses, in Hungary, Transylvania, and Peru. 2. In grains, in the Spanish West Indies. 3. In a vegetable form, like the branches or twigs of plants. 4. In a druse figure, as if composed of groups or clusters of small particles united together, found in Hungary. 5. Composed of thin plates, on thin pellicles, covering other bodies, found in Siberia. 6. In a crystalline form in Hungary. Gold is also found in the form of thick solid pieces. It is in general more frequently imbedded in quartz, and mixed with it, than with any other stone; and the quartz in which the gold is found in the Hungarian mines, Mr Magellan tells us, is of a peculiar mild appearance. Sometimes, however, it is found in limestone, hornblende, &c. Europe

is principally supplied with gold from Chili and Peru in South America. A small quantity is likewise imported from China and the coast of Africa. The principal gold mines of Europe are those of Hungary, Saitzburg, and Adelfers in Smaland. Some gold is also extracted from the silver mines of Osterharberger, in the province of Dalarna. Native gold has been found in Lapland, above Tornea, and in Wästerman pd. In Peru it is found mixed with a stony matter not well known, from which it is extracted by amalgamation. Mr Pallas mentions three gold mines in Peru, near the Pyschma, in which 100 men are employed. Sometimes kernels or lumps of a spongy texture, and very light, are met with, which contain a good quantity of gold dust. Gold is also found separate from any matrix, in lumps of visible grains mixed with sands, in the beds of rivers. It is visibly dispersed through masses of sand, of a yellowish red or violet colour. In this state it is so universally diffused through every kind of earth, that Mr Bergman thinks it the most common of all the metals, iron excepted. If 100 lb. of sand contain 24 grains of gold, the separation is said to be worth attending to. In Africa 5 lb. of sand often yield 63 grains of gold, or even more; and the heaviest sand, which is often black or red, contains the most. In Hungary, however, only ten or twelve grains of gold are contained in 20,000 lb. of sand; and even this trifling quantity has been extracted, though with loss. Gold is brought down with most of the large rivers. In Transylvania the Avanyos affords subsistence to upwards of 100 gypsy families, who gather gold from its sands. In Brazil it is found in great abundance in the beds of rivers.

(10.) GOLD, FULMINATING. See AURUM, § 2, 3; and CHEMISTRY, Index. M. Magellan takes notice of its extraordinary fulminating property, and says that its *frigor* is 64 times greater than that of an equal quantity of gun-powder. According to Bergman, the strength of the explosion is 176 times greater; 20 grains of aurum fulminans being equivalent to half a pound of gun-powder. Bergman accounts for the amazing strength of this explosion, by supposing it owing to the quantity of air extricated at the time; but this, according to his own account, cannot be at all sufficient for such a purpose; and Magellan is of opinion, that "this wonderful phenomenon seems not yet completely accounted for, by any hypothesis yet known." See EXPLOSION, § 5.

(11.) GOLD, INDESTRUCTIBILITY OF. The strongest heat of any furnace does not change the metallic properties of gold. Messrs Boyle and Kunckel kept gold for several months in the fire of a glasshouse without producing any change upon it. It appears, however, that, by the violent heat of the sun beams, collected in the focus of a burning-glass, some alteration may be produced in it. Homburg observed that gold, when exposed to the lens of Tschirnhausen, formed, was volatilized, and even vitrified; and Macquer found, that the metal, when exposed to the lens of Mr Trudaine, exhaled a fume which gilded silver, and was therefore gold in a volatile state: the globule of melted gold was agitated with a rapid circular motion, and became covered with a

dull and as it were calciform pellicle; and that a violet vitrification was formed on the side of the globule. This vitrification extended, and produced a kind of bubble or of a larger curvature, than that of the sand which stuck upon it as the transparency appears on the selenite of the glass increased in size, while the gold gradually diminished: the support always, tinged with a purple colour, seemingly by the absorption of part of the glass. It not permit him to vitrify a quantity of it. He observes, that it is a necessity, that the violet glass should be red combustible matters, in order to justify that it is the calx of that perfect gold would evidently appear to be the calx revived into gold. But however this M. Fourcroy is of opinion, that this ought to be considered as a true vitrified calx of gold, with the greater probability, as in experiments with this metal the purple colour is constantly produced, and many preparations are employed to give that colour to porcelain. "Gold (says he) is therefore like the other metals; and only it likewise does silver, a stronger heat, and time to unite with the base of air than talc substances." Mr Kirwan, on the other hand, tells us, that "gold exposed to most heat of Mr Parker's lens for 60 hours lost no sensible part of its weight; and in contact with earthy matters, it acquired a blue or purplish tinge, to which he believes an exceeding small portion to be dephlogisticated." This experiment of Mr Parker does not invalidate the query: for either Trudaine's lens may be more powerful than Mr Parker's; or the air being more clear than in England, the sun must be stronger. We are assured, that by means of the electric fire, it is instantaneously calcined and even whence we must conclude, not only that it is really calcinable, but that the electric fire is most infinitely more powerful than any other by its means we may in a moment at what either cannot be done otherwise: very imperfectly, even by the fiercest fire raised. The flame of a lamp blown by dephlogicated air is also found sufficient to volatilize Gold being thus indestructible by the operations of fire, equally resists its flow the atmosphere. It is altogether exempt from rusting; and though its surface becomes by exposure to the air, it is merely in consequence of the deposition of foreign bodies upon it produces no change, says M. Fourcroy, though, according to the experiments of Lavoisier, it seems capable of dividing it in the same manner as it does iron.

(12.) GOLD LEAF, OR GILT LEAF. See

(13.) GOLD LEAF, OR BEATEN GOLD beaten with a hammer into exceeding thin so that it is computed, that an ounce may be beaten into 1600 leaves, each 3 inches square, state it takes up more than 159,053 times more surface. See § 6; and LEAF, GOL.

beaten more or less, according to the kind of the work it is intended for; that for wire drawers to gild their ingots withal, is thicker than that for gilding the frames, &c. See GILDING, § IV, N^o ii, 1. GOLD, METHODS OF ASCERTAINING THE OF. As gold has been reckoned by the consent of mankind, the most valuable in the world, it is of great consequence to discover its degree of purity, to procure equality of value in the different pieces in use. The methods by which this is accomplished will be found related under the articles, ASSAY-MASTER, CARACT, § I, 3; METALLURGY.

GOLD, METHODS OF RECOVERING, FROM DRESSES. Some powdered sal ammoniac, dissolved with aquafortis into the consistence of a spread upon the gilt silver, and the piece with all the matter smokes and becomes nearly black; then thrown into water, it is rubbed with a scratch brush made of fine brass wire, and the gold easily comes off. Another way is to put the gilt silver into common aquafortis so hot as nearly to boil, and turning it frequently till it becomes all over black; then to be washed with a little water, and rubbed with the scratch brush, to get off what aquafortis may have left. This method is used; as the same aquafortis will serve repeatedly till it is saturated with the gold. To separate gold from gilt copper, some direct a solution of borax to be applied on the gilt parts, but others, with a pencil, and a little powder of borax to be sprinkled on the places thus moistened; the piece being then made red hot, and plunged in water, the gold is so far loosened, as to be scraped off with a brush. Others mix the solution with nitre and tartar, and form the mixture with vinegar into a paste, which is spread upon the gilt parts. Schlutter recommends mercury as being generally the least expensive for separating gold from the surface both of silver and copper. If the gilt vessel be round, it may be easily got off by turning it in a lathe and applying a proper tool, a skin being stretched underneath, for receiving the shavings. He says it is easy to collect into 2 oz. of shavings all the gold of a gilt vessel weighing 6 lb. Where the piece does not admit of this method, it is fixed, and scrapers applied of different sizes according to its size and figure; some large, and some small, and some with two handles; others small and pointed for penetrating into depressed parts. If the gold cannot be got off by either of these ways, a hammer must be used, though it takes off more of the silver underneath than the turning tool or scraper. The gold scrapings or filings may be separated from the silver or copper they contain, by several methods. See METALLURGY. The French *Encyclopédie* give a method of separating the gold from wood, that has been gilt. The gilt wood, is steeped for a quarter of an hour in a quantity of water sufficient to cover the wood very hot: the size being thus softened,

the wood is taken out, and scrubbed, piece by piece, in a little warm water, with short stiff bristle brushes of different sizes, some small for penetrating into the carvings, and others large for the greater dispatch in flat pieces. The whole mixture of water, size, gold, &c. is to be boiled to dryness, the dry matter made red hot in a crucible to burn off the size, and the remainder ground with mercury, either in a mortar, or, where the quantity is large, in a mill.

(16.) GOLD, MINERALIZATIONS OF. Gold is said to be mineralized, when it is mixed with some other substance in such a manner as not to be acted upon by aqua regia. In this manner gold is found mineralized by various minerals: as,

(i.) GOLD MINERALIZED BY QUICKSILVER, OR *Auriferous Cinnabar*, is said to be found in Hungary. M. Sage speaks of a specimen of gold from Hungary, then in the French king's cabinet at Paris, which was crystallized into quadrangular prisms of a grey yellowish colour and a brittle consistency, which he supposes to be the result of a mercurial amalgam of native gold.

(ii.) GOLD MINERALIZED BY SULPHUR. Many have insisted, that as gold and sulphur are not found to have any chemical attraction for one another, it is impossible that marcasite can contain any of the metal, or indeed that it can be found in any ore containing sulphur: but since we know by experience, that gold can be melted out of these ores, even after they have been digested in aqua regia, and that gold likewise enters into their sulphurated regulus, there is the greatest reason to believe, that some third substance, probably a metal, has by its admixture enabled the sulphur to unite with a certain quantity of gold. Marcasites, however, contain, at any rate, only a small quantity of gold, and none is to be expected from them in places where no gold is in the neighbourhood. "I am not perfectly clear (says Cronstedt) whether the gold is really dissolved and indurated, or, if I may so express myself, *vitriified* in the *schirls*; provided, by this mineral body, we mean a garnet substance. But I have seen a piece of what is called *schirl*, whose texture was exactly like the Schemnitz blende; and in this case it might perhaps hold the same contents."

(iii.) GOLD MINERALIZED BY SULPHUR AND IRON. Golden pyrites, or mercantile gold ore, is a close and compact substance of a bright yellow colour, in which gold is said to be mineralized by sulphur by means of iron, because it cannot be extracted by aqua regia or by amalgamation. A kind of gold pyrites is found at Adelfors in Smaland, which contains an ounce or less of gold in one cwt. of the ore. The Transylvania gold pyrites, according to Brunnich, in which no gold can be perceived by the naked eye, contain from 50 to 100, and 110 oz. and upwards, in one cwt. Those where the gold appears in the pyrites like strewed Spanish snuff, hold 250 oz. but they are very scarce. The mountain of Faczebaya, near Zalathna, is remarkable for its gold pyrites; and here they seem also to contain semi-metallic parts. M. Magellan thus accounts for the union of gold with this kind of pyrites: "It is well known, that gold may be dissolved by liver of sulphur. The

process given for this purpose by M. Apligny, p. 356 of his *Treatise on Colours*, is as follows: Reduce to powder 4 lb. of vegetable alkali (salt of tartar), and as many of sulphur, with one of the leaves of gold. Melt the mixture in a crucible with its cover; pour the fused matter out on a marble stone; pound it again when cold, and put the whole in a matras with hot water; which being filtrated is of a greenish-yellow colour, containing the gold dissolved. Now, as we know that *hepar sulphuris* has been found in several pyrites, and Mascagn. says, that he found it in those lagoons near Sienna in Italy; is it not very natural to conclude, that this noble metal may be really mineralized in the auriferous pyrites?"

(iv.) GOLD MINERALIZED BY ZINC AND IRON, is called *Schemnitz Blende*. Cronstedt informs us, that the ores of zinc at Schemnitz in Hungary contain a great deal of silver, and that this silver is very rich in gold. Professor Brunnich enumerates the following varieties of this ore: 1. Where the metal is mineralized by means of a cubic lead ore, containing silver, found in the mines of Michaeli and some places in Transylvania. 2. By a copper pyrites with silver. This kind of ore is called *giss* in Hungary; it has a compact surface of a pale yellow colour; but must not for that reason be confounded with the auriferous pyrites. 3. The Schemnitz ores in which the metal is mineralized by means of red glider ore. 4. By means of antimony, in which it sometimes appears. This kind is found at the foot of the Carpathian mountains. 5. By cubic lead ore, iron, and some unknown volatile parts. This ore, as described by Scopoli, is of a black colour; the richest pieces are lamellated almost like an iron glimmer, with a degree of flexibility. The vein is quartz, which is sometimes loose, and the metal scattered very minutely in it. It is found in Transylvania. 6. Native gold; with black lead (or molybdena), has been found near Rimezembat in Upper Hungary; but our author (Professor Brunnich) has not had any opportunity of examining whether it is mineralized by it or not. In all the above species, the gold is either entirely native, but so minutely divided, and so loosely scattered, that it can only be seen through microscopes, and often cannot be seen at all before it is separated by various processes: or it may not be in the form of native gold, but the metal as it were in embryo; in which case fire is necessary to bring the constituent parts together, and to add those that are wanting; in that case likewise it is never without silver. "To these (says Mr Magellan) may be added the following ores: 1. Gold, with arsenical pyrites, is found also at Saltzberg in Tyrol, in mountains of quartz and schistus. It contains only 25 grains in the quintal; nevertheless it affords a profit of L. 100 per annum. 2. With a white, red, or vitreous silver ore, near Schemnitz and Schemnitz in Hungary. 3. With a sulphurated ore of silver, iron, lead, and manganese, at Nagaya in Transylvania. Its specific gravity is 4.043, and it is said to afford 10 ounces per quintal. 4. With sulphurated iron, copper, and manganese, at Nagaya."

(17.) GOLD MOSAIC, is gold applied in patches on a proper ground, distributed into squares,

lozenges, and other compartments; patches shadowed to raise or heighten the rest. See § 16, N° 16.

(18.) GOLD ORES. See § 16, N° 16.

(19.) GOLD PLATES FOR ENAMELLING generally made of ducats whose fineness 23½ carats to 23½; as the finest gold for this purpose, unless where some pure gold are left bare and unpolished, as in watch-boxes, &c. for which purposes a small alloy is necessary, and silver is preferred, because the latter disposes the plate to turn green. See ENAMELLING, § 1.

(20.) GOLD, SHELL, is that used by jewellers and illuminers, and with which gold is written. It is made by grinding gold & gold beaters fragments, with a little honey afterwards separating the honey from the gold by water. When the honey is away, the gold may be put on paper or shells; whence its name. When it is diluted with gum water or soap suds, it makes gold powder, prepared from the gold leaf in the same manner, is general and when it is well scoured with varnish the end in japaners gilding as well as the

(21.) GOLD, SOLUTION AND PREPARATION OF. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

(22.) GOLD, STUN, or is flatted

(23.) GOLD THREAD, (See § 12.) over a thread of silk, by twisting it with and iron bobbins. To dispose the wire on silk, they pass it between two rollers; these rollers are of nicely polished steel about 3 inches in diameter. They are close to each other, and turned by a handle to one of them, which gives motion to the other. The gold wire in passing between is rendered quite flat, but without losing anything of its gilding; and is rendered exceedingly thin and flexible, that it is as fine as silk thread, by means of a hand wheel wound on the bobbins. See BROCADE EMBROIDERY, § 2; JACK, &c.

(24.) GOLD, VALUE OF, CONTRASTED WITH SILK. Mr Paucton, in his *Mémoire* 94, says, that one cubic foot (French) of gold is worth 2,153,000 *livres tournois* 89,708 *Louis d'Or* or guineas, and that the respective value of the same foot of gold is equal to 25.6 cubic silver; each of this last metal being worth about 84,000 French livres, or 3,50 and 8 shillings: so that if we suppose the gold of France to be but two of French livres, according to the estimate of M. Neckar, in his *Treatise upon the Commerce*, the whole amount should make a cube of gold less than 10 feet on each trisling, in a philosophical view, is the subject that excites the activity of 30 millions of human species.

(25.) GOLD, VITRIFICATION OF. See

(26.) GOLD, USES OF, IN THE ARTS applied to the surface of bodies, not on fire, but, by its indestructibility, prefer from the injuries of the atmosphere. The applying it in this manner is called ORNAMENTAL GILDING. The immensity of gold renders it

applied at much less expence than imagined. It is also used in gilding, &c. of solution by acids, or amalgam-mercury, which are called WATER-; was formerly used in medicine, and were ascribed to it; whence the of golden tinctures, elixirs, &c. of all these are now deservedly exploded. The best practitioners allow that gold, in manner it be prepared, is quite in-angerous. If we may believe Dr S. Liverpool, however, the *Essence of* a valuable ingredient in his *Balm of*

Wire, a cylindrical ingot of silver, ed with gold, and afterwards drawn through a great number of little round awing iron, each less than the other, sometimes no bigger than a hair. See *ING.*

Wire FLATTED, is the above wire between two rollers of polished steel, to be on a stick, or to be used flat with- as in brocades, laces, embroideries, &c. See *CADE*, § 3, 4.

COAST, in geography, a maritime trica, on the coast of Guinea, abound-; and extending 180 miles in length iver (N° V.) to Ponni. See *GUINEA*,

D, ISLE OF. See *GEZIRET*.

GOLD OF PLEASURE. *n. f.* [*mya-*nt.]

OF PLEASURE. See *MYAGRUM*.

RIVER, a river of Africa, in Guinea, which abound with gold dust.

RIVER, a river of America, in Ter- the Isthmus of Darien, S. of the abounding also with gold dust.

P, a town of Prussian Lithuania, 54; 68 miles ESE. of Konigsberg.

T, Melchior Haiminsfeld, a famous rian and compiler, born at Bischoff-erland, in 1576. He was in great the learned, but being a protestant, liged to change his place of residence, him always poor, "though as Dr erves) he was one of the most labori- fatigable compilers that ever existed." *7. Dict.* He died in 1635.

CH, a town of Saxony, in the prin- otha; 2. miles N. of Gotha.

OLDBEATER. *n. f.* [*gold and beat.*] occupation is to beat or foliate gold r matter.—Our *goldbeaters*, though, n profit sake, they are wont to use ld they can get, yet they scruple oy coined gold; and that the mint- wont to alloy with copper or silver, coin more stiff, and less subject to be trition. *Boyle*.

BEATERS. See *BEATER*, § 2.

OLDBEATERS SKIN. *n. f.* The in- um of an ox, which goldbeaters lay leaves of their metal while they beat the membrane is reduced thin, and pply to cuts or small fresh wounds, e common practice. *Quincy*.—When

your gillyflowers blow, if they break the pod, open it with a penknife, at each division, as low as the flower has burst it, and bind it about with a narrow slip of *goldbeater's skin*, which moisten with your tongue, and it will stick together. *Mort. Husb.*

GOLDBEATING, *n. f.* the art of beating gold. See *LEAF, GOLD*.

GOLDBERG, a town of Silesia, in the duchy of Lignitz, so named from a gold mine near it, formerly very rich. The natives manufacture linens and woollen. It is 8½ miles SW. of Lignitz, and 11 WNW. of Jauer. Lon. 16. 23. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.

* GOLDBOUND. *adj.* [*gold and bound.*] Encom- passed with gold.—

Thy air,

Thou other *goldbound* brow, is like the first.

Shak. Macb.

GOLD COAST. See *GOLD*, N° II, and *GUINEA*.

GOLD-CRONACH, a town of Franconia, in the principality of Bayreuth, so named from an ex- hausted gold mine. It is 5 miles N. of Bayreuth.

GOLDEGG, a town of Germany in Austria, 4 miles W. of St Polten.

(1.) * GOLDEN. *adj.* [*from gold.*] 1. Made of gold; consisting of gold.—

O would to God that the inclusive verge Of *golden* metal, that must round my brow, Were red hot steel to tear me to the brain. *Shak.*

Nine royal knights in equal rank succeed, Each warrior mounted on a fiery steed, In *golden* armour glorious to behold; The rivets of their arms were nail'd with gold. *Dryden.*

2. Shining; bright; splendid; resplendent.—

So sweet a kiss the *golden* sun gives not To those fresh morning drops upon the rose; Nor shines the silver moon one half so bright 'Thro' the transparent bosom of the deep. *Shak.*

'Tis better to be lowly born Than wear a *golden* sorrow. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

Heaven's *golden* winged herald late he saw To a poor Galilean virgin sent. *Craighew.*

To her hard yoke you must hereafter bow, Howe'er she shines all *golden* to you now. *Dryd.*

And see the guardian angels of the good, Reclining soft on many a *golden* cloud. *Rowe.*

3. Yellow; of the colour of gold.—*Golden* ruffet- ing hath a gold coloured coat under a ruffet hair, and its flesh of a yellow colour. *Mortimer.* 4. Excellent; valuable.—

I have bought

Golden opinions from all sort of people, Which would be worn now in their newest gloss, Not cast aside so soon. *Shak. Macbeth.*

—That verse which they commonly call *golden*, has two substantives and two adjectives, with a verb betwixt them to keep the peace. *Dryden*.—Thence arises that *golden* rule of dealing with others as we would have others deal with us. *Watts's Logick.* 5. Happy; resembling the age of gold.—Many young gentlemen flock to him every day, and fleet the time carelessly, as they did in the *golden* world. *Shak.*

(2.) GOLDEN, in geography, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary, on the Suir; 8 miles from Dublin.

(3.) GOLDEN, a village of England in Cornwall, between Grampound and Truro.

(4.) GOLDEN

- (4.) **GOLDEN CALF.** See CALF, § 3.
 (5.) **GOLDEN CUP.** See RANUNCULUS.
 (6.) **GOLDEN EAGLE.** See ABYSSINIA, ETHIOPIA, § 64; and FALCO, N° 4.
 (7.) **GOLDEN FISH.** See CYPRINUS, N° 2.
 (8.) **GOLDEN FLEECE,** in the ancient mythology, was the skin and fleece of the ram upon which Phryxus and Helle are said to have swam over the sea to Colchis; and which being sacrificed to Jupiter, was hung upon a tree in the grove of Mars, guarded by two brazen-hoof'd bulls, and a monstrous dragon that never slept; but was taken and carried off by Jason and the Argonauts. Some authors have endeavoured to show that this fable is an allegorical representation of some real history, particularly of the philosopher's stone. Others have explained it by the profit of the wool trade to Colchis, or the gold which they commonly gathered there with fleeces in the rivers. See ARGONAUTS, N° I. § 2, 3.
 (9.) **GOLDEN FLEECE, ORDER OF THE,** a military order instituted by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, 1427; thus named from a representation of the golden fleece, born by the knights on their collars, which consisted of flints and steel. The king of Spain, as D. of Burgundy, is grand master of the order; the number of knights is fixed to 31. It is said to have been instituted on occasion of an immense profit which that prince made by wool; though others will have a chemical mystery couched under it, as that famous one of the ancients, which the adepts pretend to be the secret of the *elixir vite*, wrote on the skin of a sheep.
 (10.) **GOLDEN ISLAND,** an island of S. America, in the Gulf of Darien, and prov. of Terra Firma; where the Scots first attempted to settle, in 1698, before they took possession of the opposite shore, which they were at last obliged to relinquish, in consequence of the villainous combination of the English and Dutch merchants. See DARIEN, N° I, § 1, 1—5. Lon. 77. 10. W. Lat. 9. 0. N.
 (11.) **GOLDEN LAKE,** a lake in the island of Borneo. Lon. 113. 45. E. Lat. 3. 55. N.
 (12.) **GOLDEN LUNGWORT.** See HIERACIUM.
 (13.) **GOLDEN MAIDENHAIR.** See POLYTRICHUM.
 (14.) **GOLDEN MOUSE-EAR.** See HIERACIUM.
 (15.) **GOLDEN NUMBER.** See CHRONOLOGY.
 (16.) **GOLDEN ROD.** See SOLIDAGO, N° 14.
 (17.) **GOLDEN ROSE.** See ROSA. The pope annually consecrates a golden rose on the 4th Sunday in lent, which is sent to princesses, or to some church, as a mark of his peculiar affection.
 (18.) **GOLDEN RULE.** See ARITHMETIC, § 23.
 (19.) **GOLDEN SAMPHIRE.** See INULA.
 (20. I.) * **GOLDEN SAXIFRAGE.** *n. f.* [*chrysosplenium.*] An herb.
 (ii.) **GOLDEN SAXIFRAGE.** See CHRYSOSPLENIUM.
 (21.) **GOLDEN THISTLE.** See SCOLYMUS.
 (22.) **GOLDEN VALE,** a valley of England, in Herefordshire, W. of Hereford, extending along the banks of the Dove; so named from its fertility and numerous yellow flowers. The sheep fed in it have uncommonly fine wool.

* **GOLDENLY.** *adv.* [from *gold* fully; splendidly—My brother Jack school, and report speaks *goldenly* Shaks. As you like it.

GOLDENSETT, a town of the circle of Westphalia, and county 11. miles N. of Diepholz.

(1.) * **GOLDFINCH.** *n. f.* [*gold* singing bird, so named from his.] This is called in Staffordshire a *pro* singing birds they have linnets, docks, Canary birds, blackbirds, the very others. *Carew.*—

A *goldfinch* there I saw, with
Of painted plumes, that hopped
side.

(2.) **GOLDFINCH,** in ornithology GILLA, N° 5. These birds are of colours, and were they not commonly highly esteemed. They are usually Michaelmas, and soon become tender very much in their song. They breed in the upper part of plum, their nests of the moss that grows trees, and of wool; quilting the sorts of hair. They breed thrice a young are to be taken with the nest days old, and fed as follows: Pour seed very fine in a mortar; then sieve, and add to it as much wheat seed; with a little flour of canary with a small stick or quill take up the bigness of a white pea, and give times 2-day. This ought to be made day; for if it is suffered to sour, it stomachs, and cause them to cast it and probably die. These young kept warm till they can feed themselves are very tender. In feeding, be the bird clean his bill and mouth. falls upon his feathers, take it off not thrive. Such as eat hemp seed them, should have the seeds of me and mercury; or lettuce and peas there is no need of purging, give it times a week a little sugar or loam or at the bottom of the cage; for an oliness, so that if they have not absorb it, in length of time it fouls and brings on them a flux, which is qu.

* **GOLDFINDER.** *n. f.* [*gold* an who finds gold.] A term ludicrous those that empty jakes.—

His empty paunch that he might
He suck'd his victuals thro' a quill
Untouch'd it pass'd between his
Or't had been happy for *goldfish*
GOLD-FISH. See CYPRINUS.
GOLDHAGEN, John Eustace, a man author, born at Magdeburg, translated many of the Greek classics He died in 1772.

* **GOLDHAMMER.** *n. f.* A kind
* **GOLDING.** *n. f.* A sort of ap
GOLDINGEN, a town of the duchy of Courland, with a handsome

1, 48 miles WNW. of Mittau, and onigberg. Lon. 21. 21. E. Lat. 56.

IGHAM, a village in Essex.

IGTON a town N. of Bedford.

ILDNEY n. s. A sort of fish, other-
Dittread. DuR.

ONEY. See SPARUS.

NI, a late celebrated dramatic author, ice in 1707. Having showed an un-
arly attachment to dramatic perfor-
father, Dr Goldoni, got a small thea-
his own house, in which, while a
he and his companions amused them-
ing comedies. He even became an
rote a comedy before he was 8 years
ring finished his grammatical and rhe-
s at Venice and Prague, he went to
study philosophy; but preferring the
ristotle, he went off with a company
s to Chiozzo. After attempting to
at Venice, he became secretary to
of that state at Milan. In this city,
s *Venetian Gondolier*, the first of his
it was acted and printed; and soon
osed several other pieces for a Vene-
y then at Milan, and whom he ac-
o Genoa, where he married. After
any, Florence, and Pisa, he returned
nd wrote comedies for the theatre of
These cost him so little trouble, that
wrote 16 new comedies, besides 42
for that theatre, within a year; and
e, tho' so rapidly executed, are confi-
best productions. The first edition
was published in 10 vols 8vo in 1753.
Rerwards a great number of pieces
re at St Luke, which were published
le of *The New Comic Theatre*. He
other pieces between 1753 and 1761;
ivitation of Duke Philip, took a jaunt
om whence he went to Rome. He
Paris, on the invitation of M. Ze-
niet actor on the Italian theatre there,
he engaged for two years. After this,
loyed as an Italian teacher to the
unts to the unfortunate Lewis XVI.;
e got only 4000 livres a-year, and a
oo louis d'ors in a gold box. As he
at court, but went when called, in a
he lost his eye-sight by reading while
In his 62d year, he wrote a French
itled *Bourru Bienfaisant*, which was
wis XVI's marriage; and for which
ouis from the king, besides consider-
m the performers and the booksellers.
Paris in 1792, aged 85; at a crisis,
rench Convention were intending to
erits liberally. As a dramatic author,
d equal to the best comic poets of
s; and in fertility of invention supe-
all. His whole works were printed
in 1788—91, in 31 vols 8vo. He has
ic *Moliere of Italy*; and Voltaire, in
e marquis Albergati, called him *the*
ature. His favourite work, generally
master-piece, was his *Terence*. His
s his *Volponi*. He greatly reformed

the Italian theatre, by purging it of those scurri-
lities and low jests which formerly disgraced it.

(1.) * GOLDPLEASURE. n. s. An herb. Dist.

(2.) GOLDPLEASURE. See MYAGRUM.

GOLDSBOROUGH, a town of the United
States, in the district of Main, 330 miles NE. of
Boston. Lat. 42. 10 N.

(1.) * GOLDSIZE. n. s. A glue of a golden
colour; glue used by gilders.—The gum of ivy is
very good to put into your *goldsize*, and other co-
lours. *Perichym.*

(2.) GOLD-SIZE FOR BURNISHED GILDING is
prepared of 1½ lb. of tobacco-pipe clay, ½ oz. of
red chalk, ¼ oz. of black lead, 40 drops of sweet
oil, and 3 drams of pure tallow: grind the clay,
chalk, and black lead, separately, very fine in wa-
ter; then mix them together, add the oil and tal-
low, and grind the mixture to a due consistence.

(3.) GOLD-SIZE FOR JAPANNING may be made
by pulverising gum animi and asphaltum, of each
one ounce; red lead, litharge of gold, and umbre,
of each one ounce and a half, mixing them with
a pound of linseed oil, and boiling them; stir
them till the whole be incorporated, and appears
when cold of the consistence of tar; strain the
mixture through a flannel, and keep it stoppered
up in a bottle for use. When used, it must be
ground with as much vermilion as will give it an
opake body, and diluted with oil of turpentine,
so that it may be worked freely with the pencil.
A more simple preparation is made with 1 lb. of
linseed oil and 4 oz. of gum animi; powder the
gum, and mix it gradually with the boiling oil;
let it continue to boil till it becomes of the con-
sistence of tar; strain it through a coarse cloth;
keep and use it as the other.

(1) GOLDSMITH, Oliver, a celebrated au-
thor, born at Roscommon in Ireland, in 1723.
His father, who possessed a small estate in that
county, had 9 sons, of whom Oliver was the 3d.
After being well instructed in the classics, he was,
with his brother the rev. Henry Goldsmith, placed
in Trinity college, Dublin, about the end of 1740.
In this seminary he took the degree of B. D. but
his brother not being able to obtain preferment,
Oliver turned to the study of physic; and, after
attending some courses of anatomy in Dublin,
proceeded to Edinburgh in 1751, where he studied
medicine under the professors of that university.
His benevolent disposition soon involved him in
difficulties; and he was obliged precipitately to
leave Scotland, in consequence of engaging to pay
a considerable sum for a fellow student. A few
days after, about the beginning of 1754, he ar-
rived in Sunderland, near Newcastle, where he
was arrested at the suit of a tailor in Edinburgh,
to whom he had given security for his friend. By
the good offices of Lauchlan MacLane, Esq; and
Dr Sleigh, then in the college, he was delivered
out of the hands of the bailiff; and took his pas-
sage on board a Dutch ship to Rotterdam, where,
after a short stay, he proceeded to Brussels. He
then visited great part of Flanders; and after pas-
sing some time at Strasburg and Louvain, where
he took the degree of M. B. he accompanied an
English gentleman to Berne and Geneva. He
travelled on foot most part of his tour, having
left England with very little money. Being of a
philo-

philosophical turn, capable of sustaining fatigue, and not easily terrified at danger, he became enthusiastically fond of seeing different countries. He had some knowledge of French and of music, and played tolerably well on the German flute; which, from an amusement, became at times the means of subsistence. His learning procured him an hospitable reception at most of the religious houses; and his music made him welcome to the peasants of Flanders and other parts of Germany. "Whenever I approached," he used to say, "a peasant's house towards night fall, I played one of my most merry tunes; and that procured me not only a lodging, but subsistence for the next day: but in truth, I must own, whenever I attempted to entertain persons of a higher rank, they always thought my performance odious, and never made me any return for my endeavours to please them." On his arrival at Geneva, he was recommended as a travelling tutor to a young man who had been left a considerable sum of money by his uncle, a pawnbroker near Holborn. This youth, who had been articled to an attorney, on receipt of his fortune determined to see the world; and, on engaging with his preceptor, made a proviso, that he should be permitted to govern himself; and Goldsmith soon found his pupil understood the art of directing in money concerns extremely well, as advance was his prevailing passion. Such curiosities on the way as could be seen for nothing, he was ready to look at; but if the light of them was to be paid for, he usually asserted, that he had been told they were not worth seeing. He never paid a bill without observing how amazingly expensive travelling was; and all this, though he was not yet 21! During Goldsmith's continuance in Switzerland, he assiduously cultivated his poetical talent, of which he gave some proofs while at the college of Edinburgh. It was here he sent the first sketch of his delightful poem called the *Traveller* to his brother the clergyman in Ireland, who lived with an amiable wife on an income of only 40l. a year. From Geneva Mr Goldsmith and his pupil visited the south of France; where the young man, upon some disagreement with his preceptor, paid him the small part of his salary which was due, and embarked at Marseilles for England. Our wanderer was left once more upon the world at large, and passed through various difficulties in traversing the greatest part of France. At length his curiosity being satisfied, he bent his course towards England, and arrived at Dover the beginning of the winter 1758. When he came to London, his cash did not amount to two livres. Being an entire stranger, his mind was filled with the most gloomy reflections. With difficulty he discovered that part of the town in which his old acquaintance Dr Sleight resided. This gentleman received him with the warmest affection, and liberally invited him to share his purse till some establishment could be procured for him. Goldsmith, unwilling to be a burden to his friend, eagerly embraced an offer which was made him soon after, to assist the late rev. Dr Milner in the academy at Peckham; and acquitted himself greatly to the Doctor's satisfaction: but having obtained some reputation by the criticism he had written in the *Monthly*

Review, Mr Griffith, the proprietor, entered in the compilation of it; and, resuming the profession of an author, he returned to London, as the mart where abilities only meet distinction and reward. As he was not in a good state, he adopted the strictest economy; and took lodgings in an obscure court in the Old Bailey, where he wrote several ingenious pieces. The late Mr Warrington, who gave great encouragement to literary abilities, became a patron to him, and introduced him as one of the writers in the *Commons*, in which his *Citizen of the World* first appeared, under the title of *Clarendon*. His fortune now began to improve. The simplicity of his character, the integrity of his mind, and the merit of his productions, made him very acceptable to a number of families; and he emerged from his obscurity in the Old Bailey to the political Temple, where he took handsome lodgings, and lived in a genteel style. The publication of his *Traveller*, and his *Vicar of Wakefield*, procured him the performance of his comedy, *The Good-natured Man* at Covent Garden theatre, placed him in the first rank of the poets of the century. Among many other persons who were desirous to know him, the duke of Northumberland; and a party that attended his introduction to the duke, shows a striking trait of his character. "Invited," said the Doctor, "by my friend, to wait upon the duke, in consequence of the satisfaction he had received from one of my productions. I dressed in the best manner I could; and, after having paid my compliments I thought necessary on the occasion, proceeded to Northumberland House, acquainted the servants that I had particular business with his Grace. They showed me into an antichamber; where, after waiting for some time, a gentleman very gently dressed appeared. Taking him for the duke, I complimented him on the honour he had done me when, to my great astonishment, he had mistaken him for his master, who came immediately. At this instant he entered into the apartment; and I was so confused on the occasion, that I wanted words barely to express the sense I entertained of the politeness, and went away extremely at the blunder I had committed." An anecdote exhibits the strict integrity of his mind. Previous to the publication of his *Deserters*, the bookseller had given him a note for 50s. for the copy, which the Doctor, a few hours after to one of his friends, served, it was a very great sum for so small a performance: "In truth," replied Goldsmith, "I think so too; I have not been easy since it; therefore I will go back and return the note;" which he absolutely did; and he went to the bookseller to pay him the account of profits produced by the sale of the piece; however, turned out very considerably the last rehearsal of his comedy intitled *Conqueror*, which Mr Coleman had

ed, on the Dr's objecting to the repetition of Tony Lumpkin's speeches, being it might injure the play, the manager at Keenness replied, "Psha, my dear be fearful of squibs, when we have almost these two hours upon a barrel." The piece, however, was re-urcommon applause by the audience; and of Coleman's observation put an Dr's regard for him. Notwithstanding excess of his pieces, by some of which 1800l. in one year, his circumstances a prosperous situation; partly owing ability of his disposition, and partly to the habit of gaming; the arts of which y little of, and thus became the prey to took advantage of his simplicity. Death he published the prospectus of Dictionary of Arts and Sciences; and by friends, Sir Joshua Reynolds, Dr Beauclerc, Mr Garrick, and others, ken to furnish him with articles upon jects, he entertained the most sanguine from it. The undertaking, howe- meet with that encouragement from ers, which he had imagined it would f he lamented this circumstance almost our of his life. He had been for some d, at different times, with a violent which contributed to embitter the lat- his life; and which, united with the hich he suffered upon other occasions, a kind of habitual despondency. In y condition he was attacked by a ner- which terminated in his death, on the 1774. His character is justly express- pe's line;

a man, simplicity a child.

! pleasure he loved to enjoy was often by distresses which arose from the li- is temper, and which sometimes threw id fits of passion: but this impetuosity ed upon reflection; and his servants nown upon these occasions, purposely to selves in his way, that they might pro- mediately after; for he who had the e to be reproved, was certain of being or it. The universal esteem in which were held, and the repeated pleasure the perusal, is a striking test of their - was a studious and correct observer of ppy in the selection of his images, in of his subjects, and in the harmony of tion; and, though his embarrassed si- rented him from putting the last hand his productions, his Hermit, his Tra- his deserted Village, claim a place a- most finished pieces in the English lan- sides the works above mentioned, he listory of the earth and animated na- s 8vo. 2. History of England, 4 vols listory of Rome, 2 vols. 4. Abridge- e two last, for the use of schools. 5. experimental philosophy, 3 vols 8vo.; us work. 6. Miscellanies, &c.

OLDSMITH. *n. f.* [*gold* and *fmit*, Sax.] o manufactures gold.—

it chain nor *goldsmith* came to me. *Sba.*

PART II.

2. A banker; one who keeps money for others in his hands.—The *goldsmith* or scrivener, who takes all your fortune to dispose of, when he has beforehand resolved to break the following day, does surely deserve the gallows. *Swift.*

(3.) A GOLDSMITH, (§ 2. *def.* 1.) or SILVER-SMITH, is an artist who makes vessels, utensils, and ornaments, in gold and silver. There is a vast variety in the works made, and tools used, by goldsmiths, which we cannot here particularize. Works that have raised figures are cast in a mould, and afterwards carved, or polished and finished: plates or vessels of silver or gold, are beat out from thin flat plates; table and tea spoons, &c. are beat out from solid ingots, and their mouths struck up with a punch: tankards, and other vessels of that kind, are formed of plates soldered together, and their mouldings are beat, not cast. The business of the goldsmiths formerly required more labour than it does at present; for they were obliged to hammer the metal from the ingot to the thinness they wanted: but since the invention of flattening mills, the metals are reduced to the thinness required, at a small expence. As the goldsmith often has to make his own moulds, he ought to be a good designer, and have a taste in sculpture: he also ought to know enough of metallurgy to be able to assay and refine gold and silver, and to mix the exact quantity of alloy. The goldsmiths in London, employ different hands under them for the various branches of their trade; such as jewellers, box makers, toy-makers, turners, gilders, burnishers, chasers, refiners, founders, &c. Goldsmiths are superior tradesmen: Their wares must be assayed by the wardens of their own company in London, and marked; and the gold and silver must be of the standard fineness, under a penalty of 10l. Any false metal may be seized and forfeited to the king. The cities of Edinburgh, York, Exeter, Bristol, &c. have also places appointed for assaying gold and silver plate. Plate sent to the assay office, when discovered to be coarser than the standard, is broken and defaced; and the fees for assaying are limited. A duty is paid on silver plate of 1s. per oz.; and on gold plate of 16s. per oz.; besides which every goldsmith must take out a licence annually; for which he pays either 2l. or 5l. according to the extent of his business, with an addition of 15 per cent, agreeably to the late acts. The 2l. or rather 2l. 6s. licence allows him to make silver plate not exceeding 30 oz. and gold plate not exceeding 2 oz. in one piece. The 5l. 15s. licence qualifies him to make plate of any weight.

(4.) GOLDSMITH. See GOULDSMITH.

GOLDWELL, a town in Kent, W. of Ashford.

(1.) * GOLDYLOCKS. *n. f.* [*roma aurea*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) GOLDYLOCKS. See CHRYSOCOMA.

GOLF, a village in Yorkshire, E. of Armin.

GOLEITA, or GOLETTA, an island of Africa, at the entrance of the Bay of Tunis; taken by the emperor Charles V, during his siege of that city, and retained for several years after. It is 29 miles N. of Tunis, and 375 E. of Algiers. Lon. 10. 20. E. Lat. 37. 10. N.

GOLSEZ, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz, 60 miles SSW. of Sandomirz.

Y y y

GOLF,

GOLF, a game much practised in Scotland, and said to be peculiar to this country. It has been very ancient; for there are statutes prohibiting it as early as 1457, lest it should interfere with the sport of archery. The rev Mr R. Walker, one of the ministers of Canongate, Edinburgh, derives the name from a Dutch game, called *Kolf*, in some respects similar, being played with clubs, though in others very different. See *KOLF*. Both, he supposes, are originally derived from the Greek word, *alepes*. See Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* XVI. 23—30. Golf is commonly played on rugged broken ground, covered with short grass, near the sea-shore. A field of this sort is in Scotland called *links*. The game is generally played in parties of one or two on each side. Each party has an exceeding hard ball, somewhat larger than a hen's egg. This they strike with a slender and elastic club, about 4 feet long, crooked in the head, and having lead run into it, to make it heavy. The ball being struck with this club, will fly to the distance of 200 yards, and the game is gained by the party who puts his ball into the hole with the fewest strokes. But the game does not depend solely upon the striking of the longest ball, but also upon measuring the strength of the stroke, and applying it in such direction as to lay the ball in smooth ground, whence it may be easily moved at the next stroke. To encourage this amusement, the city of Edinburgh, A.D. 1744, gave to the company of golfers a silver club, to be played for annually by the members, the victor to append a gold or silver piece to the prize. It has been played for every year since, except 1746 and 1747. For their better accommodation, 22 of the members subscribed 30*l.* each in 1768, for building a house for their meetings. The spot chosen for this purpose was the SW. corner of Leith links, where an area was feued from the magistrates of Edinburgh, and a commodious house and tavern built upon it.

GOLGOTHA, [ΓΟΛΓΟΘΑ, Syr. *i. e.* a place of skulls.] See *CALVARY*, N° 1.

GOLHEIM, a town of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine; taken by the French in Oct. 1794.

GOLI, or **GOLLI**, a small island of Maritime Austria, in the Quarnaro, and ci-devant Venetian Dalmatia, W. of the isle of Arbe. It feeds 2000 sheep.

GOLICH, a town of Russia, in the province of Irkutsch, on the Lena; 2 miles S. of Orlenga.

(1.) **GOLIUS**, James, a celebrated professor of Arabic and the mathematics at Leyden, descended from a very honourable family, and born at the Hague in 1596. He studied at Leyden, under Erpinus; and, having acquired all the learned languages, travelled into Asia and Africa. He was esteemed and honoured by Muley Zidan, emperor of Morocco and the Grand Signior. He brought home many MSS. to Leyden; and in 1644, succeeded Erpinus. As he had been an eye-witness of the wretched state of Christianity in the Mahometan countries, none ever solicited for a place of honour and profit with greater eagerness, than he did to procure a new edition of the New Testament, in the original language, with a translation into the vulgar Greek, by an Archiman-

drite; and as some of these Christians, in divine service, he asked among them an Arabic translation of 2 of the Protestants, with the Catechism. He was likewise appointed interpreter for the Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and languages. He published, 1. *The Bible*, in Arabic. 2. *The history of* written by Elmacin. 3. *Alferganus' Astronomy*, with a new version, and emendations. 4. An excellent Arabic & Persian Dictionary. He died in 1666.

(2.) **GOLIVS**, Peter, brother to 1 (N° 1.) was born at Leyden; and several works in Greek and Latin. 1. *monastery of Carmelites on the top of* banns.

GOLL, *n. f.* [corrupted, as *gl* from *gwil* or *gwol*, whence *gwaldan*, manage.] Hands; paws; claws. Used and obsolete.—They set hands, and her golden galls among them; and that saw not the colour of them, preheminence, *Sidney*.

GOLLERSDORF, a town of Germany, 4 miles SSE. of Sonneberg.

GOLLI. See *GOLI*.

GOLLING, a town of Bavaria, 14 miles SSE. of Salzburg, and Radstadt.

GOLLNITZ, a town of Upper Anhalt Zerbst; 7 miles NW. of Zerbst.

GOLNAW. See *GOLNOW*.

GOLNITZ, a town and river of 14 miles SE. of Kapfendorf.

GOLNIZ, a town of Germany, 3 miles S. of St Andre.

GOLNOW, or **GOLNAW**, a town of Saxony, in Pomerania, on the Ibm, of Stargard, and 13 NE. of Old Stett 59. E. Lat. 53. 46. N.

GOLOGRIZZA, a town of Maria in the province of Istria; 6 miles S. of

GOLOMBOITZ. See *COLOMBO*.

GOLPHINGTON, a town of Washington county, near the head of 26 miles ESE. of Otsego, 37 SW. and 50 NW. of Louisville.

(1.) **GOLSPY**, a parish of Scotland, of Sutherlandshire, 10 miles long from and 1½ broad. The climate is dry & the soil mostly light and fertile, but is sandy, and in others mossy. Sea-wart the coast, and is partly used as made into kelp. Haddocks, whiting turbot, and flounders also abound.

tion, in 1792, stated by the rev. Mr W in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 27 increased 398, since 1750; though, as it with Dr Webster's report in 1755 have decreased 90, between these p Mr Keith says it was supposed to have led within the course of the 18th century number of horses, in 1792, was 35 1000, and of black cattle 1500. Also were under oats, barley, pease, turnips and sown grass; besides 400 under 600 of hill ground in commons. 1

parish in 1746, between a party of and the militia, wherein the former d, and several persons of rank taken

17, a rivulet in the above parish, h overflowed the glbe lands and o- it, in 1775; and in Nov. 1781, did ce in 10 days.

17, a village in the above parish, con- habitants in 1792.

INSKOL, } two towns of Russia, in
FINA, } the gov. of Tobolsk.

, a town of Russia, in Kiev.

, a town of Saxony, in Brandenburg, of New Angermunde.

ZIUS, Henry, a famous engraver born in 1558, at Mulbreck, in the iers. He was taught engraving by n Cuerebert, and acquired it per- a he had a lame hand. He travelled many into Italy; visited Bologna, iples, Venice, and Rome. In this opted a singular disguise, making his for his master, while he himself ap- rrvant, kept by the other merely for ainting. Under this disguise he en- ll its variety. On his return he set- m, where he died in 1617, aged 59.

surpassed, and few have equalled, ommand of the graver and freedom

He copied the style of Albert Du- Leyden, and other old masters, with actness. He engraved several of his on wood, in *chiaro-scuro*. Of his

are very numerous, the following ebrated: 1. Six large upright plates, r-pieces. These he engraved to show, rfectly capable of imitating the styles cas, and others, whose works were igher estimation than his own: for d a new manner, which he pursued ought it superior, and not because ble of following the others. It is h one of them, the Circumcision, ked to give it the more plausible air ie actually deceived some of the most fleurs of that age; by one of whom for an original engraving of Albert subjects of these plates are, *The An- be Virgin; Her Meeting with Eliza- ivity; the Circumcision; the Adora- se Men; the Holy Family*. 2. *The Midas*; and, 3. *The Venetian Ball*, lates lengthwise,) from Theodore *The Boy and Dog*, a middling sized from a design of his own; an ad- 5. *The Necromancer*, a middling wal print, in *chiaro scuro*. 6. *Night* the same.

17, Hubert, a learned German, , in Gueldres, in 1526. He travel- ermany, France, and Italy, to make medals, &c. as well as to draw from lights he could to clear up ancient ras the author of several excellent ch he was so accurate, that he had at his own house, under his own l even engraved the plates with his

own hand. Among these his *Imperatorum fere omnium viva imagines, à J. Cesare ad Carolum V. ex veteribus numismatibus*, is an admirable work. He died at Bruges, in 1583, aged 57.

GOLUB, a town of Prussia, in Culm.

GOLUBENSKA, a town of Russia, in the coun- try of the Cossacks, on the Don, 200 miles ENE. of Azoph.

GOLYDDAN, an ancient British poet, who flourished in the end of the 7th and beginning of the 8th centuries. He was hard to Cadwallader, the last king of the South Britons.

GOMAR, Francis, an eminent author of the 17th century, born at Bruges. He was a man of extensive erudition, and was professor of Divinity and Hebrew, in the university of Groningen. He was a most zealous defender of the Calvinistic doc- trines against Arminius. He died at Groningen, in 1641.

(1.) GOMARA. See GOMERA.

(2.) GOMARA, or COMORA. See COMORA, No 1, 2.

GOMARISTS, a name given to the CALVIN- ists in Holland, occasioned by professor Go- MAR's defence of their tenets against Arminius and Episcopius. See ARMINIANS, § 1.

GOMASHTEH, in the commerce of Bengal, signifies one cent.

GOMBAULD, John Ogier DE, one of the best French poets in the 17th century, and one of the first members of the French academy, was born at St Just de Lussac, in 1567. He acquired the esteem of Mary de Medicis, and of the wits of his time. He was a Protestant, and died in 1666, a- ged 99. He wrote many works in verse and prose. His epigrams and sonnets are particularly esteem- ed. His posthumous works, entitled *Traitez et Lettres sur la Religion*, were printed at Holland, in 1678.

GOMBIN, GAMBIN, or GABIN. See GABIN.

GOMBRON, or } a city of Persia, in the pro-

GOMBROON, } vince of Farlihan, called by the natives Bander. This city owes its wealth and grandeur to the demolition of Ormus, and the downfall of the Portuguese empire in the East Indies. It is now justly accounted one of the greatest marts in the East; was built by the great Shah Abas, and from him obtained the name of *Bander-Abassi*, or *the court of Abas*. It stands on a bay about 27 miles N. of the island of Kishmish, and 9 from Ormus. The English began to settle here about 1631, when, in consideration of their services against the Portuguese, Shah Abas grant- ed them half the customs of that port. The city wants almost every thing that contributes to the happiness and even support of life. Towards the land it is encompassed by a wall; and towards the sea are several small forts, with a platform, and a citadel, mounted with cannon to secure it and the road against an enemy by sea. The houses in most of the streets are so out of repair, some half down, others in a heap of rubbish, that a stranger would imagine the town had been sacked; not a vestige of the wealth really contained in the place appear- ing in view. The bazars and shops round them are chiefly kept by Banians, whose houses are ge- nerally in good order. Most of the houses are built with earth and lime, but the best with stone.

Many of them have ventilators at top, which contribute greatly to the health of the inhabitants in the hot seasons. The most lively months are April, May, September, and October. With fish and mutton the inhabitants are well supplied. Rice is imported from India; and wheat is so abundant, that the poor subsist chiefly on bread and dates. The country abounds in the most delicious fruits, as apricots, peaches, pomegranates, pears, mangoes, grapes, quavas, plums, quinces, &c. But these advantages are more than overbalanced by the scarcity of fresh water, with which the inhabitants are supplied from Aïssen, a place 7 miles distant, there not being a spring or well in the town. For this reason people of condition retire into the country, in June, July, and August. Even the sea, during this season, is affected, in so much that the stench is as disagreeable as that of putrid carcases; and this is increased by the quantities of shell fish left on the shore, from which an exhalation arises that tarnishes gold and silver. At Aïssen the English factory have a country house and gardens; where they have whole groves of Seville orange trees, which, though not natural to the country, thrive well. They have likewise ponds of live fresh water, with every thing else that can moderate the heat of the climate, and render life agreeable and elegant. Gombroon is extremely populous, from the commerce carried on by the Dutch and English as well as the natives. The English factory is close by the sea, at some distance from the Dutch, which is a commodious and fine new building. A great part of the company's profits arises from freights. As the natives have no good ships of their own, and are extremely ignorant of navigation, they freight their goods for Surat, and other Indian marts, in English and Dutch bottoms, at an exorbitant rate. The commodities are, fine wines, raisins, almonds, prunellas, dates, pistachio nuts, ginger, silks, carpets, leather, tully, galbanum, ammoniac, asa-fetida, tragacanth, with other gums, and medicines. These are chiefly the produce of Carimania, which they bring to Gombroon in caravans. The English company had once a small factory in Carimania, chiefly for the sake of a fine wool produced there, and used by the hatters. Although the company pay no customs, yet they usually make a present to the Shahander, to avoid the trouble he has it in his power to give them. All private trade with the company's passies enjoy the same privileges, on paying two per cent to the company, one to the agent, and one to the broker. All private trade, either by European or country ships, has long been engrossed by the company's servants. Lon 36. 35. E. Lat. 27. 30. N.

* GOMERON *f.* The black greave of a cart wheel.

GOMEGNIES, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and c. devant province of French Flanders; 4 miles E. of Quefroy.

GOMELRA, or GOMERLA, a small isle of Scotland near the W. coast of Mull.

(1.) GOMERA, or GOMARA, one of the Canary islands, between Ferro and Teneriffe, subject to the Spaniards, who conquered it in 1495. It is 20 miles long and 10 broad; producing corn and

fruits sufficient for the inhabitants. SW. of Teneriffe.

(2.) GOMERA, a town in the dep. of an excellent harbour, where the Spaniards take in refreshments. They work, and plenty of wine. Lon. 18. 6. N.

(1.) GOMERSAL, Robert, an English writer in the 17th century. His best composition is *The Levite's Revenge; a poem on* &c. He died in 1646.

(2.) GOMERSAL, a town W. of W. GOMEZ DE CASTRO, Alvarado, a Spaniard, born at St Eulalie near T. He wrote *The History of Cardinal* &c. died in 1580, aged 63.

GOMMERN, a town of Upper Saxony, on the Elbe; 8 miles S. of Magdeburg, and 10 NW. of Dessau.

GOMMERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, 10½ miles S. of Angers.

GOMORRAH, in ancient geography, the cities of the plain, or vale of Sodom, destroyed together with Sodom, by fire, on account of the wickedness of the inhabitants. To determine its particular situation is impossible.

GOMORRO ISLANDS. See GOMORRO.

GOMOZIA, in botany: A genus in the order, belonging to the tetradynamia class of plants. The corolla is campanulate, above; there is no calyx; the best

(1.) GOMPHOSIS. *n. f.* A part of the articulation.—*Gomphosis* is the connection of the tooth to its socket. *Wise man*

(2.) GOMPHOSIS. See ANATOMY.

GOMPHRENA, GLOBE AMARANTH, or EVERLASTING FLOWER, is a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the tetradynamia class of plants; and in the ranking under the 54th order. The calyx is coloured; the exterior one diphyllous, with two carinated lobes; the nectarium cylindrical, with 6 capsular monolpermous. There are only one of which is common in our gardens, viz. the

GOMPHRENA GLOBOSA. It has branching all round, 2 or 3 feet high, with oval, lanceolate, opposite leaves, and side-shoots terminated by a globose head of flowers, composed of very small starry florets, closely crowded, the calices placed imbricately, beautifully coloured purple, white, and variegated. The flowers are small, and closely covered with that they scarcely appear. The leaves are placed scaly coverings, being of a silken, coloured and glittering, compact round head, about the size of a cherry, make a fine appearance in our plants, natives of India; and are used to taste and for medicinal growth, so that they may flower and produce ripe seed. They are sown in November; and if the flowers

full growth, and placed out of the sun, retain their beauty several months.

OMES, a department of the Helvetic republic in the Valais.

OMES, a town in the above department, 33 miles S. of Sion.

AGRA, [from *grā*, the knee, and *agra*, the gout in the knee. See **MEDICINE**,

ONAIVES, a sea port town of Hispaniola, an excellent harbour. It has a medicinal spring in which baths were erected in 1772; a hospital for soldiers and sailors. Lon. 54. 15. W. Lat. 19. 36. N.

ONAIVES, a bay on the coast of Hispaniola, Cape St Nicolas. Lat. 19. 33. N.

API, or **GOUNONG-API**, one of the smallest islands in the East Indian Sea. It has no, and abounds with hogs, black cattle, &c.

QUAS, a nation inhabiting about the Cape of Good Hope, supposed by Dr Sparman to be a mixture of Hottentots and Caffres. See **HOTTENTOTS**.

ONAVE, an island in the bay of Leogane, W. coast of Hispaniola, about 44 miles long and uniformly 9 broad, except at the extremities.

ONAVE, another island on the W. coast of Hispaniola, 30 miles long, and 5 broad. Lon. 55. 15. W. Lat. 18. 51. N.

CELIN, a town of France, in the dept. of Isère, 13½ miles NNW. of Grenoble.

IDA, *n. f.* in the Hindoo language, signifies a river, and hence sometimes makes part of the names of rivers, in the E. Indies.

IDAGAMA, **GONDEGAMA**, or **GONDOLA**, a river of Indostan, which rises near Calcutta, forms the northern boundary of the province on the N. and enters the bay of Bengal at Hooghly.

GONDAR, the capital of Abyssinia, seated on the top of a hill of considerable height. It contains about 10,000 families in times of peace. At the W. end of the town is the king's palace; and a structure of considerable consequence.

ABYSSINIA. The hill on which the town is situated is in the middle of a deep valley, through which run two rivers: one of which, the **KAKHA**, flows from the Mountain of the Sun, flanks all the N. of the town; while the other, called the **grub**, falling from the Mountain Waggora, passes it on the N. and NE. and both rivers meet at the bottom of the hill about a quarter of a mile south of the town. Upon the bank opposite Gondar, on the other side of the river, is a large number of Mahometans; a great part of whom are employed in taking care of the king's and nobles' equipage both when they take the field, and when they return. They are formed into a body of proper officers; but never fight on either being entirely confined to their occupation, and chiefly by their care and dexterity in pitching and striking the tents, and in leading and conducting baggage waggons, they are of great service. Lon. 37. 33. E. Lat. 12. 34' 30" N.

GONDAR, **VALLEY OF**, a valley of Abyssinia, in which the city (N° 1.) is situated. It has

3 outlets; one S. to Dembea, Matsha, and the Agows; another on the NW. towards Sennaar, over the Mountain of the Sun; and the third N. leading to the Waggora over the high mountain Lamalman, and through Tigre to the Red Sea.

GONDET, a town of France, in the dept. of the Upper Loire, 10 miles S. of Puy.

GONDI, John Francis Paul, Cardinal de Retz, was the son of Philip Emanuel de Gondi, Count de Joigny, lieutenant general, &c. and was born in 1613. From a doctor of the Sorbonne, he first became co-adjutor to his uncle John Francis de Gondi, whom he succeeded in 1654 as Abp. of Paris; and finally made a cardinal. He has drawn his own character in his *Memoirs* with impartiality. From the greatest degree of debauchery, and still languishing under its consequences, he made himself adored by the people as a preacher. At the age of 23, he was at the head of a conspiracy against the life of Cardinal Richelieu; he precipitated the parliament into cabals, and the people into sedition: he was (says M. Voltaire) the first bishop who carried on a civil war without the mask of religion. However, he was at last obliged to quit France; and he lived the life of a vagrant exile for 5 or 6 years, till the death of his great enemy Cardinal Mazarin, when he returned on certain conditions. After assisting in the conclave at Rome, which chose Clement IX. he retired from the world, and ended his life like a philosopher, in 1679; which made Voltaire say, that in his youth he lived like Catiline, and in his old age like Atticus. He wrote his *Memoirs* in his retirement; the best edition of which is that of Amsterdam, 4 vols 12mo, 1719.

(1) * **GONDOLA**. *n. f.* [*gondole*, French.] A boat much used in Venice; a small boat.—

He saw did swim

Along the shore, as swift as glance of eye,
A little *gondelay*, bedecked trim

With boughs and arbours woven cunningly.

Spenser.

—In a *gondola* were seen together Lorenzo and his amorous Jessica. *Shak.*—

As with *gondolas* and his men, his

Good excellence the duke of Venice

Sails out, and gives the gulph a ring. *Prior.*

(2.) A **GONDOLA** is a flat boat, very long and narrow, chiefly used at Venice to row on the canals. The word is Italian. Du Cange derives it from the vulgar Greek *κενδύλας*, a bark, or little ship. The middle sized gondolas are upwards of 30 feet long and 4 broad: they always terminate at each end in a very sharp point, which is raised perpendicularly to the height of a man.

(3.) **GONDOLA** is also the name of a passage boat of 6 or 8 oars, used in other parts of the coast of Italy.

(1.) * **GONDOLIER**. *n. f.* [from *gondola*.] A boatman; one that rows a gondola.—

Your fair daughter,

Transported with no worse nor better guard,
But with a knave of hire, a *gondolier*,

To the gross clasps of a lascivious Moor. *Otello.*

(2.) **GONDOLIERS**. The address of the Venetian gondoliers, in passing along their narrow canals, is very remarkable: there are usually two to each gondola,

gondola, and they row by pushing before them. The fore man rests his oar on the left side of the gondola; the hindman is placed on the stern, that he may see the head over the tilt or covering of the gondola, and rests his oar, which is very long, on the right side of the gondola.

GONDON, a town of France, in the department of Upper Pyrenees; 7 miles SE. of Tarbes.

GONDORF, a town of Germany lately in the archbishopric of Treves, now included in the French republic, and department of the Rhine and Moselle; 4 miles ENE. of Munster-Mainfeld.

GONDRAIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Gers, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles SW. of Condom, and 20. NW. of Auch.

GONDRECOURT, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse, and ci-devant province of Bar; seated on the Orney, 20 miles S. of St Michael, 21 SSE. of Bar-le-duc, and 9 SW. of Vaucouleurs.

GONDREVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Meurthe, and late province of Lorraine, with a castle, and a magnificent hospital; seated on a hill near the Moselle, 3 miles NE. of Toul, and 8 from Nancy. Lon. 6. 9. E. Lat. 48. 40. N.

* GONE. *part. pres.* [from *go*. See *To Go*.]
1. Advanced; forward in progress.—I have known sheep cured of the rot, when they have not been far gone with it, only by being put into broomlands. *Mort.*—The observer is much the brisker of the two, and, I think, farther gone of late in lies and impudence than his Presbyterian brother. *Saunders.* 2. Ruined; undone.—He must know 'tis none of your daughter, nor my sister; we are gone else. *Shak. Winter's Tale.* 3. Past.—

I'll tell the story of my life,

And the particular accidents gone by,

Since I came to this ill. *Shak. Tempest.*

4. Lost; departed.—When her masters saw that the hope of their gains was gone, they caught Paul and Silas. *Acts* xvi. 19.—Speech is confined to the living, and imparted to only those that are in presence, and is transient and gone. *Holder.* 5. Dead; departed from life.—

I mourn Adonis dead and gone. *Oldham.*

—A dog, that has his nose held in the vapour, loses all signs of life; but carried into the air, or thrown into a lake, recovers, if not quite gone. *Addison on Italy.*

GONESSE, a town of France, in the department of Seine and Oise, and ci-devant province of the Isle of France, seated on the Crould, 9 miles N. of Paris; famous for fine bread.

GONET, John Baptist, D. D. a Dominican friar, and doctor of the University of Bourdeaux, who flourished in the 17th century. He wrote a system of Theology, in 5 vols, and died in 1681.

GONEZ, or GENESA, an Indian deity. See *ABYDOS*, and *POLYTHEISM*.

* GONFALON, } *n. f.* [*gonfanon*, Fr. *gonfa-*

* GONFANON, } *na*, Ilandick, from *gunn*, a battle, and *fani*, a flag. *Mr Lye*] An ensign; a standard.—

Ten thousand thousand ensigns high advanc'd,
Standards and gonfalons, 'twixt van and rear,
Stream in the air. *Milton.*

GONGA, an ancient town of European Tur-

key, in Romania, near the Sea of Marmara, 37 miles NE. of Gallipoli. Lon. 37. 31. E. Lat. 41. 53. N.

GONGAS, a nation of Ethiopia, in the country on the W. of that of the *A*

GONGE. See *GONJAH*.

GONGORA, Lewis Da, an eminent poet, of the 16th century, descended of a famous family, and born at Cordova in Spain; the Spaniards reckon him one of their greatest poets, though none of his works were published during his death. He died in 1627.

GONIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Cilicia, 16 miles W. of Aphium Karahissar.

GONJAH, a kingdom of Africa, lying between that of Tombuctou on the N. and the Gulf of Guinea on the S. It is supposed by M. De L'Isle to be the GONGE of M. De L'Isle, and the *Gonche* of M. D'Anville.

(1.) GONJAH, the capital of the above kingdom, lies about 400 miles from Tombuctou, W. by S. of Cashna. Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 16. 10. N.

GONINS, a town of Poland, in the province of Bielsk, 48 miles NW. of Bielsk.

(1.) GONIOMETRICAL, *adj.* [from *goni*, angle, and *metron*, to measure.] belonging to the measurement of angles.

(2.) GONIOMETRICAL LINES, in geometry, lines used for determining the quantity of such as sines, tangents, secants, &c. A table of this subject is inserted in the *Philos. Trans.* § 26.

GONIOMETRY, *n. f.* the art or method of measuring angles. M. De Lagny presented several papers on this art to the Royal Academy, which are inserted in their *Memoirs* for 1721 and 1729. His method consists in measuring angles with a pair of compasses, without a circle, except an undivided semicircle. But as it has not been adopted by any succeeding mathematicians, and has been reckoned of no value by some, we shall refer the inquirer for a further description of it to the *Ac. Memoirs*, or Dr Hutton's *Mathematical Dictionary*.

GONKOFEN, a town of Lower Bavaria, 14 miles S. of Dingelshofen, and 14 E. of Landshut.

GONNELLI, John, an eminent Italian painter and sculptor of the 16th century, born at Bassano. His portraits of Pope Urban VI, Cosimo I, duke of Tuscany, have great merit. But having lost his sight at twenty years of age, he, merely by the sense of feeling, acquired perfection in sculpture. Several of his works are extant in France. He died at Rome in 1608.

GONNESSE. See *GONESSE*.

GONNEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Lower Seine, 6 miles N. of Montiville.

GONNORD, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire; 4 miles NNW. of Vihiers, and 15 S. of Angers.

GONOCARPUS, in botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the tetrandria order, and to the class of dicotyledons.

GONON-BESAR, a mountain on the island of Java, famous for pepper.

(1.) * GONORRHOEA. *n. f.* [from *gonos*, a morbid running of venereal humors, and *rhoia*, mummy or stone mummy grows on the

they powder and boil it in milk, and o stop gonorrhoeas. *Woodw. on Fossils.* ORHOEA. See MEDICINE, and SURG.

TOWN of Hungary, 22 miles SW. of

VT, or GONTAUT, a town of France, of Lot and Garonne, 4 miles N. of and 6 ESE. of Marmande.

ILT, Armand DE, lord of BIRON, France, and a celebrated general in the , who signalized himself by his valour in several sieges and battles. He was master of the artillery in 1549, and he assaulted him at the massacre of St . He was the first who declared for He brought a part of Normandy under, and dissuaded him from retreating or Rochelle. He was killed by a at the siege of Epemay, on the 26th He was a very universal scholar, and a pocket-book, in which he wrote hing remarkable; which gave rise to court; when a person happened to g uncommon, they told him, *You at in Biron's pocket-book.*

IT. See GONTANT.

ER, a Latin author of the 13th century wrote *A History of Constantinople*, in

ZAGA, a market town of the Cisal-, in the department of the Mincio, duchy of Mantua; with a fine cardinal residence of the ancient dukes, of Mantua.

AGA, or } Lucretia, one of the most
GO, } illustrious ladies of the
; much celebrated for her wit, learn-
cate style. Hortensio Lando wrote
upon her, and dedicated to her his dia-
erating the passions. Her letters were
published at Venice in 1552. She was
en she was not 14 years of age to
anfrone, who afterwards engaged in a
gainst the duke of Ferrara; was de-
nprisoned, but, though condemned,
ath. She did all in her power to
erty, but in vain; for he died in pri-
hown such impatience under his mis-
made it imagined he lost his senses.
ould listen afterwards to any proposals
though several were made to her.
e from her pen was so much esteem-
lection was made even of the notes
her servants.

GEN, a town of Germany, in the Up. Rhine, and ci-devant county of annexed to the French republic, and the department of the Rhine and NE. of Creutznach.

AND, a rich county of Virginia, 40 and 14 broad; surrounded by Louisa, urico, Hanover, and Powhatan coun- Rivanna and James rivers. In 1795, 15,397 citizens, and 4,659 slaves.

OD. *adj.* comp. *better*, superl. *best*. *goed*, Dutch.] 1. Having, either ge- or any particular end, such physical

qualities as are expected or desired. Not bad; not ill.—God saw every thing that he had made, and behold it was very good. *Gen. i. 31.*—

A universe of death! which God by curse
Created evil; for evil only good. *Milton.*
Resolv'd

From an ill cause to draw a good effect. *Dryd.*
—Notwithstanding this criticism the verses were good. *Spectator.*—A man is no more to be praised on this account, than because he has a regular pulse and a good digestion. *Addison.*—

Ah! ne'er so dire a thirst of glory boast,
Nor in the critick let the man be lost:

Good nature and good sense must ever join;

To err is human, to forgive, divine. *Pope.*

2. Proper; fit; convenient; right; not wrong.—Amongst a man's peers a man shall be sure of familiarity, and therefore it is good a little to keep state: amongst a man's inferiors one shall be sure of reverence, and therefore it is good a little to be familiar.

Bacon.—If you think good, give Martius leave.

Bacon.—It was a good time to comply with the importunity of the gentlemen of Suffex. *Clarend.*

3. Conducive to happiness.—It is not good that the man should be alone. *Gen. ii. 18.*—We may as well pretend to obtain the good which we want without God's assistance, as to know what is good for us without his direction. *Smalridge.* 4. Uncorrupted; undamaged.—He also bartered away plumbs, that would have rotted in a week, for nuts, that would last good for his eating a whole year. *Locke.* 5. Wholesome; salubrious.—

A man first builds a country seat,

Then finds the walls not good to eat. *Prior.*

6. Medicinal; salutary.—The water of Nilus is sweeter than other waters in taste, and it is excellent good for the stone and hypochondriack melancholy. *Bacon.* 7. Pleasant to the taste.—Eat thou honey, because it is good; and the honeycomb, which is sweet. *Prov. xxiv. 13.*—Of herbs and plants some are good to eat raw; as lettuce, endive, and purslane. *Bacon.* 8. Complete; full.

—The Protestant subjects of the abbey make up a good third of its people. *Addison.* 9. Useful; valuable.—All quality, that is good for any thing, is originally founded upon merit. *Collier.*—We discipline betimes those other creatures we would make useful and good for somewhat. *Locke.* 10. Sound; not false; not fallacious.—He is resolved not to shew how slight the propositions were which Luther let go for good. *Atterbury.* 11. Legal; valid; rightly claimed or held—According to military custom the place was good, and the lieutenant of the colonel's company might well pretend to the next vacant captainship in the same regiment. *Wotton.* 12. Confirmed; attested; valid.—

Ha! am I sure she's wrong'd? Perhaps 'tis

malice!

Slave, make it clear, make good your accusation.

Smitb.

13. With *as* preceding. It has a kind of negative or inverted sense; *as good as*, no better than.—Therefore sprang there even of one, and him *as good as* dead, so many as the stars of the sky in multitude. *Heb. xi.* 14. With *as* preceding. No worse.—He sharply reprov'd them as men of no courage, which, being many times *as good as* in possession

possession of the victory, had most cowardly turned their backs upon their enemies. *Knolles*.—The master will be as good as his word, for his own business. *L'Estr.* 15. Well qualified; not deficient.—If they had held their royalties by that title, either there must have been but one sovereign over them all, or else every father of a family had been as good a prince, and had as good a claim to royalty as these. *Locke*. 16. Skilful; ready; dexterous.—Flatter him it may, I confess; as those are generally good at flattering who are good for nothing else. *Soutb.*—

I make my way where-e'er I see my foe;

But you, my lord, are good at a retreat. *Dryd.*

17. Happy; prosperous.—Behold how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity. *Psaln cxxxiii. 1.*—

Many good morrows to my noble lord!

—Good morrow, Catesby, you are early stirring. *Shak.*

Good e'en, neighbours;

Good e'en to you all, good e'en to you all. *Shak.*

At my window bid good morrow. *Milton.*

Good morrow, Portius! let us once embrace. *Addison.*

18. Honourable.—

They cast to get themselves a name,
Regardless whether good or evil fame. *Milton.*
Silence, the knave's repute, the whore's good name,

The only honour of the wishing dame. *Pope.*

19. Cheerful; gay. Inured with any words expressing temper of mind.—They may be of good comfort, and ever go cheerfully about their own affairs. 2 *Mac. xi. 26.*—Quietness improves into cheerfulness, enough to make me just so good humoured as to with that world well. *Pope.* 20.

Considerable; not small though not very great.—A good while ago God made choice that the Gentiles by my mouth should bear the word. *Acts*

xv. 7.—The plant, having a great stalk and top, doth prey upon the grass a good way about, by drawing the juice of the earth from it. *Bacon.*—

Mintie and pomegranate, if they be planted, they a good space one from the other, they will meet.

Pembroke.—The king had provided a good fleet, and a body of three thousand foot to be embarked.

Clarendon.—We may suppose a great many degrees of littleness and lightness in these earthy particles, so as many of them might float in the air a good while, like exhalations, before they fell down. *Burnet.*—They held a good share of civil and military employments during the whole time of the usurpation. *Swift.* 21. Elegant; decent;

delicate: with breeding.—If the critick has published nothing but rules and observations in criticism, I then consider whether there be a propriety in his thoughts and words, clearness and delicacy in his remarks, wit and good breeding in his

railery. *Guardian.*—Mankind has been forced to invent a kind of artificial humanity, which is what we express by the word good breeding. *Spectator.*

—Those among them, who return into their several countries, are sure to be followed and imitated as the greatest patterns of wit and good breeding. *Swift.* 22. Real; serious; not feigned.—

Love not in good earnest, nor no farther in sport neither, than with safety and pure blush thou

may'st in honour come off again. Rich; of credit; able to fulfil engagements.

nio is a good man: my meaning, in *Cry* a good man, is to have you understand

is sufficient. *Shak.* 24. Having more such as are wished; virtuous; pious,

applied both to persons and actions, not evil.—For a good man some would

to die. *Rom. v. 7.*—The woman hath good work upon me. *Matt.*—

All man's works on me,
Good or not good, ingraft my merit;
Shall perfect, and for these my death

What reward

Awaits the good, the rest what pain

The only Son of light

In a dark age, against example good
Against allurements.

Such follow him, as shall be repaid
Part good, part bad, of bad the last

Grant the bad what happiness they
One they must want, which is to pay

Why drew Marcellus' good
breath,

When Nature sicken'd, and each
death?

Such was Rosecommon, not more
good.

With manners generous as his noble
No farther intercourse with Heaven

But left good works to men of low

25. Kind; soft; benevolent.—Matter

turned in her, that where at first likings

ners did breed good will, now good was

the chief cause of liking her manners

Glory to God in the highest, and on earth

and good will towards men. *Luke ii.*

out good nature man is but a better

man. *Bacon.*—

Here we are lov'd; and there we
Good nature now and passion strive

Which of the two should be above
And laws unto the other give.

—'Tis no wonder if that which affords
glory to God, hath no more good will

Decay of Piety.—

When you shall see him, sir, to do
'Twere such a thing, 'twould so

world,

'Twould make the people think you
natur'd.

—To teach him betimes to love and be
red to others, is to lay early the true

of an honest man. *Locke.*—Good sense and

ture are never separated, though the

world has thought otherwise. *Dryden.*

ty, mildness, tenderness, and a we

would tam bring back to its original

of virtue, I mean good nature, are

Dryden.—This doctrine of God's good

men, this command of men's proportion

will to one another, is not this the very

substance, this the very spirit and life

sole institution? *Spratt*.—It was his
asure to spread his healing wings over
; and to make every one sensible of
il to mankind. *Calamy*.—

ould you chide the young good natur'd
ce,
e him from you with so stern an air.

Addison.

ible; loving.—But the men were very
s, and we were not hurt. 1 *Sam.* xxv.

God is good to Israeli, even to such as
an spirit. *Pf.* lxxiii. 1.—You have good
ce of us always, desiring greatly to see
lio to see you. 1 *Thess.* iii. 6.—His i-
cessarily be adequate, being referred
else but itself, nor made by any other
the good liking and will of him that

his combination. *Locke*. 27. Compa-
ociable; merry. Often used ironical-
h he did not draw the good fellows to
aking, yet he eat well. *Clarendon*.—
mitted to drink without eating, will
custom of having the cup at his nose;

beginning and preparation to good fel-
cke.—It was well known, that Sir Ro-

a good fellow, in his youth. *Arbuth.*
etimes used as an epithet of slight
mplying a kind of negative virtue or
n from ill.—My good man, as far from

I am from giving him cause. *Shak.*—
the good man at home, and brought

lant. *Speñat*. 29. In a ludicrous sense.

other good women that love to do but
how handsome it is to louse themselves

ne, they that have been but a while
in well witness. *Spenser*. 30. Hearty;

dubious.—He, that saw the time fit
ery he intended, called unto us to fol-

high we both, bound by oath, and
ood will, obeyed. *Sidney*.—The good

nation to the present war has been
much experienced by the successes

tended it. *Temple*.—
ill, she said, my want of strength sup-

ence shall give what age denies.

Dryden's Fab.
o time. Not too fast.—In good time,

er, you have heard them dispute a-
um in the schools. *Collier*. 32. In

Really; seriously.—
mult I hold a candle to my shames?

emelves, good south, are too too light.

Shak.
To make.] To keep; to maintain; not

not to abandon.—There died upon
the chieftains, all making good the

any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced
re in spite of their dragoons, which

there to make good their retreat. *Cla-*
we claim a proper interest above others

inent rights of the household of faith,
e good that claim, we are obliged a-

to conform to the proper manners
hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—

out fear a dangerous war pursues;
made him first the danger chieft,
makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd.*

PART II.

34. GOOD [To make.] To confirm; to establish.—
I farther will maintain

Upon his bad life to make all this good. *Shak.*

—To make good this explication of the article, it
will be necessary to prove that the church, which

our Saviour founded and the apostles gathered,
was to receive a constant and perpetual accession.

Pearson.—These propositions I shall endeavour to
make good. *Smulridge*. 35. GOOD [To make.] To

perform.—
While she so far extends her grace,
She makes but good the promise of her face.

Waller.
43. GOOD [To make.] To supply.—Every distinct
being has somewhat peculiar to itself, to make

good in one circumstance what it wants in another.

L'Estr.
(2.) * GOOD. adv. 1. Well; not ill; not a-
mish. 2. As GOOD. No worse.—

Was I to have never parted from thy side,
As good have grown there still a lifeless rib.

Milton.
—Says the cuckow to the hawk, Had you not as
good have been eating worms now as pigeons?

L'Estrange.
(3.) * GOOD. interjection. Well! right! It is
sometimes used ironically.

(4.) * GOOD. n. f. 1. That which physically
contributes to happiness; benefit; advantage; the

contrary to evil or misery. —
I fear the emp'rour means no good to us. *Shak.*

—Let me play the lion too: I will roar, that I
will do any man's heart good to hear me. *Shak.*

—He war'd indifferently 'twixt them, doing nei-
ther good nor harm. *Shak.*—

Love with fear the only God,
Merciful over all his works, with good

Still overcoming evil. *Milton*.
God is also in sleep, and dreams advise,
Which he hath sent propitious, some great good

Presaging. *Milton*.
Nature in man's heart her laws doth pen,
Prescribing truth to wit, and good to will. *Davies*.

—The lessening or escaping of evil is to be reck-
oned under the notion of good: the lessening or

loss of good is to be reckoned under the notion of
evil. *Wilkins*.—This caution will have also this

good in it, that it will put them upon considering,
and teach them the necessity of examining more

than they do. *Locke*.—Good is what is apt to cause
or increase pleasure, or diminish pain in us; or

else to procure or preserve us in the possession of
any other good, or absence of any evil. *Locke*.—

Refuse to leave thy destin'd charge too soon,
And for the church's good defer thy own. *Prior*.

Works may have more wit than does them
good,

As bodies perish through excess of blood. *Pope*.
—A thirst after truth, and a desire of good, are
principles which still act with a great and univer-

sal force. *Rogers*. 2. Prosperity; advancement.
If he had employ'd

Those excellent gifts of fortune and of nature
Unto the good, not ruin of the state. *B. Jansf.*

3. Earnest; not jest.—The good woman never
died after this, 'till she came to die for good and

all. *L'Estrange*. 4. Moral qualities, such as are
desirable; virtue; righteousness; piety; the con-

trary

Z z z

trary to wickedness.—Depart from evil, and do good. *Ps. xxiiv. 14.*—Not only eternal good from evil does not justify; but no good, no not a purposed good, can make evil good. *Hayday*—

O sons, like one of us is Man become,
To know both good and evil, since his taste
Of that defende' fruit, but let him boast
His knowledge of good lost, and evil got.
Happier had it suffic'd him to have known
Good by itself, and evil not at all. *Milton.*

Empty of all good, wherein consists
Woman's domestic honour, and chief prize. *Milton.*

—By good, I question not but good, morally so called, *bonum honestum*, ought, chiefly at least, to be understood; and that the good of profit or pleasure the *bonum utile*, or *jucundum*, hardly come into any account here. *South.*—

Nor holds this earth a more deserving knight
For virtue, valour, and for noble blood,
Truth, honour, all that is compriz'd in good. *Dryden.*

3. Good placed after bad, with *as*, seems a substantive; but the expression is, I think, vicious; and good is rather an adjective elliptically used, or it may be considered as adverbial. See GOOD, *adv.*—The pilot must intend some port before he steers his course, or he had *as good* leave his vessel to the direction of the winds, and the government of the waves. *South*—Without good nature and gratitude, men had *as good* live in a wilderness as in a society. *L'Estrange.*

(3.) GOOD, MORAL, (§ 4. def. 4.) denotes the right conduct of the senses and passions, or their just proportion and accommodation to their respective objects and relations. See MORALS.

(6.) GOOD, PHYSICAL. See § 1. def. 1.

GOOD BEARING. [*bonus gestus*.] in law. See ABEARING, and GOOD BEHAVIOUR. He that is bound to this, is more strictly bound than to the peace; because where the peace is not broken, the surety *de bono gestu* may be forfeited by the number of a man's company, or by their weapons.

GOODALL, Walter, a learned Scots antiquary and philologist, born in 1689. He was many years keeper of the Advocates Library, which gave him an opportunity of examining the original papers and authentic documents preserved among the records of that learned faculty, which he did not fail to improve. Being a zealous friend to the exiled royal house of Stewart, he was anxious to rescue the character of our unfortunate Q. Mary from the calumnies that had been thrown upon it, for near two centuries; and accordingly after much deep investigation, published a *Vindication* of that princess, which very much attracted the public attention, and exhibits equal proofs of his learning and industry in literary researches. He wrote several other pieces, and died at Edinburgh in 1751, in the 72d year of his age.

GOOD BEHAVIOUR, in law, an exact carriage and behaviour to the king and the people. A justice of the peace may, at the request of another, or where he himself sees cause, demand surety for the good behaviour; and to that end the justice may issue out his warrant against any persons whatsoever, under the degree of nobility; but when it is a nobleman, complaint is to be

made in the court of chancery, or where such nobleman may be bound to peace. Infants and females continue to find surety by their friends, may be to their good behaviour; and in such sometimes meet intervals, and all break the peace, or are suspected of affrays, assaults, battery, wounds, quarrelling, threatening, &c. Persons likewise bound to good behaviour in way of living, keeping bawdy-houses, houses, &c. and so may common whores, common whores, &c. He who demands surety for any violence offered, must take an oath of justice, that he goes in fear of his bodily harm, &c. and that it is not but from a regard to his own safety.

GOOD BREAKING. See BREACHING MANNERS.

* GOOD-CONDITIONED. *adj.* Well fitted or symptoms. Used both of persons, but not elegantly.—No symptoms of any kind by rejection, or good-conditioned. *Scarp's Surgery.*

GOODEROO, a lake of Abyssinia.
GOODLINGTON, a town in New Guinea, an island in the Indian Sea, near the W. coast of New Guinea, and 6 broad. Lon. 98. 30 E.

GOOD FRIDAY, a fast of the Church in memory of the sufferings and death of Christ. It is observed on the Friday before week. Among the Saxons it was Friday; probably on account of the word *frigg*, &c. then used. On Good Friday) on a plain form; and, after service is the cardinals wait on him back to they keep a deep silence, as a token of sorrow. In the night of Good-Friday perform the obsequies of our Saviour great crucifix, laid on a bed of state, flowers; these the bishops distribute assistants when the office is ended, and, on this day, set open a holy imitation of that of mount Calvary.

GOOD HENRY. See CHENORON.
(1.) GOOD HOPE, a Danish colony in Greenland. Lat. 64. 0. N.

(2.) GOOD HOPE, CAPE OF, a point in Africa, where the Dutch built a good fort; which were taken by the British of Aug. 1796. It is situated in the 6th Hottentots; for an account of the country at large, with its first &c. see that article. On approaching very remarkable eminence may in be discovered at a considerable distance the TABLE MOUNTAIN, from its apex it terminates in a flat horizontal line which the face of the rock descends at a singularly. In the summer season, mences in September, and continues the TABLE LAND or MOUNTAIN, suddenly capped with a white cloud called the *spreading of the Table-land* cloud seems to roll down the mountain; it is a sure indication of

of wind from the SE.; which generally with great violence, and sometimes continues for more, but commonly is of short duration. On the first appearance of this cloud, the inhabitants of TABLE BAY prepare for it, by striking their roofs and top masts, and making every thing as possible.—A little W. of the Table Land, divided by a small valley, stands on the east side of Table Bay a round hill, called the *Lion's Head*; and by many the *Lion's Head* there is a continuance from it contiguous to the sea, called the *Lion's Rump*; and when taken from a general view of the whole, it very much resembles that animal with his head erect. The *Head* and the *Lion's Rump* have each a fort on them, by which the approach of the town is announced to the governor, particularising the Dutch, the English, and the quarter from which the wind blows. On the E. separated by a small chasm from the Table Land, stands Charles's Mount, known by the appellation of the *Devil's Head*; and so called from the gusts of wind supposed to issue from it, which sometimes takes the shape of the cap that covers the Table Land, though these gusts are merely owing to the wind acquiring in coming through the chasm. When this phenomenon appears in the town, which is by no means so frequent as in the Cape, the sailors say, (as the *Devil's Tower* is contiguous to the Table Land,) that the *Devil* is going to *breakfast*; if in the forenoon, that he is going to *dinner*; if in the afternoon, that the cloth is spread for *dinner*; if in the evening, that the cloth is spread for *dinner*. The Table mountain rises about 3,567 feet above the level of the sea; the *Devil's Tower*, 2,764; and the *Lion's Head*, 2,764. In the neighbourhood of the latter lies CONSTANTIA, a town famous for its wines. (See that article.) The described high lands form a kind of amphitheatre about the Table valley, where the town stands. This is situated at the bottom of the middle height, or TABLE MOUNTAIN; and in the centre of TABLE BAY, so called from the Table mountain. FALSE BAY, on the SE. side of the Cape, is more secure than Table Bay, from the NW. winds. It is, however, less frequented, being 24 miles of very heavy road from the Cape, whence almost all necessaries must be brought. The most sheltered part of False Bay is on the W. side, called SIMON'S BAY. The latest and most particular, and perhaps the most just account of the Cape Town, is that given by Mr White in his *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*. From the ship he observes (p. 87.) "the town appears pleasant, but at the same time small; a smallness that arises from its being built in a valley between such stupendous mountains directly before it. On landing, however, you are surprised, and not a little disappointed, to find it not only extensive, but well built, and in a good style; the streets are spacious, and intersecting each other at right angles with great precision. This exactness in the formation of the streets, when viewed from the Table Land, is observed to be very great. The houses in general are built of stone, cemented with a glutinous kind of earth which

serves as mortar, and afterwards neatly plastered and white-washed with lime. As to their height, they do not in common exceed two stories, on account of the violence of the wind, which at some seasons of the year blows with great strength and fury. For the same reason thatch has been usually preferred to tiles or shingles; but the bad effects that have proceeded from this mode when fires happen, has induced the inhabitants in all their new buildings to give the preference to slates and tiles. The lower parts of the houses, according to the custom of the Dutch, are not only uncommonly neat and clean in appearance, but they are really so; and the furniture is rather rich than elegant. But this is by no means the case with the bed-rooms or upper apartments; which are very ill furnished. The streets are rough, uneven, and unpaved: But many of the houses have a space flagged before the door; and others have trees planted before them, which form a pleasant shade, and give an agreeable air to the streets. The only landing place is at the east end of the town, where there is a wooden quay running some paces into the sea, with several cranes on it for the convenience of loading and unloading the boats that come along side. To this place excellent water is conveyed by pipes, which makes the watering of ships both easy and expeditious. Close to the quay, on the left hand, stands the castle and principal fortress; a strong extensive work, having excellent accommodations for the troops, and for many of the civil officers belonging to the company. Within the gates, the company have their principal stores; which are spacious as well as convenient. This fort covers and defends the east part of the town and harbour, as Amsterdam fort does the west part. The latter, which has been built since commodore Johnston's expedition, and whereon both French and Dutch judgment have been united to render it effectual and strong, is admirably planned and calculated to annoy and harass ships coming into the bay. Some smaller detached fortifications extend along the coast, both to the east and west, and make landing, which was not the case before the late war, hazardous and difficult. In a word, Cape Town is at this time fortified with strength, regularity, and judgment. The governor's house is delightfully situated, nearly in the centre of an extensive garden, formerly the property of the Dutch East India company, usefully planted, and at the same time elegantly laid out. This garden is as public as St James's park; and for its handsome, pleasant, and well-shaded walks, is much frequented by persons of every description. At the upper end of the principal walk is a small space walled in for confining some large ostriches and a few deer; and a little to the right of this is a small menagery, in which the company kept a few wild beasts and curious birds. There are two churches in the town; one large, plain, and unadorned, for the Calvinists, and a smaller one for the Lutherans. The hospital, which is large and extensive, is situated at the upper end of the town, close to the garden; where the convalescents reap the benefit of a wholesome pure air, perfumed with the exhalations of a great variety of rich fruit trees,

trees, aromatic shrubs, and odorous plants and flowers; and likewise have the use of its productions. The Dutch East India company erected several other public buildings, which improve the appearance of the town. The two principal of these are, the stables and a house for the slaves. The former is a handsome range of buildings, capable of containing an incredible number of horses; which are small, spirited, and full of life. The latter is a building of a considerable extent, where the slaves, male and female, have separate apartments, in a very comfortable style, to reside in after their toil. The inhabitants of the Cape, though in their persons large, stout, and athletic, have not the characteristic phlegm of Dutchmen. The physical influence of climate may account for this. The ladies are lively, good-natured, and familiar; and from a peculiar gay turn, they admit of liberties that would be thought reprehensible in England, though perhaps they as seldom overstep the bounds of virtue as the women of other countries. The heavy draft work about the Cape is mostly performed by oxen; which are brought to an uncommon degree of usefulness and docility. It is not uncommon to see 14, 16, and sometimes 18, in one of their teams; when the roads are heavy, they sometimes, though rarely, yoke 20; all which the Hottentots, Malays, and Cape slaves, have in the most perfect subjection and obedience. One of these places himself on the fore part of the waggon, or, when loaded, on the top of the load, and with a tremendous long whip, which from its size he is obliged to hold in both his hands, manages these creatures with inexpressible address. They can make them either trot or gallop (a gait performed or kept up with difficulty by European oxen), with as much ease as if they were driving horses. They likewise manage horses with the same dexterity; and to see one of them driving 3, 4, 5, or, sometimes 6 pair, in hand, with one of these long whips, would astonish the most complete master of the whip in England. Carriages are not very numerous at the Cape, as the inhabitants in general travel in covered waggons, which better suit the roughness of the country. The governor and some of the principal people keep coaches, which are a good deal in the British style, and always drawn by six horses. The Cape lies W. of Cape Lagullas, the most southern extremity of Africa. Lon. 18° 23' E. Lat. 34° 29' S.

GOODLEIGH, a village in Devonshire.

* **GOODLINESS**. *n. f.* [from *goodly*.] Beauty; grace; elegance.—She sung this song with a voice no less beautiful to his ears, than her *goodliness* was full of harmony to his eyes. *Sidney*.—The stateliness of houses, the *goodliness* of trees, when we behold them, delighteth the eye. *Hooker*.

(1.) * **GOODLY**. *adj.* [from *good*.] 1. Beautiful; graceful; fine; splendid. Now little in use.—A prince of a *goodly* aspect, and the more *goodly* by a grave majesty, wherewith his mind did deck his outward grace. *Sidney*.—

A *goodly* city is this Antium. *Shak. Coriol.*
Patience and sorrow drove

Which should express her *goodness*: you have seen
Sunshine and rain at once. Her smiles and tears
Were like a winter May. *Shak. King Lear*.

Here from gracious England
Of *goodly* thousands.

—Rebekah took *goodly* raiment of Esau, and put them upon Jacob. *Gen.*

—There was not among the children
goodlier person than he. *1 Sam. 17.*

Both younger than they were;
And all their forms, much *goodlier*.

—He had not made them any
their *goodly* houses and olive gardens
the former were. *Kneller*.—

The *goodliest* man of men
His sons, the surest of her daughters
Of the fourth Edward was the
Fiercer, *goodly*, valiant, beautiful.

Not long since walking in the
My nurse and I, we there beheld
A *goodly* fruit, which, tempting
I would have pluck'd.

How full of ornament is all
To all its parts! and seems as born
O *goodly* order'd work! O power
Of thee I am, and what I am is.

His eldest born, a *goodly* youth
Excell'd the rest in shape and colour
Fair, tall, his limbs with due proportion
But of a heavy, dull, degenerate

2. Bulky; swelling; affectedly round
Round as a globe, and liquor
Goodly add great he sits behind.

3. Happy; desirable; gay.—
peaceable kingdom, and but lately
mild and *goodly* government of
Spenser.—

We have many *goodly* days to
(2.) * **GOODLY**. *adv.* Excellently

There Alma, like a virgin queen
Doth flourish in all beauty erect
And to her graces doth bow
dight,
Attemper'd *goodly* well for heavenly
light.

* **GOODLYHOOD**. *n. f.* [from *goodly*.] Goodness. Obsolete.—

But more thy *goodlyhood* forgive
To meet which of the gods I shall

* **GOODMAN**. *n. f.* [from *good* and
slight appellation of civility: general
How now, what's the matter? part
goodman boy, if you please: come
Shak. K. Lear. 2. A rustic term of
gaffer.—Nay, hear you, *goodman*
Hamlet.—

But see the sun-beams bright
And gild the thatch of *goodman*

Old *goodman* Dobson of the gr
Remembers he the trees has seen
GOOD-MANNERS. See **MANNERS**

* **GOODNESS**. *n. f.* [from *good*.]
qualities either moral or physical;
vour.—If for any thing he loved gr
because therein he might exercise
Sidney.—There is in all things an i

by they incline to something which ; ; all which perfections are contained under name of *goodness*. *Hooker*.—

All *goodness*
to thy stomach.
s, that *goodness*
ng all the land's wealth unto one,
own hands, cardinal, by extortion :
ness of your intercepted packets
to the pope against the king ; your
ness,
I provoke me, shall be most notorious.

Shak. Henry VIII.
s no *goodness* in thy face. *Shak.*
a general or natural *goodness* in crea-
a more special or moral *goodness*. *Per-*
goodness of every thing is measured by
use, and that's the best thing which
exit end and purpose. *Tillotson*.—All
particular relations of the strength of
my, the excellent discipline that was
it, and the *goodness* of the men. *Clar.*
can say that tobacco of the same *good*
in respect of itself : one pound of the
ness will never exchange for a pound
er of the same *goodness*. *Locke*.

now. *interjection*. 1. In good time ; *a la*
A gentle exclamation of intreaty.
low word —

ow, lit down, and tell me, he that
was,
same watch ?

Shak. Hamlet.
clamation of wonder.—*Good-morn, good-*
roun devotions jump with mine ! *Dry-*
den Friar.

WICH, a village in Herefordshire.

WINGTON, a town in Devonshire.

WDS. *n. f.* [from *good*.] 1. Moveables

— That giv'st to such a guest
nor selfe, of all thy *goods* the best.

Chapman,
or moveable estate.—

hat a writ be su'd against you,
t all your *goods*, lands, tenements,
nd whatsoever. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

lets nothing the proceedings of the cl-
which respect the temporal punishment
body and *goods*. *Lestry*. 3. Wares ;
erchandise.—Her majesty, when the
r English merchan's were attached to
f Alva, arrested likewise the *goods* of
utch here in England. *Raleigh's H.J.*—
that scorn'd all pow'r and laws of men,
th their owners hurrying to their den.

Waller.
SUCCESS, BAY OF. See COOK, N° III,

GDWIN, John, an English divine and
writer of the 17th century. He was
St Stephen, in Coleman Street, Lon-
as deprived of his benefice, for refu-
minister the sacrament indiscriminately.
lous republican, he wrote a Vindica-
execution of Charles I. ; which, after
ion, was burnt by the hangman. He
1661.

(2.) GOODWIN, Thomas, an English divine,
born at Rolesby, in Norfolk, A. D. 1600. To
avoid religious persecution he went to Holland,
and was chosen pastor of the English church at
Arnheim. He returned to England during the
civil war, and was elected a member of the cele-
brated Assembly of Divines at Westminster. Oli-
ver Cromwell appointed him president of Magda-
len College, Oxford ; and he attended him in his
last illness. Upon the restoration, he was ejected
from his presidency, and died soon after. He
wrote a number of tracts, which make 5 vols folio.

(3.) GOODWIN SANDS, or GODWIN SANDS, fa-
mous sand banks off the coast of Kent, lying be-
tween the N. and S. Foreland. As they run paral-
lel with the coast for 3 leagues together, at about
2½ leagues distant from it, they add to the security
of that capacious road, the Downs : for while the
land shelters ships with the wind from SW. to N.
W. only, these sands break all the force of the sea
when the wind is at ESE. The most dangerous
wind, when blowing hard on the Downs, is the
SSW. These sands occupy the space, that was
formerly a large tract of low ground, belonging
to Godwyn earl of Kent, father of K. Harold II. ;
and which being afterward given to the monastery
of St Augustin at Canterbury, the abbot neglec-
ting to keep in repair the wall that defended it
from the sea, the whole tract was drowned, A. D.
1100, leaving these sands, upon which so many
ships have since been wrecked. These sands lie
E. of the Downs 4½ miles from S. Foreland.

GOODWINSTON, a village in Kent.

* GOODY. *n. f.* [corrupted from *good wife*.]
A low term for civility used to mean persons —
So t, *goody* sheep, then said the fox, not so ;
Unto the king so rash you may not go.

Hubberd's Tale.
Swarm'd on a rotten stick the bees I spy'd,
Which erst I saw when *goody* Dobson died. *Gay.*

Plain *goody* would no longer down ;
'Twas madam in her program gown. *Swift.*

* GOODYSHIP *n. f.* [from *goody*.] The qua-
lity of *goody*. Ludicrous.—

The more shame for her *goodyship*,
To give so near a friend the slip. *Hudibras.*

GOOGINGS, in sea language, are clamps of
iron bolted on the stern-post of a ship, whereon
to hang the rudder, and keep it steady ; for which
purpose there is a hole in each of them, to receive
a correspondent spindle bolted on the back of the
rudder, which turns thereby as upon hinges.

GOOL, John VAN, an eminent Dutch painter
and man of letters, born at the Hague, in 1685.
He wrote a history of the lives and works of the
Flemish painters.

GOOMPTY, a river of Indostan Proper, which
rises in Rohilla, runs SE. by Lucknow and Jion-
pour, and falls into the Ganges below Benares.

GOOSANDER. See MERGUS, N° 4.

(1.) * GOOSE. *n. f.* plural *geese*. [*gos*, Saxon ;
goes, Dutch ; *gawe*, Erse, sing. *geewey*, plural.]
1. A large waterfowl proverbially noted, I know
not why, for foolishness.—

Thou cream-faced lown,
Where got'st thou that *goose* look ? *Shak. Macb.*
—Since I pluckt *geese*, play'd truant, and whipt
top,

top, I knew not what 'twas to be beaten till late-ly. *Shak.*—Birds most easily to be drawn near water-fowl; as the *goose* and *swan*. *Procham.*—

Nor watchful dogs, nor the more wakeful *geese*.

Disturb with nightly noise the sacred peace.

Dryd. Fables.

2. A taylor's smoothing iron.—Come jo, taylor; here you may roast your *goose*. *Shak.*

(1.) *Goose*, in ornithology. (§ 1. def 1.) See *ANAS*, § 4. 8, &c. Geese were held in great esteem amongst the Romans, for having saved the Capital from the invasion of the Gauls, by cackling and clapping their wings. They were kept in the temple of Juno; and the censors, when they entered upon their office provided meat for them. There was also an annual feast at Rome, at which they carried a silver image of a goose in state; and hanged a dog, because these animals did not bark at the arrival of the Gauls.

(2.) *Goose*, *ENSAE*, a peculiar species of geese, that frequent the coasts of the Orkney and Shetland Isles, in the winter, described by the rev. Mr Bremner, in his account of Walls and Flota. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc. XVII. 321*. From his description, they seem to be a species of *Mareca*. "Though less in size, (he says,) than the common grey goose, it weighs a great deal more. They sometimes weigh 12 lb. It is never seen on land, and, though it has pretty large wings, it is never seen to fly. The feet are so much in a right line with its body, that they can never be brought far enough forward to assist it in rising out of the water. Nor does nature seem to have intended, that it ever should fly; for in whatever manner it is attacked, pursued, or surprised, it always has recourse to diving. Being a bird of passage, it differs from all others in preferring the medium of water to that of air. How this bird hatches its young remains a profound secret, both as to the manner and place."

(4.) *Goose*, *GOLDEN*. See *ANYSSIMA*.

(1.) * *GOOSEBERRY*. *n. f.* (*goose* and *berry*, because eaten with young geese as sauce.) A berry and tree. The species are, 1. The common gooseberry. 2. The large manured gooseberry. 3. The red hairy gooseberry. 4. The large white Dutch gooseberry. 5. The large amber gooseberry. 6. The large green gooseberry. 7. The large red gooseberry. 8. The yellow-leaved gooseberry. 9. The striped leaved gooseberry. *Miller*.—August has upon his arm a basket of all manner of ripe fruits; as pears, plums, apples, *gooseberries*. *Procham.*—

Upon a *gooseberry* bush a snail I found;

For always snails near sweetest fruit abound.

Gay.

(2.) *GOOSEBERRY*, in botany. See *RIBES*.

(3.) *GOOSEBERRY*, *AMERICAN*. See *MELAS-TOMA*.

(4.) *GOOSEBERRY*, *BARBADOES*. See *CACTUS*.

GOOSEBERRY HILL, a hill in Cork, Ireland.

GOOSEBERRY ISLANDS, islands near the E. coast of Newfoundland, 24 miles NW. of Cape Bonaville.

GOOSEBERRY MOUNTAIN, a mountain of New York, on the W. bank of Hudson's River, 4 miles S. of Fort George.

GOOSEBERRY ROCKS, rocks on the Massachusetts, 3 miles N. of Marblehead.

* *GOOSECAP*. *s. f.* [from *goose* and *cap*] a silly person.

GOOSE CREEK, a river of Virginia, which flows into the Potomac, 2 mile S. of Thorpe, Fairfax county.

(1.) * *GOOSEFOOT*. *n. f.* [*chamæpodium*] a plant, *Miller*.

(2.) *GOOSEFOOT*. See *CHENOPODIUM*.

(1.) * *GOOSEGRASS*. *n. f.* *Clivia*; a plant, *Miller*. *Goosegrass*, or wild tansy, is a weed that grows in clays are very subject to. *Mort.*

(2.) *GOOSEGRASS*. See *GALUM*. *N.*

(3.) *GOOSEGRASS*, *GREAT*, or *WILD*. See *ASPERUGO*.

GOOSEHURST, a town N. of Snettisham.

GOOSE ISLAND, an isle in the Gulf of Mexico, near the coast of Labrador. Lon. W. Lat. 50. 51. N.

GOOSE-NECK, in a ship, a piece of wood on the one end of the tiller, to which is attached the whip staff or the wheel-rope for steering the ship.

GOOSE-TONGUE, a species of *Achnanthes*.

GOOSE-WING, in sea language. When a ship sails before, or with a quarter wind on the lee side, to make the more haste, they lay the boom and sail on the lee side; and a sail so set is called a *goose-wing*.

GOOSFY, a town near Standford, Leicestershire.

GOOTY, or *GUTTI*, a strong fort on the island of Gooty, formerly the seat of government of a Marhatta prince, and lately of a Marhatta prince, before his final defeat by the British in 1799. It is seated beyond the 10 miles S. by E. of Adon. Lon. 77. 35. E. Lat. 15. N.

GOPLO, a lake of Poland, in the p. of Brzask, 16 miles long and 4 broad, W. of Brzask.

GOPFENGEN, a town of Germany in the duchy of Wirtemberg, seated on the Vils mineral spring, 22 miles ESE. of Stuttgart 20 NNW. of Ulm. It has considerable manufactures. At present (Jan. 1801) there are in possession of it.

GORANTO, a town of Asiatic Tartary, 80 miles SW. of Satala.

(1.) *The GORBALS OF GLASGOW*, Scotland, in Lanarkshire, disjoined from Govan, in 1771; comprehending 200 acres. The soil is partly a strong blue clay, and partly sand, the air and the ground flat, abounding with coal. Govan colliery is supposed to have as much coal as would serve Glasgow for 100 years. 300 men are employed in it.

(2.) *GORBALS OF GLASGOW*, a village in the above parish, on the S. of the Clyde, anciently called Bridge-end. It contained 3000 inhabitants, and in 1799 5000; as stated by the rev. W. Anderson report to Sir J. Sinclair. Within three years (in 1795), it was expected that number doubled. There were then 556 looms in the place. Longevity is not uncommon. It lived to 100 and 104. Most of the vi-

748; and it was much damaged by fire in 1712, and 1782.

ARA, a town of the French republic in the dept. of Corsica, 8 miles NE. of

ATA, a town of Tunis, 20 miles S. of

ATOV, a town of Russia, in Nizegorod.

BELLIED. *adj.* [from *gorbelly*.] Fat; having swelling paunches.—Hang ye, knaves, are you undone? No, ye fat would your store were here. *Henry IV.*

BELLY. *n. s.* [from *gor*, dung, and according to *Skinner* and *Junius*. It may come from *gor*, Welsh, beyond, too, as seems to me more likely, may be from *gormand*, or *gorman's belly*, the glutton.] A big paunch; a swelling term of reproach for a fat man.

E. *n. s.* a pool to keep fish in. *Bailey*.

UM, or GORICHEM, a town of the Republic, in the dept. of Delft, and late Holland, which carries on a considerable cheese and butter. It is seated at the foot of the Ligne and Maese, 12 miles E. of 130 S. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 59. E. 1. N.

UD. *n. s.* An instrument of gaming, as from *Beaumont* and *Fletcher*. *Warburton*. y bones can reach at nothing now, but ninepins. *Beaum. and Fletcher*.—Let vulgar thy guts; for *gords* and Fulham-holds.

ELIZA, a town of Spain, in the province; 22 miles SSE. of Leon.

ES, a town of France, in the dept. of the Rhone, 9 miles W. of Apt, 12 of Avignon.

Æ! MONTES, or } The name of one
ÆUS MONTES, } or more mountains
2, upon which Noah's ark is said to
land after the general deluge, and on one
the Tigris rises.

IAN. See GORDIANUS, I, II, and III.
KNOT, in antiquity a knot made by
us, in one of the cords of his yoke, or
wre it, in the leathers of his chariot har-
ch was so very intricately twisted, that it
impossible to discover where it began or ended.
of Apollo having declared that, who-
d untie this knot should be master of all
who attempted it, but without success;
Alexander the Great, after likewise at-
in vain to untie it, cut it asunder with
his sword, and thus either eluded or fulfilled the
oracle. See GORDIUS, N° 1.

IANUS I, Mæcius Antonius, a Roman
emperor, for his virtues chosen emperor by the ar-
rested reign of Maximinus, A. D. 236. He
descended on the father's side from the Grac-
chi, and on the mother's from Trajan. He had
been consul, and was proconsul of Africa
before emperor; but his son being slain by
the governor of Mauritania, he killed
him in his 80th year. See ROME. He was so
fond of literature that he had collected in-
to 62,000 books.

IANUS II, Mæcius Antonius, surnamed

Africanus, the son of the preceding, by Annia
Orestilla, the grand-daughter of the emperor Mar-
cus Antoninus, was like his father very learned
and liberal. He was made consul by the emperor
Alexander, and afterwards associated with his fa-
ther in the empire, but slain in fighting against the
partisans of Maximinus, A. D. 237.

GORDIANUS III. Mæcius Antonius, grandson of
Gordianus I, by his daughter Faustina, a renown-
ed warrior, and styled *The guardian of the Roman
commonwealth*. He was treacherously assassinated
by Philip, an Arabian, one of his generals; who
succeeded him, A. D. 244. See ROME.

GORDIUM. a city of Phrygia Major, where
Alexander the Great cut the Gordian Knot.

(I.) GORDIUS, in fabulous history, a poor
husbandman who had two yokes of oxen, where-
with he ploughed his land and drew his wain.
An eagle sitting a long while upon one of his ox-
en, he consulted the soothsayers; a virgin bade
him sacrifice to Jupiter in the capacity of king.
He married the virgin, who bore to him MIDAS.
The Phrygians instructed by the oracle to set the
first person they met in a wain upon the throne,
met Gordius, and made him king. Midas for this
good fortune dedicated to Jupiter his father's cart;
and Gordius hung up the knot of the yoke in the
temple. See GORDIAN KNOT.

(II.) GORDIUS, in zoology, the HAIR WORM,
a genus of animals belonging to the class of *ver-
mes* and order of *intestina*. There are several spe-
cies; viz.

1. GORDIUS AQUATICUS, the water hair worm,
is 10 or 12 inches in length, and of about the
thickness of a horse hair; its skin is smooth and
glossy; its colour pale yellowish white all over,
except the head and tail, which are black. The
body is rounded, and very slender in proportion
to its length: the mouth is small, and placed ho-
rizontally; the jaws are of equal length, and ob-
tuse at their extremities. This species is common
in our fresh waters, especially in clay, through
which it passes as a fish does through the water,
and thus gives rise to many springs. This is the
species of worms, that in Guinea and in some o-
ther hot countries get into the flesh of the natives,
and occasion great mischief: with us, though fre-
quent enough in water where people bathe, it ne-
ver attempts this.

2. GORDIUS ARGILLACEUS, or clay hair-worm,
only differs from the preceding in colour, being
yellowish at the extremities, and in being chiefly
found in clay.

3. GORDIUS MARINUS, the sea hair-worm, is
filiform, twisted spirally, and lying flat, about
half an inch in length; of a whitish colour, smooth,
and scarcely diminishing at the head. It infests
herrings, bleaks, and various other fish.

4. GORDIUS MEDINENSIS, the muscular hair-
worm, is all over of a pale yellowish colour. It
is a native of both Indies; frequent in the morn-
ing dew, from whence it enters the naked feet of
the slaves, and occasions a disease common in those
countries, and to which children are very liable;
occasioning severe itchings, and often exciting in-
flammations and fevers. It infests the muscles of
the arms and legs, whence it may be drawn out
by a thread, tied round the head, but care must be
taken not to pull it out too fast.

be taken not to break it, as the remaining part will grow with redoubled vigour. Baths with infusions of bitter plants, and all vermifuges, destroy it.

1. GORDON, Alexander, M. A. an eminent Scots antiquary, an excellent draughtsman, and a great Greek scholar, who resided many years in Italy, visited most parts of that country, and travelled into France, Germany, &c. He was secretary to the Society for Encouragement of Learning, and afterwards to the Egyptian Club, composed of gentlemen who had visited Egypt, such as Lord Sandwich, Dr Shaw, Dr Pococke, &c. He succeeded Dr Stukely as secretary to the Antiquarian Society, which office he resigned in 1771 to Joseph Ames. He went to Carolina in 1772, where, besides a grant of land, he had several offices, such as register of the province, &c.; and died a justice of the peace, leaving a handsome estate to his family. He published, *A Itinerary Septentrionale, or a Journey through most parts of the Counties of Scotland, &c. &c. with 66 copperplates*, 1746, folio.

2. Supplement to the *Itinerary*, 1732, folio. 3. *The Lives of Pope Alexander VI. and his son Caesar Borgia*. 4. A complete History of the ancient Amphitheatres, 1730, 8vo, afterwards enlarged in a second edition. 5. An Essay towards explaining the hieroglyphical figures on the Ciffin of the ancient Mummy belonging to Capt. William Boscawen, 1737, folio, with cuts. 6. Twenty plates of all the Egyptian Mummies and other Egyptian Antiquities in England, 1739, fol.

(2.) GORDON, hon. George, or Lord George Gordon, 3d son of Cosmo George, D. of Gordon, by Catherine daughter of William E. of Arden, was born at London, Dec. 19th, 1750, and K. George II. was his godfather. He early entered into the navy, but quitted it during the American war, in consequence of an altercation with E. Sandwich about promotion. He was elected M. P. for Ludgerthall, Wilts, in 1774; and during several sessions animadverted with great freedom and no small humour, on the speeches and proceedings of both ministry and opposition. An alarm having been excited by the repeal of certain penal statutes against the Roman Catholics in 1779, Lord George was chosen president of the Protestant Association at London; and on the 2d June 1780, went to the house of Commons, to present their petition against that reſcissory act, attended by about 60,000 of the petitioners. The dreadful consequences of this imprudent measure are related under the article ENGLAND, § 101 and 102. Lord George was imprisoned in the tower, on the 9th June 1780; and tried for high treason, but acquitted on the 4th Feb. 1781; on which occasion there was a very general illumination in London, and 4851. were subscribed to reimburse the expences of his trial. On the 4th

he was excommunicated by the Abp. of York for not appearing in court as a witness. In Feb. and June 1787 he was in the court of King's Bench, for publishing the Queen of France, the French and the Empress of Russia; and also a pamphlet entitled, *A Petition to*

Lord G. Gordon from the Prisoners in praying that he would secure their liberty, writing them from being sent to Botany Bay; petition, upon trial, was proved to be written by himself, for the purpose of criminal justice of England. Being charged with these charges, he, on the 24th June, fled to Holland, where he turned Jew, and was circumcised; but, returning to England, he was apprehended on the 7th Dec. 1788, at Ham; and on the 28th Jan. 1789, was committed to imprisonment for 5 years, and to jail till he should find bail for his good behaviour in £10,000. Not being able to find bail, at the end of that period to the extent required, he was sentenced to imprisonment for 7 years, July 1789, he presented a petition to the Assembly of France, and was visited by eminent revolutionists. He died Nov. 1793, a fever attended with delirium, in the 43rd year of his age. As an author, his publications, and miscellaneous, abounded with matter, and were not destitute of argument; as a speaker his language was animated, and his style elegant. Of his eccentricities we shall not say; but his conversion from Christianity to the strict sects of Presbyterian Secedarianism, was so very sincere a measure, indeed it was real; it can be accounted upon one supposition. But whatever we thought of his head, it is but justice to say, that his benevolence to his fellow-creatures proved, that his heart was impregnated with the finest feelings of sensibility and humanity.

(3.) GORDON, James, a learned lawyer, flourished in the end of the 16th and the 17th centuries. He was descended of a family of rank, and settling in France, he brewed at Bourdeaux and Paris. He died in 1614.

(4.) GORDON, Thomas, a Scots author, Kirkcudbright, famous for his translation of the Bible. He came young to London, where he supported himself by teaching, until he procured employment under Dr Hoadley in queen Anne's time, but in what way is not now known. He first distinguished himself in the defence of Dr Hoadley in the Hoadley controversy: which recommended Mr Trenchard, in conjunction with whom he wrote the well known *Cato's Letters*, a series of important public subjects. This was followed by another periodical paper, entitled the *Independent Whig*; which continued some years after Mr Trenchard's death, against the hierarchy of the Church, but with more acrimony than was Cato's Letters. At length Sir Robert Walpole retained him to defend his administration, which end he wrote several pamphlets, till the time of his death, July 18th 1750, he was commissioner of the wine licenses, and of the he had enjoyed many years. He was married. His second wife was the widow of his friend Trenchard, by whom he had children. He published English translations of Tacitus, with additional discourses to which contain much useful matter. T

led, 1. *A Cordial for Low-spirits*, in 1 2. *The Pillars of Priestcraft and Oppression*; in 2 vols. 8vo. were published at 1.

don, in geography, a parish of Scotland, in geography, a parish of Scotland, 7 miles long, and from 2

The air is salubrious; the surface is a soil partly light and sandy, partly loam. Above 200 black cattle, and several of sheep are fed annually. The population, stated by the rev. Alex. Duncan, to Sir J. Sinclair was 912, and had 5 since 1755. Barley, corn, and turnips chief produce. Agriculture is improved from 10,000 to 12,000 bolls are annual; the mills.

ON, EAST; } 2 villages in the above
ON WEST; } parish.

NA, a town of Naples, in the prov. miles SW. of Molise.

NIA, in botany; a genus of the power, belonging to the monadelphia class

The calyx is simple; the style five-cornered stigma quinquetid; the capsule

lar; the seeds two-fold with a leafy is a tall and very straight tree, with

ramidial head. Its leaves are shaped like the common bay, but serrated. It

flour, June and July. The flowers grow about 5 inches long, are monopetalous; succeeded by conic capsules with a

1. The stamina are headed with yellow. This tree retains its leaves all the year, only in wet places, and usually in water.

RE. *n. f.* [gore, Saxon; gor, Welsh, &c.] 1. Blood effused from the body.

A grilly wound,
forth gush'd a stream of gore blood

er goodly garment stain'd around,
deep sanguine dy'd the grilly ground.

's crimes the youth unhappy bore,
his father's eyes with guiltless gore.

ted or congealed.—
The bloody fact

ing'd; though here thou see him die,
dust and gore.

id beard and knotted tresses flood,
is gore, and all his wounds ran blood.

in globe-making. See GLOBE, § 1,

, in heraldry, one of the abatements, denoting to Gullim, denotes a coward.

consisting of two arch lines drawn sinister chief, and the other from

the, both meeting in an acute angle of the fess point. See HERALDRY.

ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific discovered by Captain Cook. Lon.

at. 64. 0. N.

E. *v. a.* [geberian, Saxon.] 1. To

to noble eye profane a tear
be gor'd with Mowbray's spear.

ART. II.

No weaker lion's by a stronger stain;
Nor from his larger tusks the forest bear
Commission takes his brother swine to gore.

For arms his men long pikes and javans bore,
And poles with pointed steel their foes in battle
gore.

2. To pierce with a horn —
Some tols'd, some gor'd, some trampling down
he kill'd.

He idly butting, feigns
His rival gor'd in every knotty trunk.

(1.) GOREE, a small island of Africa, near Cape de Verd, subject to the French. It is a small spot not exceeding 1 m. in circumference, but important from its situation for trade, near Cape Verd; whence it has been a bone of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1677 by the French, in whose possession it remained till 1759, when it was reduced by commodore Keppel, but restored to the French in 1763. It was retaken by the British in the American war, but again restored at the peace of 1783. Lon. 17. 25. E. Lat. 14. 40. N.

(2.) GOREE, an island of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of Delit, near the mouth of the Meuse, 10 miles in circumference, and 2 miles N. of Schowen. Lon. 20. 26. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 49. N.

(3.) GORFF, the capital of the above island, 6 miles S. of Heivoetsluys, and 8 S. of Briel. Lon. 3. 50. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

(1.) GOREY, a borough and post town of Ireland, in Wexford, otherwise called *Newborough*; 18 miles N. of Wexford, and 45 S. of Dublin. Lon. 6. 50. W. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(2.) GOREY MOUNTAINS, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Donegal, 14 miles SW. of Derry.

GORGAST a town of Germany, in Brandenburg, 4 miles W. of Cultrin.

(1.) * GORGE. *n. f.* [gorge, Fr.] 1. The throat; the swallow.—There were birds also made so finely, that they did not only deceive the sight with their figures, but the hearing with their songs,

which the watery instruments did make their gorge deliver. *Sidney*.—And now how abhorred in my

imagination it is! my gorge rises at it. *Shak. Hamlet*.

—Her delicate tenderness will find itself abated, begin to heave the gorge, disbelieve and abhor the

Moor. *Shak. Othello*. 2. That which is gorged or

swallowed. Not in use.—
And all the way, most like a brutish beast,
He spewed up his gorge, that all did him detest.

(2.) GORGE, in architecture, the narrowest part of the Tuscan and Doric capitals, lying between the astragal, above the shaft of the pillar, and the annulets.

(3.) GORGE, in fortification, the entrance of the platform of any work. See FORTIFICATION.

* To GORGE. *v. n.* [gorger, Fr.] 1. To fill up to the throat; to glut; to satiate.—

Being with his presence gorged, gorg'd, and
fail.

He that makes his generation restless,
To gorge his appetite.

A a a a

Gorge

Gorge with my blood thy barbarous appetite.

Dryden.

—I desire that they will not *gorge* the lion either with nonsense or obscenity. *Addison.*—

Nor would his slaughter'd army now have lain
On Africk's sands, disfigur'd with their wounds,
To *gorge* the wolves and vultures of Numidia.

Addison's Cato.

The giant, *gorg'd* with flesh, and wine, and blood,

Lay stretch'd at length, and snoring in his den.

Addison.

2. To swallow: as, *the fish has gorged the boat.*

(1.) * **GORGED**, *adj.* [from *gorge*] Having a *gorge* or throat.—

Look up a height, the shrill *gorg'd* lark so far
Cannot be seen or heard. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) **GORGON**, in heraldry, the bearing of a crown, coronet, or the like, about the neck of a lion, a swan, &c. The term is also used when the *gorge* or neck of a peacock, swan, or the like bird, is of a different colour or metal from the rest.

* **GORGEOUS**, *adj.* [from *gorgias*, old French. *Skinner.*] Fine; splendid; glittering in various colours; showy; magnificent.—

O, that decent should dwell

In such a *gorgeous* palace! *Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*

As full of spirit as the month of May,

And *gorgeous* as the sun at Midsummer. *Hamlet. IV.*

—He bad them look upon themselves and upon their enemies: themselves dreadful, their enemies *gorgeous* and brave. *Hayward.*—

The *gorgeous* East, with richest hand,

Pours on her kings barbaric pearl and gold.

Milton.

With *gorgeous* wings, the marks of lov'reign sway,

The two contending princes make their way.

Dryden's Virgil.

* **GORGEOUSLY**, *adv.* [from *gorgeous*.] Splendidly; magnificently; finely.—The duke, one solemn day, *gorgeously* clad in a suit all over spread with diamonds, lost one of them of good value. *Wotton.*

* **GORGEOUSNESS**, *n. f.* [from *gorgeous*.] Splendour; magnificence; show.

(1.) * **GORGET**, *n. f.* [from *gorge*.] The piece of armour that defends the throat.—

He with a palsy fumbling on his *gorget*,

Shakes in and out the rivet.

Shakespeare.

—He did oftentimes spend the night in the church alone praying, his head piece, *gorget*, and gauntlets lying by him. *Knolles.*—

See how his *gorget* peers above his gown,

To tell the people in what danger he was.

Ben Jonson.

About his neck a threefold *gorget*,

As rough as trebled leathern target. *Hudibras.*

(2.) A **GORGET** is a kind of breast plate like a half moon, with the arms of the prince thereon; worn by the officers of foot. They are either gilt or silver, according to the colour of the buttons on the uniforms.

(3.) **GORGET**, or **GORGERET**, in surgery, the concave or cannulated conductor, used in lithotomy. See **SURGERY**.

GORGAS, a celebrated orator of Sicily, born Leontium, about A. A. C. 417. According to

Quintilian, he was the first extemporizer, but this is not true. Men began extempore, before they studied it. Status, of gold was erected to him at 5.

GORGOLIONE, a town of Neopropolis at Babilonia; 15 miles E. of (1.) * **GORGON**, *n. f.* [2939.] A snake-haired, of which the sight turned it to stone; any thing ugly or horrid.—

Gorgons and hydra, and chymera

Why didst thou not encounter

And try the virtue of that *gorgon*

To stare me into statue.

(2.) The **GORGONS**, in antiquity were three sisters, whose names were EURYALE, and MINUSA; the latter a mortal, but the two former were said to eat nor death. They are described on their shoulders, with serpents' heads, their hands were of brass, and of a prodigious size, so that they were terror to mankind. Pausanias says, they were the daughters of Phorbus, or Phorbus, whose death Medusa, his daughter, the Labyria dwelling near the lake. The queen, being fond of hunting in the neighbouring countries quire was Perseus, having made war on them the queen, when he came to take a field of battle, he found the queen's helmet extremely beautiful, that he ordered it cut off, and carried it with him to show who could not behold it without others represent them as a kind of men, covered with hair, who lived in forests. Others, again, make them resembling wild sheep, whose eyes had and fatal influence.

(1.) **GORGONA**, a small island of sea of Tuscany, and near that of Cor miles in circumference; remarkable quantities of anchovies taken near it. E. Lat. 43. 22. N.

(2.) **GORGONA**, a small island of 18 miles W. of the coast of Peru, 2 miles in circumference. It has several rivulets of excellent water, but is so that rains. Lon 79. 3. W. Lat. 3.

GORGONIA, in natural history zoophytes, formerly called *ceratoph* English named *sea-fans*, *sea feathers*, &c. Linnæus and Pallas consider them a nature in their growth, between angetables; but Mr Ellis shows them to mals of the polype kind, growing up form resembling a shrub, and in no p They differ from the fresh water polyp their qualities, and particularly in po their own substance a hard and solid m many of the purposes of the bone in o The surface of the *gorgonia* is compo of scales, so well adapted to each oth for defence from external injury: or, as some have called it, the *barbo* fits of proper muscles and tendons the openings of their cells; for sendi thence their polype suckers in search

ing them in suddenly, and contracting
er muscles of their starry cells, in order
hese tender parts from danger; and also
secretory ducts, to furnish and deposit
matter that forms the stem and bran-
ill as the base of the bone. Mr Ellis ar-
there are ovaries in these animals, and
ry probable that many of them are vi-
See CORALLINES.

ORA, an island of Abyssinia, in the lake
15 miles NW. of Gondar, which has a
lt by F. Pays, wherein the emperor re-
nter.

UE, a town of France, in the dep. of
13 miles W. of Lille.

WITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in
of Reus, 1 mile NW. of Tschleitz.

RIAM, a kingdom of Africa, lying be-
1. 21° and 29° E. and between Lat. 10°
I.

RHAM, a township of the United States,
land county and district of Maine, on
f the Saco; 15 miles from Pepperelbo-
d 130 N. by E. of Belton; containing
ens in 1795.

HEM. See GORCUM.

RITIA, GORITZ, or GORZ, a county
bounded on the E., N., and S. by Car-
on the W. by Maritime Austria. It
corn, wine, silk, and fruits. The lan-
clavonian.

RITIA, or } a strong town in the above
RITZ. } county, with a castle; seat-
Lisqozo, 20 miles NE. of Aquileia, and
ice. It was taken by the French in 1797,
s military stores. Lon. 13. 43. E. Lat.

ZIA, a village of Maritime Austria, in
in the isle of Pago.

ORKAI, a country of Asia, between
d Qude.

RKAH, a town in the NE. part of the
ntry; near Napaul, 200 m. N. of Benares.

ÆUS, Abraham, an eminent antiquary,
ntwerp, in 1540. He collected the rings
of the ancients, and published an ac-
a prodigious number of them, in 1601,
title, *Dactylis theca; five Annulorum Si-*
quorum apud priores tam Græcos quam
us ex ferro, ære, argento, et auro, Promp-

This was the first part of the work: the
titled, *Variarum Gemmarum, quibus un-*
fignando uti solita, sculpturæ. In 1608,
hed his collection of medals: which,
if we may believe the *Scaligerana*, it is
lways to trust. He resided at Delft, and
e in 1609. His collections of antiques
by his heirs to the prince of Wales.

ATE, a town of the Cisalpine republic,
p. of Montagna; on the W. bank of the
io, opposite Lecco.

ITZ, a strong town of Germany, in Up-
tia, subject to the elector of Saxony;
the Neisse; 50 miles W. of Dresden,
I. of Prague. Lon. 15. 15. E. Lat. 51.

4, LOCH, a lake of Perthshire, 2½ miles
Loch Bruich, abounding with delicious

trouts, about 10 inches long, but very thick in
proportion.

* GORMAND. *n. f.* [*gourmand*, Fr.] A greedy
eater; a ravenous luxurious feeder.

* To GORMANDIZE. *v. n.* [from *gormand*.]
To eat greedily; to feed ravenously.

* GORMANDIZER. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A
voracious eater.

GORMAZ, or ST ESTIVAN DE GORMAZ, a
town of Spain in Old Castile, on the Duero, 6
miles below Borgo d'Olma.

GORMES, a town of Germany in Austria, 5
miles ENE. of hbrnsprunn.

GORO, a port of Maritime Austria, seated on
one of the mouths of the Po.

GORODITSCH, three towns of Russia; 1. in
the province of Kiev, 112 miles SE. of Kiev: 2.
in that of Penza, 32 miles E. of Penza: 3. in that
of Tobolsk, 20 miles ESE. of Tobolsk.

GORODNIA, a town of Russia, in the pro-
vince of Tver 20 miles E. of Tver.

GORODNITSK, a town of Russia, in the
province of Tchernigov, on the Snov, 32 miles
NNE. of Tchernigov.

GORODOK, a town of Russia, in the govern-
ment of Poletsk, 56 miles E. of Poletsk

GORON, a town of France, in the department
of Mayenne, 9 miles NW. of Mayenne.

GORONTALE, or } a town on the E. coast of
GORONTANO, } the island of Celebes.

GOROPIUS, John, M. D. a native of Brabant;
author of a work, entitled, *Origines Antuerpianæ*,
wherein, among other legendary stories, he at-
tempts to prove that the Flemish was the original
language, spoken by Adam and Eve.

GORREUS, John, M. D. a physician of Paris,
in the 16th century, who published a translation
of *Nicander*. He was born in 1500. Being a pro-
testant, he suffered much from religious persecu-
tion; and his coach being one day suddenly seized
by a party of soldiers, he was attacked with a de-
lirium; and died in 1572.

* GORSE. *n. f.* [*gorf*, Saxon.] Furz; a thick
prickly shrub that bears yellow flowers in Winter.

GORT, a town of Ireland in the county of Gal-
way, 16 m. SSE. of Galway, and 98 from Dublin.

GORTA, or ST MARIA LA GORTA, an island
in the Pacific Ocean. Lon. 135. 0. W. Lat. 26.
35. N.

GORTAHURK, a town of Ireland, in Done-
gal, Ulster.

GORTERIA, in botany; a genus of the poly-
gamia frustranea order, belonging to the syngen-
esia class of plants; and in the natural method
ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The re-
ceptacle is naked; the pappus woolly; the flo-
rets of the radius ligulated or plane; the calyx
imbricated with spinous scales.

GORTIN, a village of Ireland in Tyrone.

GORTSCHITZ, a river of Germany, in Ca-
rinthia, which runs into the Gurk, 3 miles S. of
Eberstein.

GORWAY, a river of Wales in Carnarvon.

* GORY. *adj.* [from *gore*.] 1. Covered with
congealed blood.—

When two boars with rankling malice met.
Their gory sides the fresh wounds fiercely fret.

Spenser.
Wb3

Why dost thou shake thy *gory* locks at me?
Thou canst not say I did it. *Shak.*

3. Bloody; murderous; fatal. Not in use.—

The origination of our blood forbids

A *gory* emulation 'twixt us twain. *Shak.*

GORZ, or GORITZ. See GURITZ.

GORZE, a town of France, in the dept. of Moselle, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles SW. of Metz.

GORZEGNO, a town of the Piedmontese republic, in the dep. of Boronda, and late duchy of Monterrat; seated on the Bormida, 13 miles SE. of Alba, and 15 E. of Bene.

GORZKE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Magdeburg, 34 miles E. of Magdeburg.

GOS, a river of Germany, in Carinthia, which runs into the Malentheim.

GOSBECK, a town of Suffolk, near Needham.

GOSCHGOSCHULNK, a town of the United States in Delaware, on the Ohio, much frequented by owls.

GOSCHUTZ, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Oels; 4 miles N. of Pessenberg.

GOSE, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Ocker, near Goslar.

GOSELBACH, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Saale; near Merzburg.

GOSLIBERG, a mountain of Sura, 10 miles W. of Landsberg.

(1.) GOSFORD, a barony and decayed village of Scotland, in E. Lothian, 5 miles E. of Preston Pans, in Aberlady parish; anciently the property of the Aitchisons of Glencairnly, the ancestors of Lord Viscount Gosford in Ireland.

(2.) GOSFORD, a town of England, in Oxfordshire, SE. of Woodstock.

(3.) GOSFORD CASTLE, an elegant seat of Lord V. Gosford, in Armagh, Ireland, 2 miles from Market-hill.

(4.) GOSFORD, NORTH, } two English villages

(5.) GOSFORD, SOUTH, } in Northumberland, near Newcastle.

(1.) * GOSHAWK. *n. f.* [*gos*, goose, and *hawk*.] A hawk of a large kind.—

Such cruel his awful visage on them cast;

So seem poor doves at *goshawks* flight aghast.

Fairfax.

(2.) GOSHAWK. See FALCO, N° 35.

(1.) GOSHEN, in ancient geography, a district of Egypt, which Joseph procured for his father and brethren. It was the most fruitful part of the country; and its name seems to be derived from the Hebrew, *Goshem*; which signifies "rain;" Calmet thinks that Goshen, which Joshua (x. 41. xi. 16. xv. 11.) makes part of the tribe of Judah, is the same land of Goshen, which was given to Jacob and his sons by Pharaoh. Gen. xlii. 26. It is certain that the country lay between Palestine and the city of Tanais, and that the allotment of the Hebrews reached southward as far as the Nile. Josh. xii. 1.

(2.) GOSHEN, a town of Connecticut in Litchfield county, 7 miles NNW. of Litchfield.

(3.) GOSHEN, a township of Middlesex in Hampshire county, 14 miles N. of Northampton and 112 W. by N. of Boston, containing 681 inhabitants in 1790.

(4.) GOSHEN, a township of New York, in O-

range county, containing 2442 souls in 1790, whom 316 were electors.

(5.) GOSHEN, a town in the above to (N° 4.) containing about 150 inhabitants with an academy, court house and Presbyterian church. It is 18 miles N. of New York, 4 NNE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 52. E. of ty. Lat. 41. 24 N.

(6.) GOSHEN, a township of Pennsylvania in Chester county.

(7.) GOSHEN, a township of Vermont in Windham county, W. of Sandbury.

GOSHGOSHUNK, a Moravian settlement in Pennsylvania, on the Allegheny, 15 miles from Fort Franklin.

GOSILIA, a river of Bosnia, which runs into the Siretza.

GOSLAR. See GOSLAR.

(1.) * GOSLINO. *n. f.* (from *goose*, young goose, a goose not yet full grown do you goosling and wagging so like if you were lipst at? says the goose to the L'Kite.—Nature hath instructed even a *goosling* to stick together, while the kite is flying over their heads. *Swift.* 2. A talking tree and 1 nest.

(2.) GOSLINO, in geography, a town in Austria, 12 miles S. of Slavonian Waidbruck.

GOSNARTH, a town near Preston.

(1.) * GOSPEL. *n. f.* [*godes*, *ipeli*, or good tidings; *euaggelion*; *euangelion* from happy tidings, *euangelion*.] 1. God's word; book of the Christian revelation. —

Thus may the *gospel* to the rising sun
Be spread, and flourish where it first begun.

—All the degrees whereof Scripture tre-
conditionate, receiving Christ as the *gospel*, him, as Lord and Saviour, the former, and the latter, being the condition of scripture and the rejecting, or not receiving him, condition of the scripture reprobation. —

—How is a good Christian animated and by a steadfast belief of the promises of the *Bentley*. 2. Divinity; theology.

(2.) The GOSPEL, comprehends the life, actions, death, resurrection, after doctrine of Jesus Christ, recorded in the 4 St. Matthew, St. Mark, St. Luke, and St. John are thence called EVANGELISTS. The church never acknowledged any more than four gospels as canonical. See BIBLE, §

* To GOSPEL, *v. n.* (from the noun.) with sentiments of religion. This word *gospel*, in whom I alone have found it, though so venerable in itself, with some irony; I suppose from the *gospelists* who been held in contempt.—

Are you to *gospel*?

To pray for this good man, and for
Whose heavy hand hath bow'd you to

* GOSPELLER. *n. f.* (from *gospel*.) of the followers of *Wickliffe*, who first a reformation from poetry, given the *gospelists* in reproach, from their professing and preach only the *gospel*.—

spellers have had their golden days,
 den down our holy Roman faith.

Rowe.

I, a town of Sardinia, 24 miles S. of

PORT, a town of Hampshire, 79
 London. It has a ferry over the
 e harbour to Portsmouth, and, great
 ally in time of war. Travellers pre-
 here, as cheaper and more commodi-
 Portsmouth. The mouth of the har-
 red by 4 forts, and a platform of a-
 mon level with the water. Gosport
 ital for sick and wounded sailors, and
 l.

PORT, a town of New Hampshire, in
 12 miles ESE. of Piscataqua.

GOSSAMER. *n. f.* [*gossipium*, low Lat.]
 of plants; the long white cobwebs
 the air in calm sunny weather, espe-
 the time of Autumn. *Hanmer.*—

may bestride the *gossamour*,
 in the wanton Summer air,
 not fall, so light as vanity. *Shak.*

umble gnats the horses were,
 nasses of *gossamere*. *Drayton.*

ny *gossamer* now flits no more,
 ons bask on the short sunny shore.

Dryden.

SAMER is the name of a fine filmy sub-
 cobwebs, which is seen to float in the
 days in autumn, and is more observe-
 ble fields, and upon turze and other

This is probably formed by the fly-
 which, in traveling the air for food,
 hese threads from its arms which are
 by the dew, &c.

NS, a town of Asia in Thibet, on the
 he Dewah. Lon. 81. 24. E. of Ferro.
 N.

IN, Antony, regius professor of his-
 tetic, in the university of Cam in
 and principal of the college of Du
 uthor of a Latin history of the ancient

INI, Julian, an Italian author, born in
 17, he was made secretary to Ferdi-
 nanda, viceroy of Sicily, and retained
 10 years. He wrote several works in
 erse; and died at Milan, in 1527.

ERES, a town of the French republic,
 of Sambre and Meuse; and late coun-
 r, 5 miles from Charleroi.

P. n. f. [from *god* and *ish*, relation,
 xon.] 1. One who answers for the
 stim.—

a *gossip's* feast and gaude with me, |
 ong and such nativity. *Shak.*

ristening of George duke of Clarence,
 rn in the castle of Dublin, he made
 rl of Kildare and the earl of Ormond
Davies on Ireland. 2. A tippling com-

metimes lurk I in a *gossip's* bowl,
 kenels of a roasted crab,
 n she drinks against her lips I bob.

Shak.

3. One that runs about tattling like women at a
 lying in.—

To do the office of a neighbour,
 And be a *gossip* at his labour. *Hudibras.*

'Tis sung in ev'ry street,

The common chat of *gossips* when they meet.

Dryden.

* *To Gossip. v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To
 chat; to prate; to be merry.—

Go to a *gossip's* feast and gaude with me.

—With all my heart I'll *gossip* at this feast. *Shak.*

His mother was a votress of my order,

And, in the spiced Indian air by night,

Full often hath the *gossipt* by my side. *Shak.*

—The market and exchange must be left to their
 own ways of talking; and *gossipings* not to be rob-
 bed of their ancient privilege. *Locke.*—He gives
 himself up to an idle *gossiping* conversation. *Law.*

2. To be a pot-companion.—

Nor met with fortune, other than at feast,

Full warm of blood, of mirth of *gossiping*. *Shak.*

* **GOSSIPRED. n. f.** [*gossipry*, from *gossip*.]

—*Gossipred* or compaternity, by the canon law, is a
 spiritual affinity; and the juror, that was gossip to
 either of the parties, might, in former times, have
 been challenged as one not indifferent. *Davies.*

GOSSLAR, a large and ancient town of Low-
 er Saxony, in the territory of Brunswick. It is a
 free imperial city, and it was here that gun pow-
 der was first invented. It is a large place, but
 the buildings are in the ancient taste. In 1728,
 St Stephen's fine church and 280 houses were
 burnt. It is seated on a mountain, near the
 Gose and near it are rich mines of iron. The in-
 habitants are famous for brewing excellent beer.
 Lon. 5. 37. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

GOSSNITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in Al-
 tenburg, 3 miles E. of Schmollen.

GOSSWEINSTEIN, or **GOSSMANSTEIN**, a
 town of Franconia, in Bamberg, 20 miles ESE. of
 Bamberg, and 23 NNE. of Nuremberg.

(**I.**) **GOSSYPIUM**, **COTTON**, a genus of the
 polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphia
 clats of plants; and in the natural method rank-
 ing under the 37th order, *Commiferae*. The ca-
 lyx is double, the exterior one trid; the capsule
 quadrilocular; the seeds wrapt in cotton wool.
 There are 4 species, all natives of warm climates.

1. **GOSSYPIUM ARBOREUM**, the *tree cotton*, has
 an upright woody perennial stalk, branching 6 or
 8 feet high; palmated, four or five-lobed smooth
 leaves; and yellow flowers, succeeded by large
 pods filled with seeds and cotton

2. **GOSSYPIUM BARBADENSE**, the *Barbadoes*
shrubby cotton, has a shrubby stalk branching 4 or
 5 feet high, three-lobed smooth leaves, glandu-
 lous underneath; and yellow flowers succeeded
 by oval pods, containing seeds and cotton.

3. **GOSSYPIUM HERBACEUM** the common her-
 baceous cotton, has an herbaceous smooth stalk
 two feet high, branching upwards; five-lobed
 smooth leaves; and yellow flowers from the ends
 of the branches, succeeded by roundish capsules
 full of seeds and cotton.

4. **GOSSYPIUM HIRSUTUM**, the *hairy Ame-*
rican cotton, has hairy stalks branching lateral-
 ly 2 or 3 feet high; palmated, three and five lo-
 bed

bed hairy leaves; and yellow flowers, succeeded by large oval pods furnished with seeds and cotton.

(II.) *Gossypium*, CULTURE OF THE. The three last species are annual, but the first is perennial both in root and stalk. In warm countries these plants are cultivated in great quantities in fields for the sake of the cotton; but the *HERBACEUM* species (N^o 3.) is most generally cultivated. The pods are sometimes as large as middling-sized apples, closely filled with the cotton surrounding the seed. When these plants are raised in this country, they must be continually kept in a warm stove, where they will produce seeds and cotton. They are propagated by seeds. See COTTON, N^o 1, § i—vii. The American Islands produce cotton shrubs of various sizes, which rise and grow up without any culture; especially in low and marshy grounds. Their produce is of a pale red; some paler than others; but so short that it cannot be spun. None of this is brought to Europe, though it might be usefully employed in making hats. The little that is picked up, serves to make matrassea and pillows. The cotton shrubs, that supply our manufactures, require a dry and stony soil, and thrive best in grounds that have been tilled. The plant appears more flourishing in fresh lands than in those which are exhausted; but while it produces more wood, it bears less fruit. A western exposure is fittest for it. The culture begins in March and April, and continues during the first spring rains. Holes are made at 7 or 8 feet distance, and a few seeds thrown in. When they are 5 or 6 inches high, all the stems are pulled up, except 2 or 3 of the strongest. These are cropped twice before the end of August. This precaution is necessary, as the wood bears no fruit till after the second pruning; and, if the shrub was suffered to grow more than 4 feet high, the crop would not be greater, nor the fruit so easily gathered. The same method is pursued for 3 years; for so long the shrub may continue, if it cannot conveniently be renewed oftener with the prospect of an advantage that will compensate the trouble. This useful plant will not thrive if great attention is not paid to pluck up the weeds that grow about it. Frequent rains promote its growth; but they must not be incessant. Dry weather is particularly necessary in March and April, which is the time of gathering the cotton, to prevent it from being discoloured and spotted. When gathered in, the seeds must be picked out from the wool with which they are naturally mixed. This is done by a cotton mill; composed of two rods of hard wood, about 18 feet long, 18 lines in circumference, and fluted two lines deep. They are confined at both ends, so as to leave no more distance between them than is necessary for the seed to slip through. At one end is a little millstone, which, being put in motion by the foot, turns the rods in contrary directions. They separate the cotton, and throw out the seed contained in it. See COTTON, N^o 1, § vii, 2.

GOSTADT, JOSTADT, or JOSEPHSTADT, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgebürg, 8 miles S. of Wolkenstein.

GOSTAVIN. See GOSTYNN.

GOSTENHOF, a town of Germany, near Nuremberg.

(1.) * GOSTING. *n. s.* [*rubia*].
(2.) GOSTING, in botany. See R.
(3.) GOSTING, in geography, a town, 2 miles ENE. of Zisterdorf.

GOSTITZ, a town of Silesia, in GOSTYNN, or GUSTAVIN, a land, in the palatinate of Rawa, 36 Rawa. Demetrius Czar of Muscovy in its citadel till his death.

GOSZITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, 3 miles W. of Ziegenbrück.

(1.) * GOT. *pres.* [from the verb *Latus* writes, they fought together as *got* off. *Shak*—

If you have strength Achilles' and
Though foul Therites *got* thee, &
Lov'd and esteem'd.

These regions and this realm were
This mournful empire is the *later*
—When they began to reason about
how the sea *got* thither, and away
there they were presently in the day

(2.) * GOT. *part. pass.* of *get*.—Recommended them for their valour in the
a plot so well by them laid, more the
victory of others *got* by good fortune
ed upon any good reason. *Knolles*.—
suation in reasoning, when the first
mission to your will is *got*, will *be*
Locke.—He behaves himself so *why*
on us for his daily bread. can any
he will do when he is *got* above the
but not.—

Thou wert from Ætna's burning
Got by fierce whirlwinds, and in t

(1.) GOTHA, a city of Germany, Upper Saxony, and capital of the duchy of GOTHA. This town had its name from who fortified it in their march to it only a village till surrounded with a shop of Mentz in 964. It is situated on the Leina, well built and strong. It has 2 handsome churches and a hospital. Its chief trade is in dyer's work. They have 3 crops, but the 3d grow castle or ducal palace was rebuilt in 1574 by duke Ernest the Pious, who that and the town to be encompassed and ramparts; and gave it the name *Hein*, or the *Castle of Peace*, in opposition to the ancient name of *Grimmerstein*, or the *Furies*. It is situated on a neighbour from whence there is a vast prospect plain. In one of the apartments the collection of valuable rarities, and a noble library. It is 18 miles W. of Erfurt. Lon. 10. 30. N.

(2.) GOTHA, or SAXE-GOTHA, Germany in Upper Saxony. See S.

(3.) GOTHA, a river of Sweden, land, which rises from lake Wenne to the North sea at Gottenburg.

GOTHARD, ST, one of the highest mountains of Switzerland. From the top, the

or travellers, and a monastery for one of the most pleasing prospects. It is 8 miles from Altorf, and is the canton of Uri, on the confines of the Grisons, and Italy. Its ancient name, according to Ptolemy and Strabo, was *Adula*, N° 1.) Hence the modern name, Despreause, styles it *Monte Adule*. The Rufs, the Rhone, the Aar, the and some inferior rivers rise in it. According to M. Micheli, its highest point is 2,730 above the level of the sea, though others say 2000. Considered in its utmost extent, besides St Gothard proper, the mountains of Crispian, Fourche, and Vogelsberg. Its top is covered with snow and ice. It has some mines of fine iron. This tremendous mountain was passed on the 26th May 1800, by a division of the army under general Moncey, consisting of 1000 men; who, pushing their advanced guard, drove the Austrians under general Kray to Lake Maggiore.

GOTTENBURG. See **GOTTENBURG**.

ELBA, a river of Sweden, which runs into the Baltic at Gottenburg.

IC, *adj.* relating to the Goths. See **IC**, *Index*.

THLAND, the most southern province of Sweden, being a peninsula, encompassed on three sides by the Baltic Sea, or the channel at the entrance. It was long in the possession of the Danes, but was ceded to Sweden in 1658. It contains 48 towns, and is divided into 10 parishes.

HLAND, EAST, or **OSTROGOTHIA**, a province of Sweden, bounded on the E. by the Gulf of Bothnia, S. by Smaland, W. by the Wetter lake, which divides it from W. Gothland, and on the N. by the Baltic Sea and Sundermanland. It is about 100 miles long and 70 broad, and was formerly governed by its own monarchs. See **GOTHS**. It produces wheat, grain, fruits, wood, minerals, and iron. Its chief towns are Nordkioping, Soderkioping, and Wadstena.

HLAND, SOUTH, a country of Sweden, divided into 3 provinces, viz. Schonen, Blekingen; which have undergone various vicissitudes; being sometimes subject to the Danes, and at other times recovered by the Swedes; till at last they were finally annexed to Sweden by Charles X, at the treaty of Brinnar in 1658.

HLAND, WEST, or **WESTROGOTHIA**, a province of Sweden, bounded on the E. by the Gulf of Bothnia, S. by Smaland; W. by the Scagerrack; and N. by the Baltic Sea. It is about 115 miles long and 15 broad. It was anciently governed by its own monarchs, and is fertile in corn and fruits, and has extensive fisheries. The rivers, lakes, and sea coast are full of fish. Iron, alum, &c. are manufactured by the natives. The chief towns are Gotland, Wenneburg, Lidkioping, and Falkenberg.

OTHLAND, or **GOTTLAND**, an island of Sweden, in the Baltic, 70 miles long, and not above 25 broad. It was formerly an inde-

pendent kingdom. From its situation it has been called *The Eye of the Baltic*. The soil is fertile, and the hills abound with pastures, wood, and stone quarries. Corals, cornelians, agates, and beautiful petrifications are also found in it. In 1361, this island was ravaged by Valdemar III. king of Denmark. In 1403, Albert surrendered it to queen Margaret. King Eric, her successor, lived 3 years in it after his deposition, but in 1449 gave it up to Christian I. It was restored to Sweden, in 1645, by treaty. Wisby is the capital. Lon. from 18. 6. to 19. 6. E. Lat. from 56. 54. to 57. 56. N.

(1.) **GOTHOFRED**, or **GODFREY**, Dionysius or Denis, an eminent lawyer, born of an illustrious family at Paris, in 1549. France being involved in confusion by the leaguers, he accepted of a professor's chair at Geneva, until he was employed by Henry IV.; but being afterwards stripped of his employments as a Huguenot, he retired to Heidelberg, from whence no offers could detach him. The disturbances in the Palatinate obliged him, in 1621, to take refuge in Strasburg, where he died in 1622. He wrote a great number of books; his principal work is the *Corpus Juris Civilis, cum notis*.

(2.) **GOTHOFRED**, Theodore or Theodosius, son of Denis, (N° 1.) was born at Geneva in 1580. As soon as he had finished his studies, he went to Paris; where he conformed to the Romish religion, and applied with indefatigable industry to the study of history, that of France particularly, wherein he became very eminent. In 1632, Lewis XIII. made him one of his historiographers, with a stipend of 3000 livres; and, in 1636, he was sent to Cologne, to assist at the treaty of peace negotiating there, on the part of France, by the cardinal of Lyons. This treaty being removed to Munster, Gothofred was sent thither, where he drew up Memoirs on the subject; and continued in that city, in the king's service, to his death in 1649. His principal work is his *Account of the Ceremonial of the Kings of France*.

(3.) **GOTHOFRED**, James, brother of Theodore, was born at Geneva in 1587. Applying himself to the study of the law, he obtained the professor's chair there, was made counsellor of the city, and was several times employed in France, Germany, Piedmont, and Switzerland, to negotiate their affairs in the name of the republic. He died in 1662; and his chief work is his *Codex Theodosianus, cum perpetuis commentariis, &c.*

(4.) **GOTHOFRED**, Denis, son of Theodore, (N° 2.) was born at Paris in 1615. He studied history after his father's example; became an eminent man in that department of knowledge; and obtained the reversion of his father's place of historiographer royal, from Lewis XIII. when he was but 25 years of age. He published his father's *Ceremonial of France*; finished his *Memoirs of Philip de Commines*; and was preparing a *History of Charles VIII.* when he died in 1681.

(5.) **GOTHOFRED**, John, son of Denis, (N° 4.) succeeded his father in his office and wrote also on history and antiquities. He completed and published his father's *History of Charles VIII.*; and wrote a *Journal de Henry III.*; *Memoirs de la reine Marguerite*, &c. He died in 1732.

GOTHS,

GOTHS, a warlike nation, famous in the Roman history, who came originally out of SCANDINAVIA, the name given by the ancients to Sweden, Norway, Lapland and Finmark. According to the most probable accounts, they were the first inhabitants of those countries; and from thence sent colonies into the islands of the Baltic, the Cimbric Chersonesus, and the adjacent places. The time of their first settling in Scandinavia, and of their first peopling the abovementioned islands and Chersonesus, are equally uncertain; though the Gothic annals state the latter to have happened in the time of Serug the great grandfather of Abraham. This first migration of the Goths is said to have been conducted by their king Eric; in which all the ancient Gothic chronicles, as well as the Danish and Swedish ones agree. Their 2d migration is said to have happened many ages after; when, being overstocked with people, Berig, then king of the Goths, went out with a fleet in quest of new settlements. He landed in the country of the Uimerugians, now Pomerania, drove out the ancient inhabitants, and divided their lands among his followers. He fell next upon the Vandals, whose country bordered on that of the Uimerugians, and overcame them; but instead of forcing them to abandon the country, he only made them share their possessions with the Goths. The Goths, who settled in Pomerania and the adjacent parts of Germany, being greatly increased, they undertook a 3d migration in great numbers under Filimer the Great, their 5th prince after leaving Scandinavia; and taking their route eastward, entered Scythia, advanced to the Cimmeric Bosphorus, and driving out the Cimmerians, settled near the Palus Mæotis. Thence in process of time, being greatly increased in Scythia, they resolved to seek new settlements; and accordingly taking their route eastward, they traversed several countries, and at length returned into Germany. Their leader in this expedition was the celebrated Woden. See ODIN and WODEN. At what time Woden reigned in this country, is quite uncertain; but all historians agree, that he went in quest of new settlements with incredible numbers of people following him. He first entered Rossia, comprehending the countries of Prussia, Livonia, and great part of Muscovy: Thence he went by sea into the N. parts of Germany; and having reduced Saxony and Jutland, he at last settled in Sweden, where he reigned till his death, and became so famous that his name reached all countries, and he was by the northern nations worshipped as a god. He is said to have brought the Runic characters out of Asia, and to have taught the northern nations the art of poetry; whence he is styled the father of the Scaldi or Scalds, their poets, who described in verse the exploits of the great men of their nation, as the bards did among the Gauls and Britons. The Romans distinguished the Goths into two classes; the OSTROGOTHS and VISIGOTHS. Their names they received before they left Scandinavia, the *visigotls* being so called by the Latins from *Weser-gotls*, or those who inhabit the western part of Scandinavia, as the Ostrogoths were those who inhabited the eastern part of that country. Their history affords no hint of importance till

the time of their quarrelling with the Romans, which happened in the reign of Caracalla; that period, it becomes so closely interwoven with that of the Romans, that for the most particulars of it we must refer to the article After the destruction of the Roman Empire, the Heruli, the Ostrogoths, under Theodoric, came masters of the greatest part of Italy, overcame and put to death Odoacer the Heruli in 494. They retained their dominion in this country till A. D. 553; when they were conquered by Narfes, Justinian's general, &c. The Visigoths settled in Spain in the reign of Honorius, where they founded a kingdom, which continued till the country was subdued by the Moors. See SPAIN. The Goths were famous for their hospitality and kindness to strangers, even before they embraced Christianity. It is said, that from them being eminently hospitable, they were called *Goths*, by the neighbouring nations; that name, according to Grimm and other writers, being derived from the German *guten*, which signifies good. They encountered Dio, the study of philosophy above all other sciences or foreign nations, and often derived from among their philosophers. Paganism only allowed but countenanced among them; every one being valued or respected according to the number of his wives. By so many wives he had an incredible number of children; they kept but one at home, sending out the rest in quest of new settlements; and thus swarms of people which over-ran the countries. With them adultery was a capital and irreversibly punished with death. It prevailed among them when they were conquered by the Romans only by the name of Germani (most ancient name); as appears from Menander, who was himself of that nation. From Horace, who greatly commends them for the modesty of their women. Their laws fell little short of those of the ancient Romans. Their government was monarchical; their religion was the same with that of the ancient Germans; and their dress is described by Apollonius in the following words: "They are (he) with high shoes made of hair, and reaching to their ankles; their knees, thighs, and without any covering; their garments of various colours scarce reaching to the knee; the only cover the top of their arms; they wear cassocks with a red border; their belts their shoulder; their ears are covered with locks; they use hooked lances and iron pikes."

GOTTELSBRUNN, a town of Germany, in the N. of Brunswick.

* **GOTTEN**, *part. pass. get.*—Widder be gotten for good. Job xxviii. 15.—Few when they are gotten into an office, are thoughtful to the execution of it. *Temple.*

GOTTENBURG, or **GOTHENBORG**, a strong town of Sweden, in W. C. with a good harbour, at the mouth of the Göta; which is the best situated for commerce of any in Sweden, as it lies without the city. It occupies the site of an ancient town *Ladby*, which was built by Gustavus V

lowed with considerable privileges, soon he great emporium for the trade of the provinces. Charles IX, when duke of S., having in 1604 laid the foundations of town in the island of Hisingen at no great from Lodeſe, called it *Gottheborg*, (now g.) in honour of his duchy. Upon his

to the throne, he erected in his new trading company; drew thither many, particularly the Dutch, to whom he an exemption from all duties of export port during 30 years; a corps of English ch troops, under the command of Wil- wart; and granted to the Calvinists esta- herein the free exercise of their religion, place in Sweden where this toleration was

l. The town, being in 1611 reduced by the Danes, was rebuilt in the reign us Adolphus in its present situation, and a confirmation of its ancient rights, with t of several additional privileges. It is very singular situation. At a small dis-

m the sea is a marthy plain, scarcely more a mile broad, watered by the Gotha and and almost entirely inclosed with high rocks, so bare and rugged, that they produce a single blade of grass, and ex- barren an appearance as the summits of

st Alps. Gottenburg stands partly upon t, and partly in the plain; and is divid- these different situations, into the Upper er Town. The latter is entirely level, d by several canals in the manner of the

owns; and its houses are all constructed s: the upper part hangs on the declivi- rows of buildings rise above each other cats of an amphitheatre. The whole is fortified; and its circumference is near exclusive of the suburbs, called HAGA,

: towards the harbour. The streets are mly straight: a few of the houses are of ut most of them are constructed with nted red. The harbour is formed by two rocks, and is about a quarter of a mile h. Its entrance is defended by the fort

Elsborg, which stands upon a small nd, and contains a garrison of 252 men. rg has a Royal Society of Sciences and s, upon the plan of that of Upsal.—Mr informed by a merchant who had re- years at Gottenbnry, that, during that

s population had increased considerably, it now contained about 30,000 inhabi- his flourishing state is attributed to the of its commerce, particularly its East mpany, and the success of the herring

A British consul and several British mer- ide at Gottenburg: and a chapel, with a aplin, is appropriated to their use. Lon. Lat. 57. 44. N.

ERN, a town of Upper Saxony, in t, 4 miles NW. of Langen Salza.

ESBERG, a town of Silesia, in Schweid- iles SSW. of Freyburg, and 12 SW. of itz.

OTTINGEN, a considerable town of ony in the duchy of Brunswick; formerly nperial, but now subject to the elector of

Hanover. Here king George II. founded an uni- versity. It is seated on the Leine, in Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 51. 32. N.

(2) GOTTINGEN, a town of Sweden, with a good harbour, on the borders of W. Gothland, near the mouth of the Moludal. It has a citadel, towards the land and sea. Being built of wood, it has often suffered by fire. It is a bishop's see and contains 13,000 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade by sea. It lies 28 miles SW. of Stockholm, and 164 N. of Copenhagen. Lon.

11. 34 E. Lat. 58. 29. N.

GOTTLEBER, John Christopher, a learned critic, born in 1733. His chief work is *Animad- versions* on different portions of Plato. He died in 1785.

GOTTLEUVE, a town of Upper Saxony, in Meissen, 6 miles SW. of Konigstein, and 8 S. of Pirna.

GOTTLIEBEN, a town of the Helvetic repub- lic, near the lake of Constance, where John Huss was confined in 1415; 3 miles from Constance.

GOTTLSTORF, a town of Germany in Auf- tria, 5 miles SE. of Altenmarkt.

(1.) COTTOLENGO, a district of the Cisal- pine republic, in the dep. of Mela, containing 1 town, several villages and harbours, and 2500 citizens, in 1797.

(2.) COTTOLENGO, the capital of the above district.

GOTTON, 2 small towns of England; 1. in the Isle of Wight: 2. near Taunton, Somersetsh.

* GOTTORP, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswic, capital of Holstein Gottorp, where the duke has a very fine palace. Lon. 9. 56. E. Lat. 54. 36. N.

GOTTSBERG. See GOTTESBERG.

GOTTSCHED, a German poet, born at Kon- ingsberg, who by his works contributed to spread a taste for literature in Germany. His dramatic pro- ductions, wherein his wife assisted him and shared his fame, banished from the German theatre those buffooneries, which formerly disgraced it. He died at Leipzig in 1766, 4 years after his wife.

GOTTSCHKE, a town of Germany in Car- niola, 23 miles SSE. of Laybach, and 160 SSW. of Vienna.

GOTTZENDORF, a town of Germany, in Austria, 5 miles S. of Aigen.

GOTZEL, or GOTSEL, a town of Lower Bavaria, 36 miles E. of Ratisbon.

(1.) GOVAN, a parish of Scotland chiefly in Lanarkshire, with a small part in Renfrewshire; 5 miles long, from E. to W. and between 3 and 4 broad. The Clyde runs through its whole length, and often overflows its banks, which abound with free-stone. Agriculture is in a state of high im-

provement, though the soil is not naturally fertile; being originally clay, till, barren sand, and heath; besides about 100 acres of moor. The usual crops are wheat, oats, barley, beans, pease, potatoes, and grass. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. J. Pollock, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2518. The parish of GORBALS having been

joined with this in 1755, when Dr Webster made up his lists of the population of Scotland, Mr Pollock states the total number of souls in both parishes at 8318, and the increase of both at 3,929.

The horses are mostly above the common size. There is one sheep farm, of 198 acres; 4 bleach-fields; 1 printing field, 8 mill, 3 for corn, 1 for fluff, 1 for paper, and 3 for other manufactures. On the N. boundary of this parish, the counties of Dunbarton, Lanark and Renfrew, the parishes of New Kirkpatrick and Renfrew, and the properties of 3 heritors, all meet in one point.

(2.) **GOVAN**, a village in the above parish, (N^o 1) about one mile long, containing 224 families, in 1792.

GOVANDORE, a bay on the coast of Chili.

GOUANIA, in botany; a genus of the monocotyledon order, belonging to the polyanthus class of plants. The calyx of the hermaphrodite is quinquefid; there is no corolla; there are 5 antheræ covered with an elastic calyptra or hood; the style trifid; the fruit, inferior to the receptacle of the flower, divisible into three seeds. The male is like the hermaphrodite, but wanting stigma and germen.

GOVARDO. See **GAVARDO**, N^o 1 and 2.

GOUD *n. f.* Wool; a plant. *Dist.*

GOUDA, or **TURKOW**, a considerable town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Delft, and late prov. of S. Holland, remarkable for its stately church. It is seated on the river Yssel, 9 miles NE. of Rotterdam, and 21 S. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 37. E. Lat. 52. 2. N.

GOUDELIN, or **GOUDOUILL**, Peter, a Gascon poet, born at Toulouse, in the 17th century, and reckoned the Homer of Gaskoy. His verses have much sprightliness, with a delicate simplicity, which to those who relish the Gascon language is enchanting. He died in 1629.

GOUDHURST, a town of Kent, 12 miles SW. of Maidstone, and 44 SE. of London. Lon. 0. 31. E. Lat. 51. 8. N.

GOUDIMEL, Claudius, a musician of the 16th century, who was put to death by the bigotted catholics at Lyons, for setting the psalms of Marot and Bezant to music.

GOUDOZ, a town of Turkey in Natolia, 72 miles ENE. of Kantaja.

GOUDT, Henry, usually called *Count Goudt*, was born of a noble family at Utrecht, in 1570; and was a knight of the Palatinate. Being fond of painting and engraving, he applied himself diligently to drawing, and made a great proficiency therein. He then went to Rome, where he contracted an intimacy with Adam Elsheimer; studied his manner, and made his works models for imitation. Those pictures which Goudt himself painted were delicately touched, in colour and pencil resembling Elsheimer. On his return to Utrecht, a young woman who was in love with him, and desirous of fixing his affections upon herself, gave him in his drink a love philtre, which terminated in a very melancholy manner, by depriving him of his senses; and in this dreadful state he dragged on a miserable life to the age of 69, his death happening in 1619. It is remarkable, that though lost to every other subject when painting was spoken of he would discourse upon it in a very rational manner. He engraved 7 beautiful prints after the pictures of Elsheimer, which are well known to the curious, and are to be met with in most choice collections. He work-

ed with the graver only, in a very neat manner, produced a most powerful effect, not by engraving the strokes, according to the usual manner, but by crossing them with additional equally neat, 4 or 6 lines, one over another, in the deep shadows. The weeds and other the fore ground in his admirable prints are very lively expressed. The 7 prints engraved above, are, 1. *Ceres drinking from a cup.*

An old woman appears holding a key at the door of the cottage, and a boy making a sign by her laughing and pointing at the sky, for which contempt he was metamorphosed into a frog. The powerful and striking of this engraving cannot be properly expressed. This print is also called the *Flight into Egypt*; a night scene, in which the moon and stars are introduced with great effect. 3. The angel with Tobias, who is drawn by his side. The background is a landscape with the words in the fore ground, and the tops of the trees in front, as well as the flowers hanging from them, are beautifully engraved. 4. The angel with Tobias, carrying a fish of water. The background, a landscape with Baucis and Philemon entertaining Jupiter and Mercury. 6. A landscape, called the *repentance of the dawn of day*. The engraving is beautiful. 7. The beheading of St. John the Baptist. A very small upright oval print, which is the rarest.

GOVE *n. f.* A mow. *Tuffer.*

To GOVE *v. n.* To mow; to put in a mow, or mow. An old word.

Load safe, carry home, follow time! Gove just in the barn, it is out of despair.

(1.) **GOVEA**, Anthony, a Latin poet of the 16th century; author of Latin plays which have been admired. His editions of Terence display great judgment and accuracy. He died in 1613.

(2.) **GOVEA**, Martial and Andrew, thren of Anthony, were also men of letters. The former was a grammarian and poet; the latter a college at Coimbra. He died in 1613.

(3.) **To GOVERN** *v. a.* [*gubernare*, Latin] 1. To rule as a chief; to manage. — This inconvenience is more hard to bear in the governor than the governed; as in a vital part is more incurable than in a limb. *Spenser on Ireland.*

Slaves to our passions we become, It grows impossible to govern men. 2. To regulate; to influence; to direct at present against war, though it puts it into my hands, and though such turbulent spirits as you are, govern all tunes of peace. *Darwin.* — The chief business is to carry always in his eye, and by it to govern all his counsels, designs, &c. *Atterbury.* 3. To manage; to restrain.

Go after her, she's desp'rate; go after her. 4. [In grammar.] To have force with syntax; as, *amo governs* the accusative. Listen, children, unto me, And let this your lesson be,

language evermore

that *govern* go before. *Mauger's Gram.*
lot ; to regulate the motions of a ship.

To GOVERN. v. n. To keep superiority
have with haughtiness.—

By that rule,
r wicked atoms may be working now
e bad counsel, that you still may *govern*.

Dryden.

GOVERNABLE. *adj.* [from *govern*.] Sub-
junct authority ; subject to rule ; manageable.
-xiom of the former part of a man's
yet grown up to be headstrong, makes
governable and safe. *Locke.*

GOVERNANCE. *n. f.* [from *govern*.] 1. Go-
; rule ; management.—Jonathan took
ance upon him at that time, and rose up
if his brother Judas. 1 *Mac.* ix. 31. 2.
; as that of a guardian.—

he knew not, neither his own ill,
rough wife handling, and fair *governance*,
recurred to a better will. *Spenser.*

it ! shall king Henry be a pupil still,
the surly Gloster's *governance* ? *Shak.*
our ; manners. Obsolete.—

ikest is to fall into misfortune
s regardless of his *governance*. *Spens.*

GOVERNANT. *n. f.* [*gouvernante*, *Frén.*]
ho has the care of young girls of quality.
e usual and proper word is *governess*.

GOVERNESS. *n. f.* [*gouvern-ress*, old *Fr.*
e.] 1. A female invested with authority.

The moon, the *governess* of floods,
her anger, washes all the air,
heumatick diseases do abound. *Shak.*

orefs ; A woman that has the care of
lies.—He presented himself unto her, fall-
n upon both his knees, and holding up
s, as the old *governess* of Danae is paint-
the suddenly saw the golden shower.

is three younger children were taken from
ne's in whose hands he put them. *Clarend.*

orefs ; an instructress ; a directress.—
fiction that severe *governess* of the life of
igs upon those souls she seizes on. *Mor-*

theism.

GOVERNMENT. *n. f.* [*gouvernement*,
1. Form of a community with respect
isposition of the supreme authority.—

em to be but two general kinds of *govern-*
he world : the one exercised according
bitrary commands and will of some single
and the other according to certain orders
ntroduced by agreement or custom, and
e changed without the consent of many.

-No *government* can do any act to
lf : the supreme legislative power can-
e itself not to be absolute. *Leffey.* 2.

ished state of legal authority.—

'There they shall found
government, and their great senate chuse

gh the twelve tribes, to rule by laws or-
in'd. *Milton.*

le he survives, in concord and content
mons live, by no division rent ;

e great monarch's death dissolves the
government. *Dryden.*

one knows, who has considered the na-

ture of *government* ; that there must be in each
particular form of it an absolute unlimited power.

Addition.—Where any one person or body of men
seize into their hands the power in the last resort,
there is properly no longer a *government*, but
what Aristotle and his followers call the abuse or
corruption of one. *Swift.* 3. Administration of
publick affairs.

Safety and equal *government* are things
Which subjects make as happy as their kings.

Waller.

Those *governments*, which curb not evils,
cause ;

And a rich knave's a libel on our laws. *Young.*

4. Regularity of behaviour. Not in use.—

You needs must learn, lord, to amend this
fault ;

Though sometimes it shews greatness, courage,
blood,

Yet oftentimes it doth present harsh rage,

Defect of manners, want of *government*,

Pride, haughtiness, opinion, and disdain.

Shak. Hen. IV.

'Tis *government* that makes them seem divine ;
The want thereof makes thee abominable.

Shak. Hen. VI.

5. Manageableness ; compliance ; obsequiousness.

Thy eyes windows fall,

Like death, when he shuts up the day of life ;

Each part-depriv'd of supple *government*,

Shall stiff and stark, and cold appear, like death.

Shak.

6. Management of the limbs or body. Obsolete.

Their god

Shot many a dart at me with fierce intent ;

But I them warded all with wary *government*.

Spenser.

7. [In grammar.] Influence with regard to con-
struction.

(2.) **GOVERNMENT** is also used for a post or
office, which gives a person the power or right
to rule over a city, or a province, either supreme-
ly or by deputation.

(3.) **GOVERNMENT** is likewise used for the city,
country, or place, to which the power of govern-
ing is extended.

(4.) **GOVERNMENT, CIVIL**, was instituted for
the preservation and advancement of mens civil
interests, and for the better security of their lives,
liberties, and properties. The use and necessity
of government is such, that there never was an
age or country without some sort of civil authori-
ty ; but as men are seldom unanimous in the means
of attaining their ends, so their differences in
opinion as to government has produced various
forms of it. According to Montesquieu, and most
other writers, they may in general be reduced to
three kinds. 1. The republican. 2. The mo-
narchical. 3. The despotic.—The first is that, in
which the people in a body, or only a part of the
people, have the sovereign power ; the 2d, where
one alone governs, but by fixed established laws ;
but, 3d. in the despotic government, one person
alone, without law and without rule, directs eve-
ry thing by his own will and caprice. See *Law*.

On the subject of government at large, see Mon-
tesquieu's *Spirit of Laws*, l. 2. c. 1. ; Locke, ii.
129, &c. 4to edit. 1768 ; Sidney on Government ;

Sir Thomas Smith, *de Repub. Angl. and Acherly's* Britannie Constitution. As to the Gothic government, its original and fruits, &c. see Montefquieu's *l'Esprit des Loix*, l. 12. c. 2.—With respect to the feudal policy, how it limited government, see FEUDAL SYSTEM, § 5. 7.

GOVERNOLLO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Mincio, and ci devant duchy of Mantua, anciently called *Ambuletum*. On the 24th Aug. 1796, the French, under Bonaparte, defeated the Austrians under general Wurmser, near this town, and took 1100 prisoners according to some accounts; but the rev. Mr Cruttwell states the battle to have happened in the beginning of September, and the loss of the Austrians at no less than "10,000 prisoners." (*New Univ. Gaz. Suppl.*) In April 1799, it was taken by the Austrians; but recovered with the rest of the Cisalpine republic, after the battle of Marengo in 1800. Governolo is seated at the junction of the Mincio and the Po, 12 miles SE. of Mantua, Lon. 1. 56. E. Lat. 45. 4. N.

GOVERNOUR. *n. f.* [*gouverneur*, French.] 1. One who has the supreme direction.—It must be confessed, that of Christ, working as a *ciad* or and a *governour* of the world by providence, ille partakers. Hooker.—They beget in us a great idea and veneration of the mighty author and *governour* of such stupendous bodies, and excite and elevate our minds to his adoration and praise. *Beatl.* 2. One who is invested with supreme authority in a state.—For the kingdom is the Lord's, and he is the *governour* among the nations. *Ez.* xxii. 28.—The magistrate cannot urge obedience upon such potent grounds as the minister; if is disposed, can urge disobedience; as, for instance, if my *governour* should command me to do a thing, or I must give, or forfeit my estate; and the minister steps in and tells me, that I offend God, and run my soul, if I obey that command, 'tis easy to see a greater force in this persuasion. *South.* 3. One who rules any place with delegated and temporary authority.—

To you, lord *governour*,
Remains the centure of this hellish villain.

Shak. Othello.

4. A tutor; one who has care of a young man.—

To Eltham will I, where the young king is,
Being ordain'd his special *governour*;

And for his safety there I'll best devise. *Hen. VI.*
—The great work of a *governour* is to fashion the carriage, and form the mind; to settle in his pupil good habits, and the principles of virtue and wisdom. *Locke.*—During the minority of kings, the election of bishops, and other affairs of the church, must be left in the hands of their *governours* and courtiers. *Lesep.* 5. Pilot; regulator; manager.—Behold all the ships, which though they be so great, and are driven of fierce winds, yet they are turned about with a very small helm, whithersoever the *governour* blesch. *Ju. iii.* 4.

GOUEZEC, a town of France, in the dept. of Finisterre, 4½ miles SE. of Chateaulin, and 10½ N. E. of Quimper.

GOUGANE BAGO, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Cork, 10 miles N. of Bantry.

(1.) * GOUGE. *n. f.* [French.] A chisel having

a round edge, for the cutting of such wood to be rounded or hollowed. *Moxon.*

(2.) A GOUGE is a round hollow chisel, to cut holes, channels, grooves, &c. in stone, &c.

(3.) GOUGE, Thomas, a dissenting clergyman of the 17th century, minister of St Sep London. He was a man of uncommon piety, a great promoter of useful knowledge. He had above 300 schools in Wales. He died in 1687, and though he was a nonconformist, Abboton preached his funeral sermon.

(4.) GOUGE, William, the father of T (Nº 1.) was born at Stratford le Bow, but the established church. His works make 2 folio. It is remarked of him, that he was absent from morning and evening prayer years, and that he read 15 chapters in every day. He died in 1651.

* GOUJERES. *n. f.* [from *gouze*, Fr camp trull.] The French disease. *Laumon.*

GOUJET, Claude Peter, a French author, compiler, born at Paris, in 1797. He published 1. A supplement to Moreau's Dictionary; 2. A supplement to Dupin's Bibliotheque of Historical Writers; 3. An abridgement of the Dictionary; 4. Bibliotheque Françoise, & died in 1767. He had collected a library of 5 volumes.

GOJIM, a town of Portugal, in the district of Beira.

GOVINDPOUR. See CALCUTTA, §

GOULART, Simon, a famous minister, born at Senlis in 1543, and one of the indefatigable writers of his time. He made considerable additions to the Catalogue of the truth composed by Illyricus; and has a great reputation by his works; the principal which are, 1. A translation of Seneca's selection of memorable histories. 2. A translation of St Cyprian *De lapsis*. 3. Several devotional treatises. He died at Geneva in 1611.

GOULDSBOROUGH, a town of the States, in the district of Maine and 1 county, with a good harbour, 330 mi Boston. Lon 67. 45 W. Lat. 44. 25. N.

GOULDSMITH, Francis, an English who flourished in the reign of Charles I. In other works, he translated *Sophompaneas* play of Grotius into English verse.

GOULVIN, a town of France, in the Finisterre, 4 miles N. of Lesbovin, and 1 St Pol.

GOUNONG API. See GONAPI.

GOUNVILLE, John Heralid, a French author, born in 1625, originally only a val D. of Roucheffoucault, who advanced to several high offices. He wrote *Memoirs*, or important anecdotes of the French minister Mazarine to Colbert. He died in 1707.

GOVON, a town of the Piedmontese in the dept. of the Sesia, 6 miles N. of A

GOURA, or GURA, a town of Poland, on the Vistula, 12 miles from Warsaw.

GOVRA, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak, 35 miles E. of Isfahan.

GOUKAINCOURT, a town of France

Meuse, 8 miles N. of Estain, and 15 un.

U, a town of France, in the dept. of Oafts, 8 miles S. of Lamballe, and 9 is.

U, a cape on the E. coast of Jersey, 4 St Helier.

GOURD. *n. f.* [*gouborde*, Fr.] 1. A fruit of some species are long, of- or bottle-shaped. *Miller*.—

li hafts, and from each bough and brake, t, and juiciest gourd, will pluck such e

ain our angel guest. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

Is abound so much in oil, that a sweet one may be drawn from thence by

they are of the four greater cold seeds, in emulsions. *Hill* 2. A bottle [from

Fr.] *Skinner*.—The large fruit so called ped hollow, for the purpose of con-

carrying wine, and other liquors: any leathern bottle grew to be called

name, and so the word is used by

inner.

GOURD, in botany. See CUCURBITA.

GOURD, BITTER. See CUCUMIS.

GOURD, ETHIOPIAN SOUR. See ADANSON-

GOURD TREE. See CRESCENTIA.

GOUT. *n. f.* [from gourd] A swelling leg after a journey. *Ferrier's Dict.*

GOUT, a town of France, in the dept. miles N. of Cahors, and 27 WNW.

GOUT, 1. 24. E. Lat. 45. 43. N.

GOUT, DOMINIC DE, an illustrious French private gentleman of Calcony. The

iving inhumanly massacred a colony of who had settled in Florida, Gourgues

re revenge on them, an account of en under the article FLORIDA. On

e was received with acclamations by sen, but was forbid to appear at court.

h invited him to command an English the Spaniards, in 1593; but he died his way to England.

GOUT, a town of France in the dept. of 4 miles NNW. of Faouet, and 27 W.

GOUT, a town of France, in the dept. me, and late duchy Normandy, cele-

a butter market. It is seated on the les NW. of Paris. Lon. o. 36. W.

GOUT, N.

GOUT, Mary, Lady of. See JARS.

GOUT, *n. f.* [*cuculus*.] A fish.

GOUT, a town of Scotland, in Renfrew- creek of the Clyde, near a copper

es W. of Greenock.

GOUT, INCOURT, a town of France in the of the Meuse, 7 miles E. of Gondre-

7 S. of Vancouleurs.

GOUT, T, a French protestant minister, born 1635. He left France on the revoca-

dict of Nantz, and went to Holland, came professor of Greek and Theolo-

ingen. He died there, in 1704. He *ventarii Linguae Hebraice*, and several

(1.) * **GOUT**. *n. f.* [*goutte*, French.] 1. The arthritis; a periodical disease attended with great pain.—The gout is a disease which may affect any membranous part, but commonly those which are at the greatest distance from the heart or the brain, where the motion of the fluid is the slowest, the resistance, friction, and stricture of the solid parts the greatest, and the sensation of pain, by the dilaceration of the nervous fibres, extreme. *Arb.*

One that's sick o' th' gout, had rather

Groan so in perplexity, than be cur'd

By th' sure physician death. *Shak. Cymb.*

This very rev'rend lecher, quite worn out

With rheumatism, and crippled with his gout,

Forgets what he in youthful times has done

And swings his own vices in his son. *Juv.*

2. A drop [*goutte*, French; *gutta*, Latin.] Gut for drop is still used in Scotland by physicians.—

I see thee still,

And on the blade o' th' dudgeon gout of blood,

Which was not so before. *Shak. Macbeth.*

(2.) **GOUT**. See MEDICINE, *Index*. In the new system of medicine, the gout is considered as a

disease not arising from plethora, but from the very opposite cause, viz debility; and therefore to

be cured by means the reverse of those formerly too generally prescribed. The late Dr BROWN

cured the gout repeatedly, both in his own habit and those of his patients, by wine, spirits, o-

pium, and a full diet of animal food. See BRUNSIAN SYSTEM, § 8.

(3.) * **GOUT**. *n. f.* [French.] A taste. An affected cant word.—Catalogues serve for a direc-

tion to any one that has a gout for the like studies. *Woodw. on Poff.*

(1.) * **GOUTWORT**. *n. f.* [*gout* and *wort*, *podagraria*.] An herb. *Alm.*

(2.) **GOUTWORT**. See MEGOPodium.

* **GOUTY**. *a. f.* [from *gout*.] 1. Afflicted or diseased with the gout.—There dies not above

one of a thousand of the gout, although I believe that more die gout. *Grant*—

Knots upon his gouty joints appear,

And chalk is in his crippled fingers found.

Dryd. Pers.

—Most commonly a gouty constitution is attended with great acuteness of parts, the nervous fibres,

both in the brain and the other extremities being delicate. *Arbuth.* 2. Relating to the gout.—There

are likewise other causes of blood spitting; one is the settlement of a gouty matter in the substance

of the lungs. *Blackmore.*

GOUVEA, a town of Portugal, in Beira.

GOUVERNANTE, in botany, the Spanish name of a plant which the Indians in California use

in decoction, as a sudorific drink for curing the venereal disease. It is a new species of daphne.

(See DAPHNE, § II.) It is a middle sized shrub, with angular and knotty branches, covered with

an adhesive varnish; the lateral ones alternate, and near each other; the leaves small, petiolated,

bilobed, opposite, smooth above; indistinctly veined below; the blossoms axillary, sometimes ter-

minating, pedunculated; solitary, but sometimes in pairs. The calyx is quadrifid, egg shaped, the

size of the corolla, placed beneath the fruit, deciduous. Corolla polypetalous; petals 4, small,

entire, egg-shaped, fixed on the receptacle: sta-

mina

mina is fixed to the receptacle; the length of the corolla: threads channelled, concave on one side, convex on the other: wings veiled, anthers simple. Pistil, germ oblong, covered with 5 angles and 5 cells; seeds oblong; pericarpium covered with fine hairs. *Peyrouse's Voyage*, vol. 3d.

GOUX, a town of France in the dept. of Doubs, 5 miles NW. of Pontarlier, and 9 SE. of Ornans.

(1.) GOUYE, Thomas, an eminent French mathematician, born at Dieppe, in 1650. He was a member of the society of Jesuits. His chief work is *Mathematical and Philosophical Observations*, in 2 vols 8vo. He died at Paris in 1725.

(2.) GOUYE OF LONGUEMARE, another French author, who wrote various memoirs and dissertations to illustrate the history of France.

GOUZON, a town of France in the dept. of Creuse, 15 miles E. of Gueret.

(1.) GOWER, John, one of the most ancient English poets, was cotemporary with Chaucer, and his intimate friend. He studied the law, and was some time a member of the society of Lincoln's-inn. Some have asserted that he was a judge. In the first year of Henry IV. he became blind, which he laments in one of his Latin poems. He died in 1402; and was buried in St Mary Overie, which church he had rebuilt chiefly at his own expence, so that he must have lived in affluent circumstances. His tomb was magnificent, and curiously ornamented. It still remains, but has been repaired in later times. From the collar of SS round the neck of his effigies, which lies upon the tomb, it is supposed that he had been knighted. With regard to his poetical talents, it is sufficient to say, that he was admired at the time when he wrote. He wrote, 1. *Speculum meditantis*, in French, in ten books. There are two copies of this in the Bodleian library. 2. *Vox clamantis*, in Latin verse, in 7 books. Preserved also in the Bodleian library, and in that of All-souls. It is a chronicle of the insurrection of the commons in the reign of Richard II. 3. *Confessio amantis*; printed at Westminster by Caxton in 1493, Lond. 1532, 1545. It is a sort of poetical system of morality, interspersed with a variety of moral tales. 4. *De rege Henrico IV.*; printed in Chaucer's works. There are likewise several historical tracts, in MS. written by our author, which are to be found in different libraries; also some short poems printed in Chaucer's works.

(2.) GOWER, ST, or ST GOAR. See GOAR, N° 3.

GOWER'S ISLAND, an isle in the S. pacific ocean, which has no anchorage near it. Lon. 158. 56. E. Lat. 7. 55. S.

(1.) * GOWN. *n. f.* [*gonna*, Italian; *gown*, Welsh and Erie.] 1. A long upper garment.—They make garments either short, as cloaks, or, as gowns, long to the ground. *Abbot's Descript. of the World*.—If ever I said a loose-bodied gown, sew me up in the skirts of it, and beat me to death with a bottom of brown thread; I said a gown. *Shak.*—

In length of train descends her sweeping gown,
And by her graceful walk the queen of love is known. *Dryd.*

2. A woman's upper garment.—I despise your new gown, 'till I see you dressed in it. *Pope.* 3.

The long habit of a man dedicated peace, as divinity, medicine, law.—The themselves are so mean in Irish counties, will not yield any competent minister, honest minister, scarcely to buy him a gun on Ireland.—

Girt in his Gabin gown the hero is
Yet not superior to her sex's care
The mode she fixes by the gown she
Of silks and chins she's the last appe
In these great points she loads the com

4. The dress of peace.—

He Mars depos'd, and arms to yield;

Successful councils did him soon
As fit for close intrigues as open fight

(2.) THE GOWN, (*§ 1. def. 1. 1.*) is a sort of garment, worn over the ordina hanging down to the feet. It is fashionably for ecclesiastics and for laymen; they gave the name *roga virilis*, i. e. gown, to a plain kind of gown which assumed when arrived at puberty. Particularly denominated *pretexta*. See *TEXTA*, &c. In some universities, wear a scarlet gown. In the Sorbonne, always are in gowns and caps. They wear gowns of two or more colours.

(3.) Gown is also taken in the sense magistracy or the profession of arms. In this sense it was that Cicero *arma toga*.

* GOWNED. *adj.* [from gown.] A gown.—

A noble crew about them waited
Of sage and sober peers, all gravely gown'd
In velvet white as snow the troops
The seams with sparkling emeralds

* GOWNMAN. *n. f.* [*gown* and *man* devoted to the arts of peace; one whose habit is a gown.—

Let him with pedants
Pore out his life amongst the lazy gown
—Thus will that whole bench, in an be composed of mean, fawning gown dants upon the court for a morsel of bread

GOWRAN, a borough, and post town, in the county of Kilkenny, 3 Ballinabola castle, 8 E. of Kilkenny, Dublin. It is governed by a portreev and town clerk. Here are the ruin church, and the handsome seat of the Clifden. Lon. 7. 0. W. Lat. 52. 34.

(1.) GOWRIE, Earl of. See SCO

(2.) GOWRIE, CAUSE OF, a fertile Perthshire, lying between Perth and along the north banks of the Tay, producing excellent crops. The great it is comprehended in the parish of ERROL, N° 1.

GOXHILL, two small towns; 1.

shire, near Barton: 2. near Hornsey,

GOYAVA, a town of Africa, on the

GOYAVE, a town of Grenada,

coast of the island. Lon. 61. 31. W. L

GOYAVES, a town of Guadaloupe

John VAN, painter of landscapes, pieces, was born at Leyden in 1596; instructed by Isaac Nicholai, a good afterwards by Esaias Vanderelde, a celebrated landscape painter of his time. Soon rose into general esteem; and more spread throughout Europe than of any other matter, as he possessed common readiness of hand and free-hand. It was his practice to sketch the villages and towns on the banks of rivers, the sea-ports in the Low Countries; and the scenes of inland villages, where the scenes appeared picturesque. Those he affected as subjects for his landscapes; enriched with cattle, boats, and figures in the understood perspective, and the which enabled him to give his pictures a pleasing and agreeable effect. He died in 1660.—His best pieces are generally his name and the year; and his pictures will be for ever estimable. His pictures have a greyish cast, occasioned by a colour called *Haerlem blue*, then used, but now disused, as it is apt to lose that greyish tint. His best works are highly in most parts of Europe, and large prices, being ranked with those of Teniers. They are not now easily found if undamaged, though his slighter ones are sufficiently common.

GRABAW, a river in Derby and Lancashire, empties into Mersey.

GRABEN, a town of England, in Monmouthshire, near Abergavenny.

GOZEN, a sea port of Morocco, on the Atlantic, near Mogador.

GRABO, an island of the Mediterranean, 4½ miles from Malta, and 24 miles long. It is supposed to be the island of Calpe, celebrated by Homer. It is surrounded by high rocks, which render it not easy to land; yet it is very fertile in the middle. It had 6000 inhabitants in 1551, when the English took it; but in 1559, it was retaken by the Spaniards, grand master of Malta. The possession of it along with Malta, in 1800, it was retaken by the British under Sir Alexander, on the 28th of September 1798.

GRADO DI CANDIA, an island of the Mediterranean, near Candia. Lon. 41. 31. E. of Ferro. N.

Regnier DE, a celebrated physician, born at Middelburg, in Holland, in 1641. He studied at Prussia, and was educated in medicine where he acquired great honour by publishing *De Succo Pancreatico*. He also wrote three pieces upon the organs of generation male and female; upon which subject he was in controversy with Swammerdam. He died, aged 32; and his works, with his letters, were published at Leyden in 1677.

GRABOW, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Moravia, 17 miles WNW. of Leitmeritz.

GRABOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lublin, 12 miles S. of Kalish.

GRABAW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Belez, 28 miles NNW. of Belez.

(1.) * **To GRABBLE**. *v. a.* To lie prostrate on the ground. *Ansforth*.

(2.) * **To GRABBLE**. *v. n.* [probably corrupted from *grapple*.] To grope; to feel eagerly with the hands.—My blood chills about my heart at the thought of these rogues, with their bloody hands *grabbling* in my guts, and pulling out my very entrails. *Arbutnot's John Bull*.

GRABE, John Ernst, a very learned writer in the beginning of the 18th century, born at Königsberg in Prussia. He was educated in the Lutheran religion; but the reading of the fathers led him into doubts. He presented to the electoral consistory at Sambia in Prussia a memorial containing his doubts. The elector ordered 3 eminent divines to answer them. Their answers shook him in his resolution of embracing the Roman Catholic religion; and one of them, Spener, advised him to go to England. He went; and K. William III. gave him a pension, which was continued by queen Anne. He was ordained a priest of the church of England, and honoured with the degree of D. D. by the university of Oxford; upon which occasion Dr George Smalridge pronounced two Latin orations, which were afterwards printed. He wrote, 1. *Specilegium S. S. Patrum, ut et Hereticorum, Jaculi post Christum natum*, 8vo. 2. An edition of the Septuagint, from the Alexandrian MS. in St James's library. 3. Notes on Justin, &c.; and other works, which are esteemed.

(1.) **GRABEN**, a town of Croatia

(2.) **GRABEN**, a town of Silesia, in Oels.

(1.) **GRABERN**, a town of Bohemia.

(2.) **GRABERN**, a town of Germany in Austria, 3 miles N. of Sonneberg.

GRABINETZ, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria, 14 miles NE. of Pedena.

GRABO, a town of Sweden in E. Gothland, 11 miles SE. of Linköping.

GRABOW, a town of Germany in Mecklenburg, 22 miles S. of Schwerin.

GRACAY, a town of France, in the dept. of Cher, 12 miles NNW. of Issoudun, and 10 SW. of Vierzon.

GRACCHOPOLIS, or the city of Gracchus, the ancient name of Cracow, in Poland.

GRACCHURIS, a city of Castile in Spain, built by Sempronius Gracchus, formerly called Illurcia.

(1.) **GRACCHUS**, Sempronius, the father of Tiberius and Caius (Nº 2, 3.) by Cornelia the daughter of Scipio. He was proconsul in Spain, subdued the Celtiberians, and rebuilt or repaired **GRACCHURIS**.

(2, 3.) **GRACCHUS**, Tiberius and Caius. Tiberius being tribune of the Roman people, demanded in their name, the execution of the Agrarian law; by which all persons possessing above 200 acres of land were to be deprived of the surplus, for the benefit of the poor citizens, amongst whom an equal distribution of them was to be made. Having carried his plan into execution by violent measures, he fell a victim to his zeal, being assassinated, A. A. C. 133. Caius his brother pursuing the same steps, was killed by the consul Opimius, A. A. C. 121. See **ROME**.

(1.) * **GRACE**.

(1.) • GRACE. *n. f.* [*grace*, French; *gratia*, Latin; *grace*, Etic.] 1. Favour; kindness.—If the highest love in no base person may assure to *grace*, then may I hope your beauty will not be without pity. *Sidney*.—

O momentary *grace* of mortal men,
Which we more hunt for than the *grace* of God!
Shakespeare.

Such as were popular,
And well deserving, were advanc'd by *grace*.
Daniel.

—Is this the reward and thanks I am to have for
those many acts of *grace* I have lately passed? *King*
Charles.—

Yet those remov'd,
Such *grace* shall one just man find in his sight,
That he relents, not to blot out mankind. *Milt*.
—He receiv'd all the *graces* and degrees, the pro-
cutorship and the doctorship could be obtained there.
Clarendon.—

Or each, or all, may win a lady's *grace*;
Then either of you knights may well deserve
A princess born. *Dryden's Fables*.

None of us, who now your *grace* implore,
But held the rank of sov'reign queen before.
Dryden.

Proffer'd service I repaid the fair,
That of her *grace* she gave her maid to know
The secret meaning of this moral show. *Dryden*.

2. Favourable influence of God on the human
mind.—The *grace* of God, that passeth under-
standing, keep your hearts and minds. *Common*
Prayer.—The evil of sin is that we are especially
to pray against, most earnestly begging of God,
that he will, by the power of his *grace*, preserve
us from falling into sin. *Duty of Man*.—

Prevenient *grace* descending had remov'd
The stony from their hearts, and made new flesh
Regenerate grow instead. *Milton*.

3. Virtue; effect of God's influence.—Within the
church, in the public profession and external com-
munion thereof, are contained persons truly good
and sanctified, and hereafter saved; and together
with them other persons void of all saving *grace*,
and hereafter to be damned. *Pearson*.—

How Van wants *grace*, who never wanted wit.
Pope.

4. Pardon; mercy.—
Noble pity held
His hand a while, and to their choice gave space
Which they would prove, his valour or his *grace*.
Hamer.

How and sue for *grace*
With suppliant knee. *Milton*.

5. Favour conferred.—
I should therefore esteem it great favour and
grace,
Would you be so kind as to go in my place. *Prior*.

6. Privilege.—
But to return and view the cheerful skies,
To few great Jupiter imparts this *grace*. *Dryd*.
7. A goddess, by the heathens supposed to bestow
beauty.—

This forehead, where your verse has laid
The loves delighted and the *graces* play'd. *Prior*.

8. Behaviour, considered as decent or unbecom-
ing.—The same words in Phuloclea's mouth, as
from one woman to another, so as there were no

other body by, might have had a better
perchance have found a gentler reed.
Have I reason or good *grace* in—

9. Adventitious or artificial beauty;
pearance.—

One lilac only, with a statlier g
Presum'd to claim the oak's and e
And, looking round him with a me
Spread his exalted boughs to wave
Her purple habit fits with such
On her smooth shoulders, and so

—To write and speak correctly gives
gains a favourable attention to wit
say. *Locke*. 10. Natural excellence.—
me, that things of principal excellen
thus bitten at by men whom God
with *graces*, both of wit and learning
purposes. *Hooker*.—

To some kind of men,
Their *graces* serve them but as ene
In his own *grace* he doth exalt h
More than in your advancement.

The charming Lausus, full of g
To Turnus only second in the gra
Of manly men, and features of the

11. Embellishment; recommendation
Where justice grows, there grow
er *grace*,
The which doth quench the bra
smart.

Set all things in their own pecu
And know that order is the great

The flow'r which lasts for little
A short liv'd good and an uncertain

12. Single beauty.—
I pass their form and every char

13. Ornament; flower; highest perfe
By their hands this *grace* of king
If hell and treason hold their proud

14. Single or particular virtue.—
The king becoming *grace*,
As justice, verity, temperance, sta
Devotion, patience, courage, fort
I have no relish of them. *Shake*

—The *graces* of his religion prepare
most useful discharge of every relation
gers. 15. Virtue physical.—

O, mickle is the pow'rful *grace* t
In plants, herbs, stones, and their tr

16. The title of a duke or archbishop
of the king, meaning the same as *your*
your clemency.—

Here come I from our princely g
To know your guests; to tell you fro
That he will give you audience. *Sh*

—High and mighty king, your *grace*
your nobles here present, may be pleas
your ears. *Bacon's H. VII.*—Accord
usual proceeding of your *grace*, and o
with delinquents which are overtaken
in simplicity, there was yielded unto h
rate, patient, and full hearing, toget
satisfactory answer to all his man
White. 17. A short prayer before and

soldiers use him as the *grace* 'fore meat, alk at table, and their thanks at end. *Spak.* *grace* is saying after meat, do you and thren take the chairs from behind the . *Script.*—

n cheerful healths, your mistress shall ive place ;

hat's more rare, a poet shall say *grace*.

Pope.

GRACE, among divines, (§ 1. *def.* 2, 3.) is

For the free love and favour of God, the spring and source of all the benefits re from him. 2. For the work of the ewing the soul after the image of God ; usually guiding and strengthening the be- obey his will, to resist and mortify sin, come it.

GRACE at meals. See § 1. *def.* 17. The the moral obligation of this ceremony, om different passages of the New Testa- e so well known, that it is needless to em. Others have been drawn from the of different nations, of very remote anti- thenæus tells us, in his *Deipnosoph.* lib. ii he famous regulation made by Amphic- z of Athens, as to the use of wine, both ces and at home, he required that the

Jupiter the Sustainer should be decently rently pronounced. The same writer, in . 149. quotes Hermias, an author extant ne, who mentions a people in Egypt, in- of Naucratis, whose custom it was, af- had placed themselves in the usual pos- ating at the table, to rise again and kneel ; a priest began to chant a grace, according d form amongst them ; and when that ; they joined in the meal in a solemn fa- manner. Heliodorus has a passage in his s to the same purpose, that it was the of the Egyptian philosophers, to pour out and put up ejaculations before they sat meals. Porphyry, in his treatise *De ab-* iv. p. 408, gives a great character of the gymnosophists in Egypt for the strictness lives ; and observes, that at the sounding l before meals, which consisted only of ad, fruits, and herbs, they went to pray- ich being ended, the bell sounded again, sat down to eating. In general this was as usage among the ancient Greeks, de- m yet older ages, according to Clement ndria. He mentions, that these people, ey met together to refresh themselves with : of the grape, sung a piece of music, in of the Hebrew psalms, which they call- *tion*. Livy, lib. xxxix. speaks of it as a ustom among the Romans, that they of- crifice and prayer to the gods at their id computations. But one of the fullest ics is given by Quintilian, *Declam.* 301. *ensam*, says he, *ad quam cum venire capi-* *as invocamus* ; “ We approached the ta- supper together), and then invoked the

The Jesuit Trigautius, in his very elegant uctive narrative of the expedition of their ries into China, B. i. p. 69. gives a similar of the Chinese, who “ before partaking ntertainment, pour out wine upon the

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ground, as a thankful oblation to the Lord of hea- ven.” The Turks pray for a blessing on their meat ; and many more instances might be pro- duced of nations who have constantly observed the like custom, in some way or other. The cele- brated Jewish historian Josephus, giving a detail of the rites and customs of the Essenes, who were confessedly the strictest and most pious professors of the Jewish religion, says “ The priest begs a blessing before they presume to take any nourish- ment ; and it is looked upon as a great sin to take or taste before ; When the meal is over, the priest prays again ; and the company with him bless and praise God as their preserver, and the donor of their life and nourishment.” Philo, in his book *De vita contemplativa*, gives a similar ac- count of a body of men and women stricter than even the Essenes. From the Hebrew ritual it ap- pears, that the Jews had their hymns and psalms of thanksgiving, not only after eating their pass- over, but on a variety of other occasions, at and after meals, and even between their several cour- ses and dishes. Aristæus (as quoted by R. Eleazar,) says “ Moses commands, that when the Jews are going to eat or drink, the company should imme- diately join in sacrifice or prayer.”

(4.) **GRACE**, or **GRACEFULNESS**, in the human character, is an agreeable attribute, inseparable from motion as opposed to rest, and as compre- hending speech, looks, gesture, and loco-motion. As some motions are homely, the opposite to graceful, it may be inquired, With what motions is this attribute connected ? No man appears graceful in a mask ; and therefore, laying aside the expressions of the countenance, the other mo- tions may be genteel, may be elegant, but of them- selves never are graceful. A motion adjusted in the most perfect manner to answer its end, is ele- gant ; but still somewhat more is required to com- plete our idea of grace or gratefulness. What this *more* may be, is the nice point. One thing is clear from what is said, that it must arise from the expressions of the countenance : and from what expressions so naturally as from those which indi- cate mental qualities, such as sweetness, benevo- lence, elevation, dignity ? This promises to be a fair analysis ; because of all objects mental quali- ties affect us the most ; and the impression made by a graceful appearance, upon every spectator of taste, is too deep for any cause purely corporeal. The next step is, to examine what are the mental qualities, that, in conjunction with elegance of motion, produce a graceful appearance. Sweet- ness, cheerfulness, affability, are not separately sufficient, nor even in conjunction. Dignity alone, with elegant motion, produce a graceful appear- ance ; but still more graceful with the aid of other qualities, those especially that are the most exalted. See **DIGNITY**, § 3. But this is not all. The most exalted virtues may be the lot of a person whose countenance has little expression ; but such a person cannot be graceful. To produce this appearance, must be added, an expressive countenance, display- ing to every spectator of taste, with life and energy, every thing that passes in the mind. Collecting these circumstances together, grace may be de- fined, “ that agreeable appearance, which arises from elegance of motion, and from a countenance

C C C

expressive

expressive of dignity." Expressions of other mental qualities are not essential to that appearance, but they heighten it greatly. Dancing affords great opportunity for displaying grace, and haranguing still more. See DANCING, DECLAMATION, and ORATORY. But in vain will a person attempt to be graceful who is deficient in amiable qualities. A man, it is true, may form an idea of qualities he is destitute of; and, by means of that idea, may endeavour to express these qualities by looks and gestures: but such studied expression will be too faint and obscure to be graceful.

(5.) GRACE, ACT OF, the appellation given to the act of parliament, 1695, c. 31, which allows prisoners for civil debts to be set at liberty, upon making oath that they have not whereof to support themselves in prison, unless they are allowed by the creditors on whose diligences they were imprisoned, within ten days after intimation made for that purpose.

(6.) GRACE, DAYS OF, three days immediately following the term of payment of a bill, within which the creditor must protest it, if payment is not obtained, in order to entitle him to recourse against the drawer.

(7.) GRACE, HEAR OF, a species of RUTH.
* To GRACE, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To adorn; to dignify; to embellish; to recommend; to decorate.—This they study, this they practise, this they grace with a wanton superfluity of wit. *Hooker.*

I do not think a braver gentleman,
More daring, or more bold is now alive,
To grace this latter age with noble deeds. *Shak.*
Little of this great world can I speak,
And therefore little shall I grace my cause,
In speaking for myself. *Shak. Othello.*
—There is due from the judge to the advocate
some commendation and *gracing*, where causes
are well handled. *Bacon.*

Rich crowns were on their royal scutcheons
plac'd,
With sapphires, diamonds, and with rubies grac'd. *Dryden.*

By both his parents of descent divine;
Great Jove and Phœbus grac'd his nobler line. *Pope.*
Though triumphs were to generals only due,
Crowns were reserv'd to grace the soldiers too. *Pope.*

2. To dignify or raise by an act of favour.—
He writes
How happily he lives, how well belov'd,
And daily graced by the emperor. *Shak.*
—He might at his pleasure grace or disgrace whom
he would in court. *Knoles.*

Dispose all honours of the sword and gun,
Grace with a nod, and ruin with a frown. *Dryden.*

3. To favour.—
When the guests withdrew,
Their courteous host saluting all the crew,
Regardless pass'd her o'er, nor grac'd with kind
adieu. *Dryden.*

* GRACE-CUP, *n. f.* [*grace* and *cup*.] The cup
or health drunk after grace.—

The *grace cup* serv'd, the cloth away,
Jove thought it time to shew his play. *Prior.*

* GRACED, *adj.* [from *grace*.] 1. Beautiful;

graceful. Not in use.—He saw this gem
of the properest and best graced mien
saw, being of a middle age and a m
Sidney. 2. Virtuous; regular; chaste.

Epicurism and lust
Make it more like a tavern or a broth
Than a grac'd palace. *Shak.*

(1.) GRACEDIEU, a town in Le
between Ashby de la Zouch and Leog

(2.) GRACIEU, a village in Mon
on the Trothy, SW. of Marmouth.

* GRACEFUL, *adj.* [from *grace*.]
with dignity.—

Amid' the troops, and like the ly
High o'er the rest in arms the grac
rode

Mistress his pen, victorious was
Bold in the lists, and graceful in the d
Yet graceful ease, and sweetness of
Might hide her faults, if belles bad sh

Graceful to fight, and elegant to
The great are vanquish'd, and sh
taught.

* GRACEFULLY, *adv.* [from *grace*.]
gantly; with pleasing dignity.—

Through nature and through art
And gracefully her subject chang'd.
—Walking is the mode or manner of
a beast; but walking gracefully implies
or mode superadded to that action. *W.*

(1.) * GRACEFULNESS, *n. f.* [from
Elegance of manner; dignity with be
His neck, his hands, his shoulder
breast,

Did next in gracefulness and beauty
To breathing figures. *Dry*

—He executed with so much gracefulness
ty, that he alone got money and reput
den's Dufr.—There is a secret gracefulness
which accompanies his writings, though
ness and sobriety of age be wanting. *Dry*
Preface.

If hearers are amaz'd from whence
Proceeds that fund of wit and sense,
Which, though her modesty would
Breaks like the sun behind a cloud;
While gracefulness its art conceals.
And yet through ev'ry motion steals

(2.) GRACEFULNESS. See GRACE,
GRACE HILL, a town of Ireland, in
settlement of the Moravians; 1½ m. fr

* GRACELESS, *adj.* [from *grace*.]
grace; wicked; hopelessly corrupt; ab

This graceless man, for furtherance
Did court the handmaid of my lady de

Whose hap shall be to have b
Will not so graceless be, to be ingrat

—In all manner of graceless and hope
ters, some are lost for want of advice,
for want of heed. *L'Esrange.*

Furnish'd for offence, he cross'd t
Betwixt the graceless villain and his

(1.) * GRACES, *n. f.* Good graces is
seldom used in the singular —

Den and delivery of her heart,
Her goods and chattels, and good
And person, up to his embraces.

GRACES, GRATIÆ, or CHARITES, in theology, were fabulous deities, three who attended on Venus. Their names, Ibalia, and Euphrosyne; i. e. *shining*, and *gay*; or, according to some authors, Euphrosyne, and Egleia. They by some to be the daughters of Jupiter, one the daughter of Oceanus; and by Bacchus and Venus.—Some will have to have been four; and make them the three HORÆ, Hours, or rather with the days of the year. A marble in the king of Sardinia represents the three Graces in the center, with a fourth seated and covered by a veil, with the words underneath, *Adhuc*. But this group we may understand three Graces, and Venus, who was their youngest daughter of Jupiter by Dione. They were always supposed to have hold of each other's hands, and never parted. They were depicted, to show that the Graces borrow from art, and that they have no other than those of nature. Yet in the first ages not represented naked, as appears from (lib. vi. and ix.) who describes their statues. They were of wood, all but their feet, and hands, which were white. Their robe or gown was gilt; one of them held a rose, another a dye, and the third a branch of myrtle.

GRACES, in geography, a village in Essex, Baddow.

GRAS A DIOS, [Span. i. e. *Thanks to God*.] Mexico, in the province of Honduras.

GRACILE. *adj.* [*gracilis*, Latin.] Slender;

GRACILENT. *adj.* [*gracilentus*, Lat.] Lean.

GRACIS, a muscle of the leg, so called from its shape. See ANATOMY, § 216.

GRACILITY. *n. f.* [*gracilitas*, Lat.] Slenderness.

GRACIA, one of the AZORES. It has no inhabitants; produces wheat, wine, and abounds with black cattle. It exports cheese.

GRACIOUS. *adj.* [*gracieux*, Fr.] 1. Merciful.—Common sense and reason could not convince them, that the good and gracious God would be pleased, nor consequently worship any thing barbarous or cruel. *South*.—2. *and gracious*, and a lover of knowledge of the most amiable things. *Burton*.—3. Favourable; kind.—And the Lord showed mercy unto them, and had compassion on his xxxiii. 23.—

Unblam'd Ulysses' house,
I find receipt so gracious. *Chapman*.

From now reveal
The beam of light; from now inspire
Me to sing, my hand to touch the lyre.

Prior.
He; favoured.—Doctrine is much more
taught *graciously* by example than by rule.

made us *gracious* before the kings of
that they gave us food. 1 *Esdr.* viii. 80.
who was now general of the horse, was
gracious to prince Rupert than Wilmot

had been. *Clarend.* 4. Virtuous; good.—Kings are no less unhappy, their issue not being *gracious* than they are in losing them when they have approved their virtues. *Shak. Winter's Tale*. 5. Excellent. Obsolete.—The grievous abuse which hath been of councils, should rather cause men to study how so *gracious* a thing may again be reduced to that first perfection. *Hooker*. 6. Graceful; becoming. Obsolete.—Our women's names are more *gracious* than their Rutilia, that is, red head. *Comden*.

* **GRACIOUSLY**. *adv.* [from *gracious*.] 1. Kindly; with kind condescension.—His testimony he *graciously* confirmed, that it was the best of all my tragedies. *Dryden*.—

He heard my vows, and *graciously* decreed
My grounds to be restor'd, my former flocks to feed. *Dryden*.

—If her majesty would but *graciously* be pleased to think a hardship of this nature worthy her royal consideration. *Swift*. 2. In a pleasing manner.

* **GRACIOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *gracious*.] 1. Kind condescension.—The *graciousness* and temper of this answer made no impression on them. *Clarendon*. 2. Pleasing manner.

GRACULA, the GRACKLE, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of *picæ*. The bill is convex, cultrated, and bare at the point; the tongue is not cloven, but is fleshy and sharpish; it has 3 toes before and one behind. See *Pl. CLXIX. fig. 1*. There are 12 species. The most remarkable are the following:

1. **GRACULA BARITA**, the *boat-tailed grackle*, is about the size of a cuckoo. The bill is sharp, black, and an inch and a half in length; the general colour of the plumage is black, with a gloss of purple, especially on the upper parts; the legs and claws are black, the latter hooked. There is a singularity in the folding up of the tail-feathers, which, instead of forming a plain surface at top, sink into a hollow like a deep gutter. It always carries its tail expanded when on the ground, folding it up in the above singular manner only when perched or flying. It inhabits Jamaica, and feeds on maize, beetles, and other insects, as well as on the fruit of the banana. It is likewise common in North America. They breed in swamps, and migrate in September.

2. **GRACULA CRISTATELLA**, the *Chinese starling*, is a little bigger than a blackbird. The bill is yellow or orange: and the general colour of the plumage blackish, with a tinge of blue: the legs are a dull yellow. These birds talk and whistle very well, and are common in China, where they are much esteemed; and the figures of them are seen frequently in Chinese paintings. Their food is rice, insects, worms, and such like.

3. **GRACULA QUISCUA**, the *purple jack-daw*, or *Barbados blackbird*, is about the size of a blackbird, and is black, but most beautifully and richly glossed with purple, especially on the head and neck. The female is wholly brown, but deepest on the wings and tail. This species inhabits Jamaica, Carolina, Mexico, and other parts of North America. These birds generally feed on maize, whence they are named *maize-thieves*; but this is not their only food. In spring, soon after the maize seed is put into the ground, they scratch it

up again; and as soon as the leaf comes out, they take it up with their bills, root and all; but when it is ripe they do still more damage, for at that time they come by thousands, and are so bold, that if disturbed in one part of a field they only go to another. In New Jersey and Pennsylvania 3d. per dozen was once given for the dead birds, and by means of this premium they were nearly extirpated in 1750; when the persecution of them was abated on account of the great increase of worms which had taken place in the meadows, and which in the preceding year had left so little hay in New England as to occasion an importation from other parts. The grackles were therefore again tolerated, as it was observed that they fed on these worms till the maize was ripe. These birds build in trees. They pass the winter in swamps, which are quite overgrown with wood, only appearing in mild weather; and after the maize is got in, are content to feed on the aquatic tare grass, and if pressed by hunger, buck wheat and oats, &c. they are said also to destroy that pernicious insect the *ARACHUS PISI*. Their note is pretty agreeable; but their flesh is not good to eat.

4. *GRACULA RELIGIOSA*, the lesser grackle, or Indian *Star*, is about the size of a blackbird, the bill an inch and a half long, and of an orange colour. The general colour of the plumage is black, glossed with violet, purple, and green, in different reflections of light: on the quills is a bar of white; the feathers and legs are orange yellow, and the claws of a pale brown. This species, which is found in several parts of the East Indies, in the Isle of Hainan, and almost every isle beyond the Ganges, is remarkable for whistling, singing, and talking well, much better and more distinct than any of the parrot genus. Its food is of the vegetable kind. Those kept in this climate are observed to be very fond of cherries and grapes; if cherries are offered to one, and it does not immediately get them, it cries and whines like a child, till it has obtained them. It is very tame and familiar.

GRACULUS. See *CORVUS*, § III, N° 10.

GRADACCIO, a hill of Corsica, in the middle of the island; on which there are two lakes, where the chief rivers take their rise.

(1.) * *GRADATION*. *n. f.* [*gradation*, French; *gradus*, Lat.] 1. Regular progress from one degree to another.—The desire of more and more rises by a natural *gradation* to most, and after that to all. *L'Esperance*. 2. Regular advance step by step.

From thence,

By cold *gradation*, and well balanc'd form,

We shall proceed with Angelo. *Shakesp.*

—The psalmist very elegantly expresseth to us the several *gradations* by which men at last come to this horrid degree of impiety. *Tillotson*. 3. Order; sequence; series—

'Tis the curse of service;

Preferment goes by letter and affection,

Not, as of old, *gradation*, where each second good hour to the first. *Shak. Othello*.

4. Regular process of argument.—Certain it is, by a direct *gradation* of consequences from this principle of merit, that the obligation to gratitude

flows from, and is enjoined by, the first of nature. *South.*

(2.) *GRADATION*, in logic, (§ 1 *Art.*) of reasoning, otherwise called *Sorites*.

(3.) *GRADATION*, in painting, a gradual sensible change of colour, by the softening of the tints and shades.

(4.) *GRADATION*, in rhetoric, the *CLIMAX*.

* *GRADATORY*. *n. f.* [*gradus*, Lat.] from the cloisters into the church. *Atterbury*.

GRADECK, a town of Lithuania, 10 miles SSW. of Grodno.

GRADES, or *GRADUS*, a town of Prussia, 5 miles N. of Gork, and 5 W. of Friedland.

GRADETZ, a town of the Helvetii, 6 miles E. of Sion.

* *GRADIENT*. *adj.* [*gradient*, Lat.] moving by steps.—Amongst those *gradations*, that iron spider is especially remarkable, which, being but of an ordinary bigness up and down as it had been above.

GRADIGNA, a town of Maritima, 7 miles SSE. of Capua d'Alba.

GRADISKA, a strong and populous town of Croatia, 10 miles S. of Zagreb.

(1.) *GRADISKA*, a town of Croatia, 10 miles S. of Zagreb. It is surrounded by the Turks in 1691. It is surrounded by the Austrians, and is seated on the Save, 20 miles S. of Pest, 133 W. of Belgrade, and 100 W. of Vienna. Lon. 18. 39 E. Lat. 45. 18.

(2.) *GRADISKA*, or *GRADISCA*, a town of Germany, in the circle of Austria, 10 miles S. of Trieste, and formerly included in the territory of Goritz, but now in that of Goritz; built in 1473, to stop the roads of the Turks.

It was blockaded by the French under Bernadotte and Serurier, on the 19th of May, and surrendered next day, though 4000 Austrians, (led by Bonaparte) and 10 pieces of cannon, with 8 stand of arms, 15 SE. of Udine, 13 SE. of Udine, 13 SE. of Vienna. Lon. 13. 37 E. Lat. 45. 18.

(3.) *GRADISKA*, or *GRADISCA*, a town of Austria, formerly a county of Friuli, 10 miles S. of Goritz. *Gradisca* N° 1. is the capital.

(4.) *GRADISKA*, or *GRADISCA*, a village in Maritime Austria, and late Venetia, 10 miles WSW. of Udine. It was taken by the French, under general Gueuz, in March, 1797, after a sharp engagement, the Austrians were defeated with the loss of 450 men, one general and 6 pieces of cannon, and the archduke Charles narrowly escaped as a prisoner.

(5.) *GRADISKA*, or *GRADISCHKA*, a town of Austria, 1 mile from Windisch-Grätz.

GRADISTA, a town of European Bulgaria, near Servia, 40 miles S. of Varna.

GRADITZ, a town of Bohemia, 10 miles N. of Kompostitz, 12 miles N. of Kompostitz.

(1.) *GRADIZ*, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Asturias, 10 miles NW. of Oviedo.

(2.) *GRADO*, a podestaria or district of Austria, in the Dogado of Venice, including the lakes and islands.

ADO, an island on the S. coast of Friuli, in the above district. (N° 2.) Lon. 13. E. 45. 52. N.

ADO, a strong town in the above island, 6 miles E. by N. of Venice, containing 20 souls. It has an ancient cathedral, seated on the borders of the Dogad.

GRADUAL. *adv.* [*graduel*, Fr.] Progress degrees; advancing step by step; from to another.—

Nobler birth

figures animate with *gradual* life,

with sense, reason, all summ'd up in man.

Milton.

I suppose a *gradual* natural progress of nature, from great things and persons to greater, till at length, by many steps, they come to be at greatest. *South.*

GRADUAL. *n. s.* [*gradus*, Latin.] An orb.—

ere the *gradual* prostrate they ador'd,
venerable, and thus the saint implor'd.

Dryden.

ADUALITY. *n. s.* [from *gradual*.] Regression.—This some ascribe unto the of the elements, others to the *graduality* of light. *Brown.*

ADUALITY. *adv.* [from *gradual*.] 1. Progress; in regular progression.—When the sun rises over the fixed stars, and eclipses them, it vanishes; not *gradually*, like that of the moon, but all at once. *Newton's Opticks.*—The sun being weans us *gradually* from our life the nearer we approach towards it. *Swift.*—Human creatures are able to stand much greater density in diving, and of standing upon the tops of mountains, provided the ascent be made *gradually*. *Arbutnot.* 2. In human reason doth not only *gradually*, but it actually differ from the fantastic reason of the brute. *Brown.*

GRADUATE. *n. s.* [*gradué*, Fr. from Latin.] A man dignified with an academic degree.—

Graduates I dislike the learned route,
I use a female doctor for the gout.

Bramston.

GRADUATE. See DEGREE, § 3.

GRADUATE. *v. a.* [*graduier*, French; Latin.] 1. To dignify with a degree in university.—John Tregonwel, *graduated* and dubbed a knight, did good service. *Survey of Cornwall.*—Concerning columns and adjuncts, architects make such a noise, in terms of architraves, frizes, and cornices, enough to *graduate* a master of this art.

2. To mark with degrees.—The places marked where the spirits stood at the severest heat, and according to these observations he *graduates* his thermometers. *Derham.* 3. To raise to a higher place in the scale of mechanical term.—The tincture was capable to *graduate* as much silver as an equal weight that gold. *Boyle.* 4. To heighten or improve.—Not only vitriol is a cause of heightening, but the salts of natural bodies; and dyestuffs and *graduate* their colours with salts. *Pulgar Errors.*

GRADUATION. *n. s.* [*graduation*, French; from *graduate*.] 1. Regular progression by succession of degrees.—The *graduation* of the parts of the universe is likewise necessary to the perfection of the whole. *Grew.* 2. Improvement; exaltation of qualities.—Of greater repugnancy unto reason is that which he delivers concerning its *graduation*, that heated in fire, and often extinguished in oil of Mars or iron, the loadstone acquires an ability to extract a nail fastened in a wall. *Brown.* 3. The act of conferring academical degrees.

GRADWEIN, a town of Stiria, 6 miles NW. of Graz.

(1.) GRÆCIA, Greece. See GREECE.

(2.) GRÆCIA, MAGNA, in ancient geography, part of the outermost coast of Italy, originally inhabited by Greeks. See ITALY.

GRÆCUS. See GREECE.

(1.) GRÆME, John, a Scottish poet, born at Carnwath in Lanarkshire, in 1748, whose posthumous poems have been much admired. His father was a farmer, and he was taught grammar at Lanark, under Mr R. Thomson, brother-in-law of the celebrated poet, and his progress was rapid. In 1766, he went to the University of Edinburgh, where he soon surpassed the most industrious, and spoke Latin with elegance and accuracy. He also acquired considerable knowledge in mathematics, natural philosophy, metaphysics, and the Belles Lettres. In 1769, he gave the first specimens of his poetical genius. In 1770, he was admitted into the theological class; but the fatal disease, which cut him off, now began to appear, in the form of a gradual decline, and soon ended in a deep consumption. He died July 26, 1772. His poems, consisting of 50 elegies and other miscellaneous pieces, were collected and printed at Edinburgh in 1773, in 8vo, the expence being defrayed by his friends.

(2.) GRÆME. See GRAHAM.

GRÆMSAY, a small island and parish of Scotland, in the county of Orkney, 1½ miles long and 1 broad, united to the parish of Hoy. See HOY. The population of this island, in 1794, stated by the rev. Robert Sands, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, consisted of 36 families, and 160 souls.

GRAESATZ, a town of Hungary, in Croatia, 30 miles S. of Bihaez.

GRÆVIUS, John George, one of the most learned writers in the 17th century. In the 24th year of his age, the elector of Brandenburg made him professor at Duisbourg. In 1658, he was invited to Deventer to succeed his former master Gronovius. In 1661, he was appointed professor of eloquence at Utrecht; and in 1673, professor of politics and history. He fixed here, and refused several advantageous offers. He had the satisfaction to be sought after by divers princes, and to see several of them come from Germany to study under him. He died in 1703, aged 71. His *Thesaurus antiquitatum et historiarum Italiae*, &c. and other works are well known.

GRAFABERG, a town of Austria, 5 miles SW. of Scrattenthaal.

GRAFENDORF, a town of Austria, on the Beilach, 4 miles S. of St Polten.

GRA-

GRAFENHAYNCHEN, a town of Saxony, 11 m. SE. of Dessau, and 11 SW. of Wittenberg.
GRAFENSCHLAG, a town of Austria, 4 m. S. of Zwettl.

GRAFENWORTH, a town of Austria, 11 m. SW. of Sonneberg.

(1.) * GRAFF. *n. f.* A ditch; a moat. See GRAVE.—Though the fortifications were not regular, yet the walls were good, and the *graff* broad and deep. *Clarendon*.

(2.) * GRAFF. GRAFT. *n. f.* [*greffe*, French.] A small branch inserted into the stock of another tree, and nourished by its sap, but bearing its own fruit; a young cyon.—God gave unto man all kind of seeds and *graffs* of life; as the vegetative life of plants, the sensual of beasts, the rational of man, and the intellectual of angels. *Raleigh*.—It is likely, that as in fruit trees the *graff* maketh a greater fruit, so in trees that bear no fruit it will make the greater leaves. *Bacon's Natural History*.—

'Tis usual now an inmate *graff* to see

With insolence invade a foreign tree. *Dryden*.
—If you cover the top with clay and horse-dung, in the same manner as you do a *graff*, it will help to heal the sooner. *Mortimer*.—

Now the cleft rind inserted *graffs* receives,
And yields an offspring more than nature gives.

Pope.

(1.) * To GRAFF To GRAFT. *v. a.* [*greffer*, French.] 1. To insert a cyon or branch of one tree into the stock of another.—

His growth is but a wild and fruitless plant;
I'll cut his barren branches to the stock,

And *graff* you on to bear. *Dryden's Don Sebastian*.
With his pruning hook disjoin
Unbearing branches from their head,

And *graff* more happy in their stead. *Dryden*.

2. To propagate by insertion or inoculation.—

Now let me *graff* my pears and prune the vine. *Dryden*.

3. To insert into a place or body to which it did not originally belong.—And they also, if they bide not still in unbelief, shall be *grafted* in; for God is able to *graff* them in again. *Romans*.

These are th' Italian names which fate will join

With ours, and *graff* upon the Trojan line. *Dryden's Æneid*.

4. To impregnate with an adskitious branch.—
We've some old crab-trees here at home, that will not

Be *grafted* to your relish. *Shak. Coriolanus*.
The noble isle doth want her proper limbs;

Her royal stock *graff* with ignoble plants. *Shak*.

5. To join one thing so as to receive support from another.—This resolution against any peace with Spain is a new incident *grafted* upon the original quarrel, by the intrigues of a faction among us. *Swift*.—

May one kind grave unite each hapless name,
And *graff* my love immortal on thy fame. *Pope*.

(1.) * To GRAFF. *v. n.* To practise insertion.—

In March is good *grafting* the skilful do know,
So long as the wind in the East do not blow:
From moon being chang'd, 'till past be the prime,
For *grafting* and cropping is very good time.

Tusser.

They have fruit in greater plenty the way is to

graff, not only upon young stocks, but vers boughs of an old tree; for they great numbers of fruit; whereas, if you upon one stock, the tree can bear but

GRAFFENBERG, a town of the Upper Carniola, 19 miles SE. of Layb

GRAFFLNDORFF, a town of the GRAFFENECK, a town of Austria

SW. of Sonneberg.

GRAFFENTHAL, a town of Saxtenburg, 7 miles S. of Saalfeld.

GRAFFEN-TONNA, a town of Saxe-Gotha, 8 miles N. of Gotha.

GRAFFENWARK, a town of the GRAFIGNY, France, a French

reiss of the celebrated *Peruvian Letters*, been translated into all the languages

She was born in 1693, and married to Lorrain's chamberlain: after whose death

to Paris with mademoiselle De Guise, talents were much admired. She died in 1758, aged 65.

GRAFT. See GRAFF, § 1, 2.

* GRAFT. *n. f.* [from *graff* or *g* who propagates fruit by grafting.—I ed, by the trials of the most skilful these parts, that a man shall seldom fail cherries born by his graft the same year the insertion is made. *Barlyn*.

(1.) GRAFTING, *n. f.* or EXCERPT gardening, is the taking a shoot from one inserting it into another, in such a way both may unite closely and become one the ancient writers on husbandry and this operation is called INCISION, to do from inoculation or budding, which the *serere oculus*

(II.) GRAFTING, ACCOUNT OF THE USE, AND THEORY OF. Grafting hath lasted from the most remote antiquity; but its origin and invention has been differently reported by naturalists. Theophrastus tells us, that a man having swallowed a fruit whole, cast it into a cleft or cavity of a rotten tree; where some of the putrid parts of the wood being washed with the rains, it budded, and a shoot grew within this tree another tree of a different kind. This led the husbandman to certain grafting. Pliny says, that a countryman to make a pallisade in his grounds, that endure the longer, he filled up and finished the bottom of the pallisade, by running it with the trunks of ivy. The effect was, that the stakes of the pallisade, as they became engrafted into the trunks, and large trees; which suggested to him the art of engrafting. The use of grafting to propagate any curious sorts of fruits of certain of the kinds; which cannot be done by any other method: for as all the good fruits are accidentally obtained from seeds, so the seeds, when sown, will many of them die and produce such fruit as is not worth cultivating; but when shoots are taken from the old trees, as produce good fruit, these will never lose their kind, whatever be their stock to which they are grafted. The reason of

engrafting is somewhat obscure; and had not been given the first hint, all our knowledge would never have led us to it. The effect is ordinarily attributed to the diversity of the ducts of the graft from those of the stock, whence the figure of the particles of the graft is passing through them to the rest of the tree. They, from some observations of Agricola, suggest something new on this head. The stock, on this, he thinks, is only to be considered as a vessel of vegetable matter, which is to be filtered by the cion, and digested, and brought to maturity, as the time of growth in the vessels of the stock directs. A cion, therefore, of one kind, grafted on a tree of another, may be rather said to live in the tree it is grafted in, than to unite with it: for it is visible that the cion preserves its natural purity, though it be fed and nourished by a mere crab; which is, without doubt, owing to the difference of the vessels in the graft and those of the stock: so that grafting is justly compared to planting. In prosecution of this view of that ingenious author, it may be said, that the natural juices of the earth, by filtration and comminution in passing through the soil, &c. before they arrive at the cion, are already partly elaborated and refined; and so disposed for a more easy, plentiful, and perfect assimilation and nutrition; the cion must necessarily grow and thrive more rapidly, than if it were put immediately upon the ground, there to live on coarser fare and undergo more digestion: and the fruit produced by the graft, after preparation in the cion, must be finer and more exalted, than if fed immediately from the soil, perfectly prepared and altered juices of the earth.

GRAFTING, CHANGES SAID TO BE PRODUCED BY. Many have talked of changing of colour or producing mixed fruits, by engrafting one tree upon another of the same class; but as the grafts draw the juices from the stock to the pulp of the fruit, there is little hope of succeeding in this expectation by ever so many repeated attempts. But if, after changing the graft and stock, you set the seed of the fruit produced by the graft in a good mould, it is possible that a new mixed plant may be produced. Thus the almond and peach may, by changes in the graftings, and by interchanging the stones of the peaches, and of the shells of the almonds, and by variations of the stem, root here and there, alter their nature so that the coat or pulp of the almond may become like to the nature of the peach, and the peach may have its kernel enlarged into a kind of almond. And on the same principle, the curious M. Du Hamel has observed, that, in grafting, there is always found at the insertion of the graft, a change in the direction of the fibres, and a twisting or turning about of the vessels, greatly imitating that in the formation of glands in animal bodies: and thence he conjectures that a new sort of viscus being thus formed, the fruit may be so far influenced by it, as to be altered on the new branch; but that no such

sudden and essential changes can be effected by those means, as many writers on agriculture pretend. He observes, however, that this anatomical observation would not have been sufficient to convince him of the falsity of these relations, had not experiment joined to confirm him in this opinion. He tried many grafts on different trees; and, for fear of error, repeated every experiment of consequence several times: but all served only to convince him of the truth of what he at first suspected. He grafted in the common way the peach upon the almond, the plum upon the apricot, the pear upon the apple, the quince, and the white thorn; one species of plum on other very different species, and upon the peach the apricot and the almond. All these succeeded alike: the species of the fruit was never altered; and in those which would not come to fruit, the leaves, the wood, and the flowers, were all the same with those of the tree from whence the graft was taken. Writers on agriculture have also mentioned a very different sort of grafting; namely, the setting of grafts of one tree upon stocks of a different genus; such as the grafting the pear upon the oak, the elm, the maple, or the plum, &c. M. Du Hamel tried a great number of those experiments carefully, and found every one of them unsuccessful; and the natural conclusion from this was, that there must be some natural alliance between the stocks and their grafts, otherwise the latter will either never grow at all, or very soon perish.

(IV.) **GRAFTING, CIRCUMSTANCES CONTRIBUTING TO PROMOTE OR PREVENT SUCCESS IN.** Notwithstanding the facility with which grafts generally take on good stocks, there are many accidents and uncertainties attending them in their different periods. Some perish immediately; some, after appearing healthy for many months, and some even for years. Of these last some die without the stock suffering any thing; others perish together with the stocks. It is certain, that the greater part of grafted trees do not live so long as they would have done in their natural state; yet this is no invariable rule: for there are some which evidently live the longer for this practice; nay, there are instances of grafts which, being placed on stocks naturally of short duration, live longer than when placed on those which are more robust and lasting. These irregularities have been but little considered, though they might be made productive of considerable advantages. One great requisite for the succeeding of any graft is, that it be in its own nature capable of so close and intimate an union with the substance of the stock, that it becomes as it were a natural branch of it. If all trees resembled one another in their structure and juices, the size and elasticity of their vessels, &c. probably the grafts of all trees would succeed upon one another; but this is not the case. Trees are composed of numerous arrangements of hollow fibres, and these are different and unequal in every species of tree. In order to the succeeding of a graft, it is plain that there must be a conformity in its vessels and juices with those of the stock. The more nearly they agree in this, probably the better they succeed; and the farther they differ, the worse. If there be some difference in the solid

parts of trees, there are evidently many more in the juices. The sap in some trees is white as milk, in others it is reddish, and in some as clear and limpid as water. In some, it is thin and very fluid; in others, thick and viscous. In the taste and smell of these juices there are also no less differences: some are sweet, some insipid, some bitter, some acrid, and some fetid: the quality of the sap thus makes a very great difference in the nature of trees; but its quantity, and derivation to the parts, is scarce less observable. Of this we have familiar instances in the willow and the box; one of which will produce longer shoots in one year than the other in 20. Another difference yet more striking, and indeed more essential in regard to the growth of grafts than all these, is the different season of the year at which trees shoot out their leaves, or ripen their flowers. The almond tree is in flower before other trees in general have opened their earliest buds; and when other trees are in flower, this is full of leaves, and has its fruit set before the mulberry begins to push out its earliest buds. When we consider all these differences in trees, we are apt to wonder how it is possible for a branch of one to live upon another; and it becomes a much more perplexing question how any graft can succeed, than how such numbers come to miscarry. A graft of one pear upon another shall be seen to succeed presently as if upon its own tree; and in a fortnight will gain six inches in length, and so of some others. This must be owing to the great similarity between the stock and the graft in all respects; and a great contrariety or difference in the structure of parts will make as remarkable a difference on the other hand. An instance of this may be observed in the plum and the elm; which no art can ever make to succeed upon one another, whether the plum be grafted on the elm, or the elm upon the plum stock. These are examples of the extremes of easy growth, and of absolute decay; but there are many conjunctions of trees which see in of a middle nature between the two, and neither immediately perish, nor entirely succeed. Of these, such as were grafted in autumn usually remain green the whole winter without pushing; and those which are grafted in spring remain green a month or longer, but still without shooting. Some have also been known to make a few shoots the first, or even the ad sap season after the operation; but all perish at the end of these times. Of this kind are the grafts of the pear tree upon the elm, the maple, and the horn-beam, and the mulberry upon the elm and fig, with many others. When we inquire into the cause of this, we find these grafts, though unnatural, have yet had a communication with the stock by means of a few small vessels, which has been sufficient to keep them green, or even to make them shoot a little, during the great ascent of the sap: But the greater number of the fibres have had all the white no communication, and are found purified, dried up, or covered with a putrid juice. This has evidently happened by means of the disproportion in size between the vessels of the stock and of the graft, and the great difference between their natural juices, which are obstacles sufficient to prevent either an union of the fibres or the introduc-

tion of new sap. The grafts of the plum, and of the plum on the elm grow very vigorously for the first year; every appearance of succeeding shoots always perish in the ad. or 3d. year. An almond graft upon the plum stock shoots out very vigorously at first; but the stock immediately under the graft perishes, the graft absorbing too much juice, and the graft necessarily perishes. The decay of the whole generally begins in the spring, plainly from the difference in the natural shooting of the two trees; the plum pushing very vigorously, and consequently the stock of its juices, at a time of its nature, the juices are but scanty in it, and the sap does not begin to rise. The grafts of the plum on the almond, the same cause, furnished with an abundance of sap which they have at that time so much need of, and consequently they are certainly successful, as the other of inanition. A graft on the plum succeeds and lives longer than it would have done on the elm; the reason seems to be, that the tender tree, shoots with great vivacity, and produces more branches than the root is able to sustain. Thus the peach trees are full of dead wood; and often their large branches and sometimes their whole trunk, decay. The plum, being a slow shooter, communicates its virtue to the graft; and consequently sends out shoots which are robust and strong, and are no more than the root is able to supply with nourishment; consequently the tree is the more lasting.

(V.) GRAFTING, GENERAL DIRECTIONS. The grafts, or cions, when the grafting is effected, are young shoots of the summer's growth, for they must be less than one year, and such as grow on the trunk, and robust but moderate; such also as are firm and well ripened. The ways be chosen from healthy trees, that the middle part of each shoot is the best graft, cut at the time of grafting, 4 or 5 inches in length, or so as to have 4 or 5 joints, but should be preserved at full length till time, and then prepared as follows: The grafts, when they are to be cut from the trees in February, is better, before the buds begin to swell, much for shooting: in collecting such as have not made lateral or side shoots, cut them off at full length; and if they are used as soon as they are collected, lay them in some dry earth in a warm hot bed for some time; and, if severe weather should cover them with dry litter.

(VI.) GRAFTING, SEASONS PROPER FOR PERFORMING THE OPERATION. The best season for performing the operation is February and March. When performed in February, it is generally most successful for cherries, plums, and pears; but best adapted for apples.

(VII.) GRAFTING, TOOLS AND MANNER. There are, 1. A strong knife for cutting off the heads of the stocks, and

tion of the graft; also a small hand saw for personal use in cutting off the heads of large stocks. 2. A common grafting knife, or strong open-knife, for cutting and shaping the grafts for insertion; also to slope and form the stock for the reception of the grafts. 3. A flat grafting chisel and small mallet for clefting large stocks in cleft-grafting, for the reception of the grafts. 4. A quantity of new bass strings for bandaging for tying the grafted parts close, to secure the grafts, and promote their speedy union with the stock. And, 5. A quantity of grafting clay, being closely round the grafts after their insertion and binding, to defend the parts from being dried by the sun and winds, or too much cooled by wet, or pinched by cold; for these grafts ought to be closely surrounded with a coat of clay, in such a manner as effectually to guard them from all weathers, which would prove injurious to young grafts, and destroy their cementing property, so as to prevent the junction: therefore, a kind of stiff loamy mortar must be made of strong fat loam, or, in default thereof, of tough binding clay, either of which may be laid in a heap, adding thereto about $\frac{1}{4}$ of horse dung free from litter, and a portion of cut hay, mixing the whole well together, adding a little water: then let the whole be beaten with a stick upon a floor, or other substance; and as it becomes too dry, apply water, at every beating turning it over, always continuing to beat it well at top till it be quite flat; which must be repeated more or less according to the nature of the clay, but should be several times done the first day: next morning repeat the beating, still moistening it with water; by thus repeating the beating 6 or 8 times a day for 2 or 3 days, or every other day at least for a week, it will be in proper order for observing, it should be prepared a week at least before it is used, but a month is better.

III.) GRAFTING, VARIOUS METHODS OF. There are different methods of grafting practised; as *Whip-grafting*, *Cleft-grafting*, *Crown-grafting*, *Side-grafting*, *Root-grafting*, *Grafting by approach*, or *Inarching*: but the first three are most commonly used; and Whip-grafting is the best of all, as being most expeditious and successful.

Crown-GRAFTING. Cut the head of the stock off, horizontally, and pare the top smooth; cut one side sloping $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 inches deep, and the lower part of the graft sloping the same way, making a sort of shoulder at top of the graft part. Then place it upon the sloped part of the stock, resting the shoulder upon the crown of the stock, and bind the parts close together with a string, bringing it in a neat manner several times round the stock and graft; then clay the whole with a coat an inch thick on every side, from about an inch or more below the bottom of the graft, to an inch over the top of the stock, finishing the whole coat of clay in a kind of oval globe form, rather longwise, up and down, close effectually about the cion, and every part so that no sun, wind, or wet may penetrate, to prevent which is the whole intention of claying. Examine it now and then, to see if it any where

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cracks or falls off, and if it does, it must be instantly repaired with fresh clay.

2. **Cleft-GRAFTING** is so called, because the stock being large is cleft or slit down the middle for the reception of the graft; and is performed upon stocks from about one to two inches diameter. First, with a strong knife cut off the head of the stock; or if the stock is very large, it may be headed with a saw; and cut one side sloping upwards about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches to the top; then proceed with a strong knife or chisel, to cleave the stock at top, cross-way the slope, fixing the knife towards the back of the slope, and strike it with a mallet, so as to cleave the stock about two inches, or long enough to admit the graft, keeping it open with the chisel; this done, prepare the cion, cutting it to such length as to leave 4 or 5 eyes, the lower part of which being sloped on each side, like a wedge, $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 inches long, making one side to a thin edge, the other much thicker, leaving the rind thereon, which side must be placed outward in the stock; the cion being thus formed, and the cleft in the stock being kept open with the chisel, place the graft therein at the back of the stock the thickest side outward, placing the whole cut part down into the cleft of the stock, making the rind of the stock and graft join exactly; then removing the grafting chisel, each side of the cleft will closely squeeze the graft, so as to hold it fast; it is then to be bound with a ligature of bass, and clayed over, as directed above, (see § 1.), leaving 3 or 4 eyes of the cions uncovered. If it be intended to graft any pretty large stocks or branches by this method, two or more grafts may be inserted in each. 1. In this case the head must be cut off horizontally, making no slope on the side, but smooth the top, then cleave it quite across, and place a graft on each side, as the stock may be cleft in two places, and insert two grafts in each cleft; they are thus to be tied and clayed. This method of grafting may be performed upon the branches of bearing trees, when intended either to renew the wood or change the sort of fruit. Towards the end of May, or the beginning of June, the junction of the graft and stock in either method will be effectually formed, and the graft begin to shoot, when the clay may be taken off, and in a fortnight or three weeks after the bandages likewise.

3. **Crown-GRAFTING** is commonly practised upon such stocks as are too large to cleave, and is often performed upon the large branches of apple and pear trees, &c. that already bear fruit, when it is intended to change the sorts, or renew the tree with fresh-bearing wood. It is termed *crown-grafting*, because the stock or branch being headed down, several grafts are inserted at top all around betwixt the wood and bark, so as to give it a crown-like appearance. This kind of grafting should not be performed until March or early in April; for then the sap being in motion, renders the bark and wood of the stock much easier to be separated for the admission of the graft. The manner of performing it is this: First, cut off the head of the stock or branch with a saw horizontally, and pare the top smooth; then having the grafts, cut one side of each flat, and somewhat sloping, an inch and a half, forming a

D d d

late.

set of shoulder at top of the stock to rest upon the crown of the stock; and then raising the rind of the stock with a wedge, so as to admit the cion between that and the wood two inches down, place the graft with the flat side next the wood, thrusting it down far enough for the shoulder to rest upon the top of the stock; and in this manner may be put 3, 4, 5, or more grafts into one large stock or branch. When the grafts are thus inserted, let the whole be tied tight and well clayed; but leave 2 or 3 eyes of each graft uncovered, and raise the clay an inch above the top of the stock, so as to throw the wet quickly off, without lodging about the grafted parts, which would ruin the whole. Crown-grafting may also be performed, by making several clefts in the crown of the stock, and inserting the grafts round the top of the clefts. The grafts will be pretty well united with the stock, and exhibit a state of growth, by the end of May or beginning of June, and the clay may then be taken away. The trees grafted by this method succeed extremely well; but, for the first two or three years, have this inconvenience attending them, that they are liable to be blown out of the stock by violent winds; which must be remedied by tying long sticks to the body of the stock or branch, and tying each graft up to one of the sticks.

4. *Root-Grafting* is performed by Whip-grafting cions (See § 6) upon pieces of the root of any tree of the same genus, and planting the root where it is to remain. It will take root, draw nourishment, and feed the graft.

5. *Side-Grafting* is by inserting grafts into the sides of the branches without heading them down; and may be practised upon trees to fill up any vacancy, or for the purpose of variety, to have several sorts of apples, pears, plums, &c. upon the same tree. It is performed thus. Fix upon such parts of the branches where wood is wanted to furnish the head or any part of the tree; there slope off the bark and a little of the wood, and cut the lower end of the grafts to fit the part as near as possible; then join them to the branch, and tie them with bawls, and clay them over.

6. *Whip-Grafting* is always performed upon small stocks, from about the size of a goose quill to half an inch or a little more or less in diameter, but the nearer the stock and graft approach in size the better. It is called *whip-grafting*, because the grafts and stocks being nearly of a size, are sloped on one side, to fit each other, and tied together in the manner of whips. The method is as follows: Cut off the head of the stock at some clear smooth part; then cut one side sloping upward, about 1½ or near 2 inches in length, and make a notch or small slit near the upper part of the slope downward about half an inch long, to receive the tongue of the cion; then prepare the cion, cutting it to 3 or 6 inches in length, forming the lower end also in a sloping manner, so as exactly to fit the sloped part of the stock, as if cut from the same place, that the rinds of both may join evenly in every part; and make a slit so as to form a sort of tongue to fit the slit made in the slope of the stock; then place the graft, inserting the tongue of it into the slit of the stock, applying the parts as evenly and close as

possible; and immediately tie the part and cover them with clay, as above directed. This sort of grafting may also be performed, if necessary, upon the young shoots of a tree, if intended to alter the sort; have more than one slit on the stem the middle or end of May, the grafts united with the stock, as will be seen shooting of the graft; then the clay wholly taken away; but suffer the stock to remain some time longer, until they seem to swell and be too much obnoxious to the signature; then take it wholly off.

7. *Grafting by Approach*, or *Approach*, is, when the stocks designed to be united, the tree from which you intend to take either grow so near, or can be placed together, that the branch or graft may approach the stock, without separating the tree, till after its union or junction; so that the graft being bound they approach and form a sort of all the names. Being a sure method, it is only practised upon such trees as are made to succeed by any of the others. When intended to propagate any tree or shrub by this method of grafting, &c. is of the hardy kind, and the soil ground, a proper quantity of for stocks must be set round it; and of a proper height, the work of approach may be performed; or, if the branches designed to be grafted from is too high, in that case stocks must be planted; a slight stage must be erected around the due height to reach the branches; containing the stocks must be placed stage. This method of grafting is performed with the head of the stock sometimes with the head left on it united with the stock; though by preserving the stock, the work is much easier and having no top, its whole effort is tied to the nourishment of the graft; stocks properly placed, either planted in or in pots around the tree to be then make the most convenient brand the stock, and mark on the body of the parts where they will most easily stock, and in those parts of each to way the bark and part of the wood inches in length, and in the same the stock in the proper place for the graft; then make a slit upwards so as to form a sort of tongue, and downwards in the stock to admit it; be then joined, slipping the tongue into the slit of the stock, making it in an exact manner, and tie them close with bawls, and afterwards cover the due quantity of clay, as in the other. After this, let a stout stake be fixed part of each graft; to which let the stock and graft be fastened, which prevent their being disjoined by the operation being performed in spring, main in that position about a month will be united, and the graft may be

the mother tree. In doing this, be-
erform it with a steady hand, so as not
r break out the graft, sloping it off
close to the stock; and if the head
s was not cut down at the time of
must now be done close to the graft,
clay and bandage must also be cleared
replaced with new, to remain a few
r. If the grafts are not firmly united
ock in the period above mentioned,
emain another year till autumn, before
e separated from the parent tree. By
f grafting may be raised almost any
or shrub, which is often done by way
, to ingraft a fruit-bearing branch of
upon any common stock of the same
rchy a new tree bearing fruit is raised
nthis. This is sometimes practised u-
and lemon trees, &c. by grafting bea-
s of a fruit tree upon any common
! from the kernels of any of the same
it, or into branches of each other, so
oranges, lemons, and citrons, all on
ee.

GRAFTING, NEW METHOD OF. An anony-
r, in a treatise published at Hamburg,
sanitates Hortensium Novæ, recommends
od of grafting trees, so as to have very
ramids of fruit upon them, which will
eauty, flavour, and quantity, all that
erwise produced. This, he says, he
perienced, and gives the following me-
ng it;—The trees are to be transplant-
on, and all their branches cut off. Ear-
llowing summer the young shoots are
d off, and the buds are then to be en-
them in an inverted direction. This,
da not only to the beauty of the pyra-
also makes the branches more fruitful.
be closely connected to the trunk, and
ied in with the common ligature: they
laced circularly round the tree, three
h circle, and these circles at six inches
m one another. The old trees may be
this manner, the success having been
good in those of 20 years standing;
ost eligible trees are those which are
orous, and full of juice, and are not a-
per or two thick. When these young
ansplanted, they must be fenced round
to defend them from the violence of
and there must be no dung put to them
e thoroughly rooted, for fear of rotting
e the fibres strike. The buds ingrafted
all, that the wounds made in the bark
them, not being very large, may heal
; and if the buds do not succeed, which
ceived in a fortnight, there must be o-
n their place. The wound made to re-
buds must be a straight cut, parallel to
n; and the piece of bark taken out must
ards, that the rain may not get in at
d. In the autumn of the same year,
e a green and flourishing pyramid; and
ummer it will flower, and ripen its fruit

GRAFTON, Richard, an English histo-

rian, born at London, in the reign of Henry VIII.
He published, 1. *An Abridgement of the Chronicles
of England*; and, 2. *A Chronicle and large History
of the Affairs of England and Kings of the same,
ordered from the Creation of the World*. He died
in the reign of Q. Elizabeth.

(2.) **GRAFTON**, a town of England, in Gloucester-
shire, on the borders of Worcestershire, and near
Bredon hill; from the side of which, in Feb. 1764,
16 acres of land slipped down and covered a large
field at the foot of the hill. This extraordinary
occurrence is ascribed to the great rain which had
fallen incessantly for some time before.

(3.) **GRAFTON**, a township of Massachusetts, in
Worcester county, containing 900 citizens in 1795;
8 miles E. of Worcester, and 40 SW. of Boston.

(4.) **GRAFTON**, an extensive county of New
Hampshire, bounded on the E. by Maine District,
S. by Strafford, Hillsborough and Cheshire coun-
ties; W. by Vermont, and N. by Canada. It is
divided into 50 townships and 17 locations; and
contained 13,451 citizens and 21 slaves in 1797.

(5.) **GRAFTON**, a township of the above coun-
ty, (N^o 4.) containing 401 inhabitants in 1797;
13 miles SE. of Dartmouth, and 19 SW. of Ply-
mouth.

(6.) **GRAFTON**, or **GRAFTON ISLAND**, one of
the Bashee islands in the E. Indian Sea. Lon. 139.
o. W. Lat. 21. 4. N.

(7—15.) **GRAFTON** is also the name of 9 Eng-
lish villages; viz. 1. in Cheshire, on the Dee NW.
of Malpas: 2. in Bucks, near Leighton: 3. in
Northamptonsh. NE. of Kettering: 4. in Oxford-
sh. on the Isis: 5. in Shrewsbury: 6. and 7. East
and West in Wilts: 8. in Worcestershire near
Bromsgrove: and 9. in Yorksh. SE. of Borough-
bridge.

GRAFUESKOI, a fort of Russia, in the prov.
of Kolivan, on the Irtysh.

GRAGNANO, a town of Italy, in the repub-
lic of Lucca, 4 miles NE. of Lucca.

GRAGNONA, a town of the Cisalpine repub-
lic, in the dept. of Crostolo, and late duchy of
Modena.

(1.) **GRAHAM**, George, clock and watch ma-
ker, the most ingenious and accurate artist in his
time, was born in 1675. After his apprentice-
ship, Mr. Tompion received him into his family,
purely on account of his merit; and treated him
with a kind of parental affection as long as he lived.
Beside his universally acknowledged skill in his
profession, he was a complete mechanic and astro-
nomer; the great mural arch in the observatory
at Greenwich was made for Dr Halley, under his
immediate inspection, and divided by his own hand;
and from this incomparable original, the best fo-
reign instruments of the kind are copies made by
English artists. The sector, by which Dr Bradley
first discovered two new motions in the fixed stars,
was of his invention and fabric; and when the
French academicians were sent to the north to
ascertain the figure of the earth, Mr Graham
was thought the fittest person in Europe to sup-
ply them with instruments: those who went to
the south were not so well furnished. He was
for many years a member of the Royal Society, to
which he communicated several ingenious and

Mahometan Paradise. And to crown all, the most elegant oratory was called in, and the imagination excited to its highest pitch, by the most lush descriptions, (though in the most chaste language,) delivered by the Doctor himself, in his *extrinsic Lecture on Generation*; which he read in the most elegant and graceful manner to very crowded audiences. It cannot be doubted, that this exhibition, pushed away in all the London terms in the most extravagant terms, must have brought in a great deal of money from the votaries of the Doctor; yet instead of making money by his lectures and lectures, he only run himself in debt, by the immense expense attending them. This was the more surprising, as the Doctor, so long living luxuriously, not only abstained from spirits, and all strong liquors, but even from animal food, eating nothing but vegetables, and drinking nothing but cold water. Consistent with this abstinence, he recommended the same to others, in a *Sermon*, which he preached in the Tolbooth of Edinburgh, in 1783, and afterwards printed and sold for the benefit of his library that text, *All Flesh is Grass*. (Isaiah xl. 6.) The occasion of his imprisonment was this.—In May 1783, while his Temple of Health was in vogue, he paid a 2d visit to his native city, and the first time gave his fellow citizens a specimen of his rhetorical powers, by delivering his *extrinsic Lecture on Generation*, a subject which the magistrates of Edinburgh considered as so very improper for public discussion, that they exerted their authority to suppress it. Upon this our Doctor published a fresh advertisement, reflecting in the keenest terms upon the city magistrates, and containing such striking personal scurrility against a respectable member of council, that the magistrates incarcerated him in the tolbooth. Upon his applying however to the Lords of Session for a bill of suspension, he got out of jail, and continued to deliver his *extrinsic lecture*, as long as public curiosity lasted. But though he doubtless collected money by this exhibition, he never afterwards recovered character in Scotland so as to be employed again in his medical capacity, by a people of rank;—not even by those to whom he had formerly been of signal service. During the winter session of 1784, he took it into his head to attend the lectures of all the medical professors in the university of Edinburgh; as well as those of the late celebrated Dr John Brown, (see BROWN, p. 2.) to whose erudition and abilities he paid very high compliments, although his system of medicine was diametrically opposite to his own. **THE BRUKONIAN SYSTEM.**) In 1785 and 1786, Dr Graham visited Newcastle, and various other places in England; but in the end of 1787, he returned to Edinburgh in a new and extraordinary character, viz. that of a teacher sent from God, to announce the MILLENNIUM, the 2d coming of Christ, and the final consummation of all things. The cause of this phrenzy some ascribed to his abominable manner of living; others to his having changed too suddenly to that, from former habits of dissipation; others to distress of circumstances, and others to the large quantities of æther, which is certain, that at this time he daily swallowed.

But whether all of these causes might not co-operate, certain it is, that the most fanatical enthusiasts in the darkest ages could not have published more ridiculous advertisements, than the Doctor at this time issued. He not only styled himself "*the servant of the Lord! O! W. L!*" (i. e. as he explained it, "Oh wonderful love!") but commenced a new chronological æra, dating his bills "the 1st, 2d, &c. days of the first month of the 1st year of the *New Jerusalem Church!*" But before the commencement of the 2d month, the servant of the Lord was most profanely confined by order of the magistrates, not indeed in the tolbooth as formerly, but in his own house. At last he was obliged to confess, that "he felt the devil, the world, and the flesh, too strong for him, and therefore he supposed that the Lord must look out for another fore-runner of his second coming." Amidst all the eccentricities, however, of this singular character, it is but justice to mention, that on a variety of occasions he has given proofs of a benevolent and charitable disposition; and what is still more to his honour, he has upon all occasions, when he visited Edinburgh, paid the utmost attention and respect to his aged parents. It afforded indeed a singular contrast of character to observe him, at the very time he was giving public lectures, of such a nature, as, in the opinion of the magistrates, tended to excite all the young fellows in the city to those vices which youth are generally but too prone to, daily riding out in his coach with his parents, who were two of the most strict old-fashioned Calvinistic Presbyterians in the metropolis.—Amidst the various vicissitudes of Dr Graham's life, nothing was more fortunate for him, than that one of his medical treatises should have proved beneficial to a gentleman of fortune at Geneva; who, as a mark of his esteem and gratitude, sent him a bond, upon the bank of England, settling on him an annuity of L. 50 a-year for life. What this gentleman's disease was, or what the mode of cure recommended in the treatise, we have not heard; but amongst other eccentric methods of cure recommended to his patients by the Doctor, one of the most extraordinary was, his *burying them alive up to the neck in earth* for 10 or 12 hours together. This method he practised himself, as well as recommended to his patients, but we have not heard any authentic accounts of a single cure made by this practice. On the contrary, his sister's husband, who had been afflicted with a kind of dropical swelling over great part of his body, underwent the operation, but died soon after the experiment. The Dr's method of sleeping and cloathing himself was perhaps as different from the ordinary practice as his regimen of eating and drinking. He made it a point to wear no woollen clothes, nor any thing made of any animal substance: and he slept upon a hair mattress, without feather-bed or blankets, and with his windows open in all weathers and seasons. He alleged, and perhaps with some truth, that most of our diseases are occasioned by too much heat; and he carried his cooling regimen so far, that in 1787, he was in terms with the tacksmen of the King's Park, for liberty to build a house

house upon the top of Arthur's Seat, in order to try how far he could bear the utmost degree of cold, that the climate of Edinburgh affords; but, though the tackman was willing, the noble proprietor could not be prevailed upon to give his consent, lest the multitude of the Doctor's patients and visitors should destroy the grass in the park. This singular genius died at Edinburgh, 23d June, 1794.

(4.) GRAHAM, Mrs Catherine M'Aulay. See MACAULAY.

(5.) GRAHAM, Sir John, of Abercorn, or Dundaff, one of the brave patriots who fought along with Wallace, against the English invaders under Edward I. He was killed at the battle of Falkirk, in 1298, where the following inscription (repeatedly renewed) is to be seen on his monument:

*"Mente manique potens, et VALLÆ fidus Achates,
Conditur hic GRAHAMUS, bello interfectus ab Anglia,
XXII. Julii, 1298."*

Thus translated by one of our old Scots poets:

"Here lies Sir John the Graham, Wallace's true Achates,

"A hero stout and bold, sell'd by the English
bawties."

(6.) GRAHAM, Sir Richard, lord viscount Preston, eldest son of Sir George Graham of Netherby, in Cumberland, Bart. was born in 1648. He was sent ambassador by Charles II. to Lewis XIV. and was master of the wardrobe and secretary of state under James II. But when the Revolution took place, he was tried and condemned, on an accusation of attempting the restoration of that prince; though he obtained a pardon by the queen's intercession. He spent the remainder of his days in retirement, and published an elegant translation of Boethius on the consolation of philosophy. He died in 1693.

GRAHAM'S DYKE. See ANTONINUS'S WALL.

GRAHAM'S MOOR, a moor of Scotland in Stirlingshire, 1 mile SE of Falkirk, where the brave Sir John Graham was killed, and the patriotic Sir W. Wallace fought his way through the English army in 1298.

GRAHAMSTON, a village of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, near Glasgow, containing 896 inhabitants in 1791.

GRAIÆ MONTES, in ancient geography, the name given by Pliny to that part of the Alps, which lies between France and Italy, and by which they pass out of Italy into the ci-devant province of Provence.

GRAIGEMANACH, a town of Ireland, in Kilkenny, on the Barrow, over which it has a bridge, 10 miles from the sea. The tide flows up to it.

GRAIGSTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kilkenny and prov. of Leinster.

* GRAIL. *n. f.* [from *grele*, Fr.] Small particles of any kind.—

Hereof this gentle knight unweeting was,
And, lying down upon the sandy *grails*,
Drank of the stream as clear as crystal *grails*. *Spens.*

(1.) GRAIN, John Baptist LE, counsellor and master of requests to Mary de Medicis queen of France, was born in 1565, and was much esteemed by Henry IV. He wrote a work entitled *De regibus*, containing *The History of Henry the Great*,

and of Lewis XIII. from the beginning of to the death of the marshal d'Ancre. This history is reckoned to be wrote with fidelity, and the spirit of a true patriot; it contains many things not to be found elsewhere, and vigorously defends the edict that had been issued to the reformed. He died at Paris in 1621.

(2.) * GRAIN. *n. f.* [*graine*, Fr. *grano*, Italian, has all the following significations. 1. A single seed of corn.—

Look into the seeds of time,
And say which *grains* will grow, and which
not.

—His reasons are as two *grains* of wheat,
Two bushels of chaff. *Shak. Merch. of Ven.*

Let them pronounce the steep Tarpeian
Vagabond, exile, flaying, pent to stocks;
But with a *grain* a day, I would not lose them.

Their mercy at the price of one tarpeian
—Many of the ears, being six inches long,
17 *grains* in them, and none less than 15.

Shak. Timon. 2. Corn.—

As it ebbes, the seedman
Upon the slime and ooze scatters his seed,
And shortly comes to harvest.

Fales no longer swell'd the tennens
Nor Phœbus led his oxen on the plain.
—'Tis a rich soil, I grant you; but covered
with weeds than *grain*. *Collier on the
The seed of any fruit.* 4. Any minute
any single body.—

Thou exist'st on many thousand *grains*
That issue out of dust. *Shak. Hamlet.*

By intelligence
And proofs as clear as founts in Jove.

We see each *grain* of gravel. *Shak. Hamlet.*

5. The smallest weight, of which in Troy weight it makes 2 scruples, and in Troy weight a pennyweight, a grain so named because it is of equal weight with a grain of barley. It is a precious diamond, whose *grains* are double, twice double in their value. *Hoyds* began at a known body, a barley corn, 1 whereof is therefore called a *grain*; which being multiplied, to scruples, drachms, and pounds. *Holder*.—The trial being made with lead and lead, weighing severally even in the air; the balance in the water weighed 4 drachms and 41 *grains*, and about weight in the air a drachms and 19 *gr* balance kept the same depth in the water as his brain.

Outweigh'd his rage but half a *grain*.
6. Any thing proverbially small.—For world before thee is as a little *grain* of thine. *Wyd. xi. 21*.—It is a sincerely pliable temper, that neglects not to make use of of grace. *Hammond*.—The ungrateful person to himself, and subsists by the good others, of which he himself has not the least. *Soub.* 7. GRAIN of ALLOWANCE. Some indulged or remitted; something above the exact weight.—He, whose very heart must be seen with *grains* of allowance, too mild, moderate, and forgiving, would always give some *grains* of allowance to the sacred science of theology. *Harris on the*

on of the fibres of wood, or other fir.—

by the conflux of meeting sap,
found pine, and divert his *grain*
and errant from his course of growth.

Shakepeare.

y of the wood as modified by the fir.

ech, the swimming alder, and the plane,
, and linden of a softer *grain*. *Dryden.*
ly considered with respect to the form
of the constituent particles.—The
sea-horse, in the midst of the solid
ins a curdled *grain* not to be found
paw.—Stones of a constitution so com-

grain so fine, that they bear a fine
ward. 11. Dyed or stained substance.
re red roses flush up in her cheeks,
pure snow with goodly vermil stain,
tion dy'd in *grain*.

Spenser.

Over his lucid arms
y vest of purple flow'd,
han melibzean, or the *grain*
worn by kings and heroes old. *Milton.*
pensive nun, devote and pure,
che of darkest *grain*
with majestick train.

Milton.

The third, his feet
d from either heel with feather'd mail,
ur'd *grain*! *Milton's Paradise Lost.*
r; disposition; inclination; humour
rection of fibres.—

r minds, preoccupied with what
er mult do than with what you should do,
u against the *grain* to voice him consul.

Shakepeare.

Hudibras, it is in vain,
argue 'gainst the *grain*. *Hudibras.*
ents, weary'd out with fruitless care,
their hopes of eating, and despair;
much against the *grain*, forc'd to retire,
s for supper, and provide a fire. *Dryd.*
art; the bottom.—The one being trac-
ild, the other stiff and impatient of a
ey lived but in cunning concord, as
ied together, but not united in *grain*.

14. The form of the surface with re-
ghness and smoothness.—The smaller
s of cutting substances are, the smaller
scratches by which they continually
ar away the glais until it be polished;
never so small, they can wear away
otherwise than by grating and scratch-
reaking the protuberances; and there-
it no otherwise than by breaking its
o a very fine *grain*, so that the scratch-
ings of the surface become too small
s. *Newton's Opticks.*

IN. See BARLEY, CORN, WHEAT, &c.
IN, OILY. See SESAMUM.

RAIN, SCARLET. See CACTUS, N°
1, N° 6; and QUERCUS, N° 4.

RAIN WEIGHT (§ 2. def. 5.) of gold
worth two-pence, and of silver on-
thing.

OAST. See MALAGUETTA.

DORGE, Andrew, a French physician
pher of the Epicurean sect, born at

Caen in Normandy, in 1616. Among other works
he published a curious treatise on fire, light, and
colours. He died in 1676.

* GRAINED. *adj.* [from *grain*.] Rough; made
less smooth.—

Though now this *grained* face of mine be hid
In sap consuming Winter's drizzled snow,

Yet hath my night of life some memory. *Shak.*

(1.) GRAINGER, James, an English divine of the
18th century, author of a valuable work entitled
The Biographical History of England: in 4 vols 8vo.
He was vicar of Shiplake in Oxfordshire, and was
seized with an apoplectic fit, while administering
the sacrament, April 14th, 1776, and died next
morning.

(2.) GRAINGER, a new county of the United
States in Tennessee, in Hamilton district.

(3.) GRAINGER FORT, a fort in Tennessee, on
the N. side of the Holston, at its mouth.

(1.) * GRAINS. *n. s.* [without a singular.] The
husks of malt exhausted in brewing.—

Give them *grains* their fill,

Husks, draff, to drink and swill. *Ben Jonson.*

(2.) * GRAINS OF PARADISE. *n. s.* [*cardamo-
mun*, Latin.] An Indian spice.

(3.) GRAINS OF PARADISE. See AMOMUM, § 2.

GRAINVILLE, a town of France in the dep.
of the Lower Seine, 3 miles S. of Cany, and 13½
N. of Caudebec.

* GRAINY. *adj.* [from *grain*.] 1. Full of corn.
2. Full of grains or kernels.

(1.) GRAITNEY, a parish of Scotland, in Dum-
fries shire, lying along the Solway Frith, in the
form of an oblong square, 6 miles long and 3 broad.
The climate is temperate, the air healthful, and
many of the natives long-lived; instances occurring
of people dying at 100, 103, 110, and 111. The
Eden, Esk, and Sark, uniting form the head of the
Solway Frith and the S. boundary of the parish.
The rivers and the coast abound with salmon, stur-
geons, cod, flounders, trouts, pikes, &c. The
soil is various, but fertile; mostly dry and sandy;
with some mosses. The annual produce has been
greatly increased by the inclosures and other im-
provements made by the proprietors. Of 10,240
acres, 2000 are annually under oats, 550 under
barley, 200 in potatoes, 80 under wheat, pease,
and beans, 60 in turnips, 15 under flax, 600 in
meadow and sown grass, 6000 in pasture, and 735
in moss. The total produce is valued at 18,241 l.
15 s. The exports are estimated at 7,810 l. The
live stock, in 1793, was 186 horses, 40 sheep, 528
swine, and 900 black cattle, valued at 7,342 l.
Coals, wood, tar, salt, and slates, are imported
to the amount of 10,190 l. The population, in
1793, stood along with the above particulars, by
the rev. J. Morgan, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair,
was 1815; and the increase, since 1755, 759. In
autumn 1792, *natural tar* was found in a hollow
of a tree-stone quarry. The statute labour being
commuted, the roads and bridges are good.

(2.) GRAITNEY GREEN, a village in the above
parish, long famous for the clandestine marriages
of young persons of fortune from England; per-
formed according to the rites of the church of
England, by a blacksmith, who is said to gain
near 1,000 l. a-year by this encroachment on the
clerical office.

(3.) **GRAITNEY HILL**, [supposed to have been originally named *Great-Know*], a hill in the above parish, (N^o 1.) to which it gives name.

GRAJUELA, a town of Spain, in Murcia.

GRAIUS Mons, in ancient geography, the name given by Tacitus to the highest of the **GRAIÆ MONTES**; now called *Monte St Bernard*, famous for being passed, notwithstanding its tremendous height, and eternal snow, in May, 1800, by general Bonaparte, with 30,000 troops, and all their heavy artillery, &c. See **BERNARD**, N^o 7.

GRACLE. See **GRACULA**.

GRALLÆ, in ornithology, an order of birds analogous to the *bruta* in the class of *mammalia*, in the Linnæan system. See **ZOOLOGY** and **ORNITHOLOGY**.

GRAM, a river of Denmark, which runs into the North Sea, 2 miles N. of Ripen.

GRAMAFFETTEN, a town of Germany, in Austria, 12 miles SW. of Freustadt.

GRAMAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 8 miles SW. of St Cere and 21½ NNE. of Cahors. Lon. 19. 23. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 47. N.

GRAMATA, a town of Turkey, in Epirus.

GRAMAYE, John Baptist, a historian and poet, born at Antwerp, and provost of Arnheim. He travelled over Germany and Italy, but in going to Spain, was carried off by African corsairs to Algiers. He returned to the Netherlands, and died at Lubeck. He published, 1. *Africa illustrata, libri X.* in 1622; 4to. 2. *Diarium Algeriensis*: 3. *Peregrinatio Belgica*: a curious work: 4. *Antiquitates Flandriæ*: fol. and, 5. *Historia Namurcensis*.

• **GRAMERCY**, *interj.* [contracted from *grant me mercy*] An obsolete expression of surprise.—

Gramercy, sir, said he; but mote I weet

What strange adventure do ye now pursue?

Spenser.

Gramercy, lovely Lucius, what's the news?

Shakesp.

(1.) **GRAMINA**, **GRASSES**; one of the seven tribes or natural families, into which all vegetables are distributed by Linnæus in his *Philosophia Botanica*. They are defined to be plants which have very simple leaves, a jointed stem, a husky calyx termed *gluma*, and a single seed. This description includes the several sorts of corn as well as grasses. In Tournefort they constitute a part of the 15th class, termed *apetalæ*; and in Linnæus's sexual method, they are mostly contained in the 2d order of the 3d class, *triandria digynia*. This numerous and natural family of the grasses has engaged the attention and researches of several eminent botanists; particularly Ray, Monti, Michell, and Linnæus. M. Monti, in his *Catalogus stirpium agri Bononiensis, gramina ac hujus modi affinia complectens*, printed at Bononia in 1719, divides the grasses from the disposition of their flowers, as Theophrastus and Ray have done before him into 3 sections or orders—These are, 1. Grasses having flowers collected in a spike. 2. Grasses having their flowers collected in a panicle or loose spike. 3. Plants that in their habit and external appearance are allied to the grasses. This class would have been natural if the author had not improperly introduced sweet-rush, juncus, and arrow-head grass, into the 3d section. Monti enumerates

about 306 species of the grasses, and reduces under Tournefort's genera; added three new genera. Scheuchzer's *rislographia*, published like wise in 1717, divides the grasses, as Monti, from the disposition of their flowers, into the 5 following sections with flowers in a spike, as phalaris, seta and frumentum. 2. Irregular grasses, as anthus and cornucopiz. 3. Grasses growing in a simple panicle or loose spike, as millet. 4. Grasses with flowers in a compound panicle, or diffused spike, as poa. 5. Plants by their habit nearly grasses, as cypres grass, scirpus, linum, and scuecheria. He has enumerated 300 species, which he describes with accuracy. Micheli has divided the grasses into 10 sections, which contain in all 44 genera, and 770 species, from the situation and number of the flowers.

(2.) **GRAMINA**, the 4th order in Linnæus's system of a Natural Method, constitutes a numerous and natural family of the **GRAMINEÆ**, *Index*; and **GRASS**.

• **GRAMINEOUS**, *adj.* [*gramineus*, Lat.] Grassy. *Gramineous* plants are such as have a leaf without a footstalk.

• **GRAMINIVOROUS**, *adj.* [*gramineus*, Lat.] Grass eating; living upon grass. The ancients were versed chiefly in the diet of the grass, among which the *graminivorous* kind, as the coloured choroides. *Sharp's Surgery*.

(1.) • **GRAMMAR**, *n. f.* [*grammatica*, Latin; *γραμματική*, Greek.] 1. The art of speaking correctly; the art which teaches the relations of words to each other.—To be a grammarian is to be conversant in the grammar and idioms of the language, then as a rhetorician to make all their use to his eloquence. *Pell.*—We make a man a grammarian, whom we will not allow to speak the rules of grammar. *Dryden's* *Defence of the speaking language*, according to the grammar of that language, do yet speak improperly. *Locke*. 2. Propriety or justness of speech according to grammar—*Varium est nomen per femina*, is the sharpest satire that can be made on woman; for the adjectives *man* and *animal* must be understood to be *grammar*. *Dryden*. 3. The book that teaches the various relations of words to one another.

(2.) **GRAMMAR**, **ENGLISH**. See **ENGLISH GRAMMAR**.

(3.) **GRAMMAR**, **PHILOSOPHIC**, or **UNIVERSAL**. "Grammar," says the rev. Mr Bruce, is not an art, necessarily supposes the existence of language; and as its design is to teach any language to those who are ignorant of it, it must be adapted to the genius of that language of which it treats.—But grammar considered as a science, views language as the sign of significant of thought. Neglecting particular arbitrary modifications introduced for beauty or elegance, it examines the relation between words and ideas; the relation between those particulars, which are the language, and those which are only the sign, and thus furnishes a certain standard, by which different languages may be compared, and several excellencies or defects pointed out.

led *Philosophie or Universal Grammar*."

. See LANGUAGE.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL. *n. s.* A school in which learned languages are grammatically taught. "Thou hast most traitorously corrupted the realm in erecting a *grammar school*." *Henry VI.*—The ordinary way of teaching in a *grammar school* I cannot exclude.

GRAMMAR, UNIVERSAL. See § 3.

GRAMMARIAN. *n. s.* [*grammarien*, Fr. *mar.*] One who teaches grammar; a teacher. —Many disputes the ambiguous nature of the word created among the *grammarians*. —They who have called the torture of *grammarians*, might also call the plague of translators. *Dryden*.

GRAMMARIAN was anciently a title of honour, and erudition, being given to persons who were learned in any art or faculty. But it has been used as a term of reproach, to signify a peddling person, employed about words, but inattentive to the true beauties of science and delicacy of sentiment. The *anatomists*, called also *philologists*, must not be confounded with the GRAMMATISTS, whose business was to teach children the first principles of language. Varro, Cicero, Metellus, Julius Cæsar, thought it no dishonour to be grammarians, who had many privileges to them by the Roman emperors.

GRAMMATICAL. *adj.* [*grammatical*, Fr. *gram.*, Lat.] 1. Belonging to grammar. —The art of virtue still being set before their eyes, that taught them with far more diligent *grammatical* rules. *Silvery*.—I shall take notice of consonants, not from the *grammatical* rules of any language, but from the discourses framed by single articulations. *Holder*. 2. Taught by grammar. —I can know more than the *grammatical* rules, unless born with a poetical genius. *Johnson*.

GRAMMATICALLY. *adv.* [from *grammar*] According to the rules or science of grammar. —A sentence is distinguished into the subject, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, and other parts of speech which compose it, then it is analysed *grammatically*. *Watts*.—As we teacheth us to speak properly, so it is rhetoric to instruct how to do it elegantly, adding beauty to that language that is naked and *grammatically* true. *Baker*.

GRAMMATICASTER. *n. s.* [Lat.] A mean person; a low grammarian.—I have not patience with the doubts, the remarks, and digressions of the French *grammaticasters*.

GRAMMATICIST, *n. s.* a teacher of the first principles of grammar.

GRAMMONT, a town of France, in the department, and ci-devant province of Auvergne, 5 miles SW. of Desse.

GRAMMONT, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, famous for its abbey; 15 miles NE. of Lyons. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 46. 1. N.

GRAM. II.

(2.) GRAMMONT, or GEERSBERGH, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Scheldt, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian Flanders, originally a fort built on a hill by the Goths, and thence called *Gottelheim*. Baldwin earl of Flanders purchased the lordship of one Gerard in 1068, built a town and called it after him *Gerardmont*, which has been since gradually corrupted to *Grammont*. It is seated on the Dender, which divides it into the Higher and Lower town; 10 miles S. of Oudenarde, 17 SE. of Ghent, and 20 W. of Brussels. Lon. 1. 59. E. Lat. 50. 47. N.

GRAMPIAN HILLS, a chain of mountains in Scotland, which run from E. to W. almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. See ALPS, and SCOTTISH, and SCOTLAND.

GRAMPIUS MOUNTAINS, one of the above mountains, mentioned by Tacitus, where Calgacus waited the approach of Agricola, and where the battle was fought so fatal to the brave Caledonians. It gives name to the whole ridge.

* GRAMPLE. *n. s.* A crab-fish. *Linnaeus*.

GRAMPOUND, a town of England, in Cornwall, seated on the Valle, over which there is a bridge. The inhabitants have a considerable manufacture of gloves; and send 2 members to parliament. This town is supposed to be the *Gramba* of the ancients, as it stands on the same river; and that on the building of the bridge, the name was changed into *Grand-pond*. It was made a borough by Edward III, and endowed with large privileges, particularly freedom from toll throughout all Cornwall, a market on Saturday, and 3 fairs; which the burghers hold of the duchy of Cornwall in fee farm, at the rent of about 12 guineas. Its privileges were confirmed by Henry VIII; but it did not send members to parliament till the reign of Edward VI. It is a corporation, and has a mayor, 8 magistrates, a recorder, and town clerk. The mayor is chosen annually the Tuesday before Michaelmas, and the members by the majority of the magistrates and freemen. There is a chapel of ease in the town; the parish church, being at Creed, about a quarter of a mile off. It is 45 n. SW. of Launceston, and 244 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 49. W. Lat. 50. 22. N.

(1.) * GRAMPUS. *n. s.* A large fish of the cetaceous kind.

(2.) GRAMPUS. See DELPHINUS, N° II, § iii, 1.

(1.) GRAN, a river of Hungary, which runs into the Danube, opposite the town of Gran.

(2.) GRAN, or ESZTERGAN, a large and strong town of Hungary, the see of an archbishop. It was taken by the Turks in 1540; but retaken in 1683, by the king of Poland, and prince Charles of Lorraine, after a siege of 5 days. It is seated at the conflux of the Danube and the Gran (N° 1.) 55 miles SE. of Presburg, and 82 ESE. of Vienna. Lon. 4. 49. E. Lat. 47. 46. N.

(1.) GRANA, a town of the Piedmontese republic, in the ci-devant duchy of Aosta, 12 miles ESE. of Aosta.

(2.) GRANA, a sea port town of Spain, in Galicia, 2 miles W. of Ferrol.

(1.) GRANADA, a province of Spain, which was long an independent kingdom. See SPAIN. It made a part of the ancient Bætica; and was inhabited by the Bæthuli, the Gitanos, &c. It is

Sometimes called *Upper Andalusia*. It is bounded on the S. and E. by the Mediterranean, on the W. and N. by Lower Andalusia, and on the N.E. by Murcia. Its extent from W. to E. is 140 miles; but its greatest breadth exceeds not 80. The air is temperate and healthy; and though there are many mountains in the province, and some of them very high, yet they are almost every where covered with vines and fruit trees, together with laurel, myrtle, sweet basil, thyme, lavender, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which give an exquisite taste to the flesh of their sheep and cattle. A great deal of silk and sugar, flax and hemp, honey and wax, is also produced here; besides dates and acorns, superior to the best nuts; good stone for building; several sorts of gems; sumach, used in dressing goat skins; and galls, of which a dye is made for leather. The valleys, with which the mountains are intermixed, are extremely beautiful and fertile. The inhabitants of some of the highest mountains are descendants of the Moors; and, though they are now Roman Catholics, retain, in a great measure, their ancient customs, language, and language. The principal rivers are the Xeris and Guadalquivir. Great quantities of salt are made in this province, which, though neither so populous, nor so well cultivated as when subject to the Moors, yet is as rich to us as any in Spain. It was the last Spanish kingdom possessed by the Moors, and was not annexed to the crown of Castile until 1492.

(2.) GRANADA, the capital of the above province, (N^o 2.) is situated at the foot of the Sierra Nevada, or the Snowy Mountains, in a wholesome air and fruitful country, 18 miles S. of Madrid. It lies upon a high hill, and is the Darro. The Xeris runs under the walls, and thence two rivers are formed from the melting of the snow with which the mountain is constantly covered. The Darro is said to carry away 100 grains of gold; and its name, derived from *lat. aurum*, may be altered as a proof of this: the Xeris runs with its stream full of pieces of silver. When Charles V. came to Granada, in 1526, with the empress Isabella, the city presented to him with a crown made of gold gathered from the Darro. The city is large and populous, containing a great number of very fine public and private buildings. Its walls, which are adorned with many towers of equal distance, are said to be invulnerable. Here are two castles: the one built by the Moors, and the other by Charles V. and Philip II. They both command a very fine prospect; and the first is so large, that it looks like a city by itself; and, it is said, has room to accommodate 40,000 people, exclusive of the royal palace, and the convent of St. Francis. There is also a court of education; a royal tribunal; and an university, founded in 1526, with the lee of an archbishop, who has a revenue of 40,000 ducats per annum. Many noblemen, clergymen, and wealthy citizens, reside in this city, of which the silk trade and manufacture is very great, and the arsenal is said to be the best furnished of any in Spain. The inhabitants, who are partly descended of the Moors, are well supplied with water. There are several fine squares, particularly that called the *Bicaramia* or *Piazza Mayor*, where the bull fights are held;

and without the city is a large plain, full of villages, called *La Vega de Granada*. Moors are said to keep it still, but through all the holes that have been made. The last Moorish ambassador who came obtained permission of the king to see the great tower of the Alhambra, not to remain from exclaiming, that the Moors had deprived them and their that delightful country. See ALHAMBRA. It had formerly 30 gates; 18, that which still remains; 2d. Bab al-Azhar, of conference, because, with the Moor place of resort, where they conversed; 3d. Vivarabla, so called from its being a square which still bears that name; 4th. Bab al-Rach, or the gate of provisions; 5th. Bab al-Fil, or the gate of the elephants, which led to the solitude; 6th. Bab al-Mir, or Bab al-Mir, the new gate; 7th. that which is opened to the east; 8th. Bab al-Luz, of the Alhambra; 9th. Bab al-Adim, of the bones of Adam; 10th. Bab al-Cad, of the cadaver; the Moors kept this a long time, because it had been the enemies who should take the city, by 11; 12th. Bab al-Azhar, or of the moon's gates; 13th. Bab al-Ele, the lion; 14th. Bab al-Azhar, the lion's gate; 15th. Bab al-Rach, the gate of the Ban al-Rach, now the Moor; 16th. that of the Darro; 17th. that of the Darro; 18th. that of the Darro; 19th. the gate of Bab al-Hamra, by the side of the Alhambra. The least more monuments in Granada than other city in Spain. From the great descriptions in and about the city, and the pieces of the Alhambra and Generali, it is supposed that people intended to make the great depository of their religious customs, and magnificence. There is what does not bear some marks of the but, notwithstanding this abundance, the reign of the Moors in Spain had in confusion and obscurity. The of the Spaniards, their superstition; and they hate the Moors, have much contempt and hatred; they have either destroyed to be effected by time, every where bore the mark of mahometanism, still serving the monuments of antiquity, at the same time were those of their own glory and the solidity of their construction, than curiosity or a love of the arts, by those which still exist, although daily go. From the hall of *Cameras*, mentioned ALHAMBRA, there is a modern staircase, one, which corresponded to the beauty, having been destroyed. At the gallery, a part of which is inclosed by a railing, this is called the *prison of the* wife of the last king of Granada having been there. The Gomels and Zemiles of distinction, bore false witness to virtue. This event happened as follows when Abdal-Latif reigned in Granada. The Moors had carried their arms and had been bravely repulsed. Abd-

fin one of his pleasure houses for this when the Zegrís and Gomels, who were the secret enemies of the Abencerrages, took this opportunity to represent them as subjects, who employed their immense wealth in the favour of the people and despoiled the sovereign. They accused Albin Hamet, the richest and most powerful among them, of an illicit commerce with the queen, and witnesses who asserted they had been frequently seen, at Generalif, under a large tree, Albin Hamet in the arms of the queen. The fury of Abdali may easily be conceived; he swore the destruction of the Abencerrages, but the Zegrís, too prudent to allow him to break forth, advised him not to let it be known that numerous and powerful family, informed of their perfidy. It will be seen, they, to entice them into the snare, they can unite and put themselves in a position of defence, revenge upon their heads is reserved to the crown. This advice was followed; Abdali went to the Alhambra, leaving his guards to arm themselves, and order to attend. The Abencerrages were surprised by one, and beheaded as soon as they entered the hall of the lions, where there is still a wall of alabaster which was quickly filled with heads and blood. Thirty five heads were struck off, and all the Abencerrages who had followed his master, and received in the hurry of the execution, the opportunity of withdrawing and giving to the rest of the unhappy family of assistance. These immediately assembled in arms, crying out through the city "Treason! treason! Let the king instantly puts to death the Abencerrages!" with whom they were favourites, did in assisting them: 14,000 men were in arms, and proceeded towards the city shouting all the way, Let the king die! His secret should have been so kept, and severely repenting of having followed pernicious counsels he had received, the castle gates to be shut; but they were already on fire. Muley Hacén, who had been chosen to abdicate the throne in favour of his son, the tumult of the people, had one more and presented himself to appease the citizens; but he no sooner appeared, he was lifted up by the multitude nearest the castle, and cried out, "Behold our king, we will follow him, long live Muley Hacén;" and surrounded by a strong guard, the Abencerrages and other nobles, entered the castle, accompanied by above 100 soldiers. But they found the queen, with her women, and in the situation at the sudden revolution, of no new not the cause. They asked for the king, and being informed he was in the hall, they entered it furiously, and found him surrounded by the Zegrís and the Gomels, and in a few hours killed upwards of 200 of them. The bodies of the beheaded Abencerrages were laid upon black cloth, and carried to the sea. Muza, brother to Abdali, who

by his great actions had gained the favour of the people, appealed the Abencerrages; and having got information that the queen had taken refuge in a mosque near the mountains, now called St Helena, went and brought her back to the castle of Alhambra. Abdali shut himself up in the castle, and refused to see the queen. Those who had accused her of adultery, however, persisted in their false accusation, and said, they would maintain, with arms in their hands, against all who should dare to contradict them, that the queen was guilty. She was imprisoned, and the day arriving on which she was to be executed, when none among the Moors offering to defend her, some Christian knights presented themselves, and conquered her false accusers, so that she was immediately set at liberty. The taking of Granada soon followed this combat; Muza and the Abencerrages having, it is said, facilitated the conquest of it by Ferdinand and Isabella. From the Alhambra we enter the Generalif by the low gate, which favoured the escape of Abdali when Ferdinand took Granada. *Generalif* signifies, in Arabic, *the house of pleasure*. It was built by Omar, who was so fond of music, that he retired to this palace, to enjoy that amusement. It is the most pleasant situation in the environs of Granada. It is built upon a very high mountain whence waters rush from every side, in torrents, and fall in beautiful cascades into the courts, gardens, and halls of that ancient palace. The gardens form an amphitheatre, and are full of trees, venerable from their antiquity. Two cypresses in particular are noted, called the Cypresses of the queen, because it was near them that the perfidious Gomels impeached the virtue of that princess and the honour of the Abencerrages. Of this place, travellers observe, that the writers of romances have never imagined a scene equal to it. Granada was formerly called ILLIBERIA, and founded, says tradition, by Liberia, a great-granddaughter of Hercules, daughter of Hispan, and wife to Hesperus, a Grecian prince, and brother to Atalanta. Others maintain that it was founded by IBERUS, grandson of Tubal, and that it took the name of *Granada*, or *Grenata*, from Nata the daughter of Liberia; the word *Gar*, in the language of the time, signifying grotto; i.e. the grotto of Nata, because that princess studied astrology and natural history in this country. It is certain that such a person as Nata, or Natayde, existed in the first ages of Granada; and that in the place where the Alhambra now stands, there was a temple dedicated to Nativala. Granada is said to have been founded A. A. C. 2808. In the time of the Romans it was a municipal colony. A description of Granada, in Latin, written in 1560, by George Hofmhel, a merchant at Antwerp, who travelled into Spain, is to be found in the work, intitled *Civitates orbis terrarum*, printed at Cologne in 1576; with a good plan of the city of Granada. This city is 125 miles S.W. of Murcia, and 183 S. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 37. 17. N.

(3.) GRANADA, or GRENADA, one of the Caribbee islands. See GRENADA.

(4.) GRANADA, a town of Mexico in the province of Nicaragua, seated on the lake Nicaragua, 70 miles from the S. Sea. It was taken twice by

the French buccaneers, and pillaged. The inhabitants carry on a great trade by means of the lake, which communicates with the N. Sea. Lon. 83. 20 W. Lat. 11. 8. N.

(5.) GRANADA, New, a province of S. America, in Terra Firma, about 75 miles in length, and as much in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by Cartagena and St. Martha, on the E. by Venezuela, on the S. by Popayan, and on the W. by Darien. It contains mines of gold, copper, and iron; horses, mules, good pastures, corn, and fruits. It belongs to the Spaniards, and Santa Fe de Bogota is the capit.

GRANADE. See GRENADE.

GRANADIER. See GRENADE.

GRANADILLOES, or GRENADES, dangerous bands of the Caribbees, in America, having St. Vincent on the N. and Granada on the S. They were ceded to Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763, but have been since neglected. Lat. 18. 0. N.

(1.) GRANADO, a town of Spain in Seville, 13 miles N. of Ayamonte.

(2.) GRANADO. See GRENADE.

GRANAL, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, 28 miles SE. of Leon.

(1.) GRANARD, or GRENAH, [Irish, *Grianard*, i. e. the height of the sun.] a borough and post town of Ireland, in Longford, Leinster; 52 miles from Dublin, 16 S. of Cavan, and 11 NE. of Longford. In this town annual prizes are given to the best performers on the Irish harp. It has a barrack for a company of foot; and before the Union with Great Britain, returned two members to parliament. It was formerly the residence of the chiefs of N. Tiffin. It has fairs 3d May and 1st Oct. Lon. 7. 30. W. Lat. 53. 44. N.

(2.) GRANARD, MOAT OF, a remarkable hill thought to be artificial, and the site of a Danish fort; which commands from its summit a most extensive prospect into 6 or 7 different counties.

GRANARUOLO, a small town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Anoué, and ancient papal province of Romagna.

(1.) * GRANARY. *n. f.* [*granarium*, Lat.] A place where thrashed corn.—Ants, by their labour and industry, contrive that corn will keep as dry in their nests as in our granaries. Addison.

The naked nations clothe,

And be th' exhaust'ds granary of a world.

Thomson's Spring.

(2.) * GRANARY, CAUTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN erecting. Sir Henry Wotton advises to make it look toward the north, because that quarter is the coolest and most temperate. Mr. Worthington gives, that the best granaries are built of brick, with quarters of timber wrought in the masonry, and little boards may be used, with which the walls of the granary must be lined, so that the corn, when there may be no room left for air. The corn may be mowed one above another, which should be mowed with a scythe, because the scythe leaves the corn dry, and better, and more easily dried. The two most common ways to be observed in mowing grain, is to mow it in rows, or in rows, and to mow it in the most convenient way.

(3.) * GRANARY, METHOD OF MANAGING

CORN IN. The method of ordering parts of England, particularly in Kent. To separate it from dust and other matter it is thrashed, they toss it with one end to the other of a long and the lighter substances fall down in the room, and the corn only is carried or end to end of it. After this the corn, and then bringing it into the room, is spread about half a foot thick, about twice in a week; once a week peat the screening it. This management continues about two months; after which a foot thick for two months more; time they turn it once a week, or twice, so be damp, and now and then after about 5 or 6 months they increase the thickness in the heaps, and they once or twice in a month, and screen them. After a year they lay it 2½ feet thick, and turn it once in 3 weeks or 4 screen it proportionably. When it is 5 years or more, they turn it once a year, and screen it once a quarter; and however it is kept, the oftener the turning is repeated, the better the grain. It is proper to leave 27 area of a year very side of the heap of corn, and spaces, to which they turn and toss. In Kent they make two square ends of the floor, and one round in the means of which they throw the corn upper into the lower rooms, and so turn and air it the better. Their granaries with two partitions, to separate the corn, which falls into a bag, and only full this is thrown away, the part of corn remaining behind. Corn has been kept in our granaries 20 years; served, that the longer it is kept the yields in proportion to the corn, as and whiter the bread is, the superfluous only evaporates in the keeping. A Swiss, in Switzerland, they keep corn 20 years by these methods. The public granaries are 7, 8, or 9 stories high, have the walls in every 10 or 12 feet down one to another. They are built to be though every way surrounded with corn contracts no dampness, and the convenience of coming up to it their lading. The Russians preserve subterranean granaries of the figure of a wide below and narrow at top; the platted, and the top covered with take care to have the corn well dried laid into these storehouses, and other means of drying; the summer dry weather is not to collect it sufficiently. All wheat, barley, and rye, of a great part are then laid up in parcels of 10, 20, 30, or 40 bushels, according to the size of and this they keep turning every day keep it sweet and fit for shipping. Some storehouses have of very large quantities of these stores, all the corn of former years having been found to be by one night's mould, that though

, fit for shipping or keeping, and proper use, yet in the morning it was found and sticking. In this case there is no remedy the turning of all such corn 3 or 4 times a month or longer; in which time it will be recovered, though sometimes not. A storm of thunder and lightning is only observed in such corn as is not a year old, and is sweated thoroughly in the straw before it is threshed out. The latter inconvenience is remedied by a timely care; but as to the remedy that can be done is carefully to examine the stores of the last year's corn after every storm, that if any of it have been so affected it may be cured in time; for a neglect of this will utterly destroy it. According to Virgil's rules, a granary should always be at the house, and have its openings only to the north, so that the corn may not be exposed to the winds from the S. and W. which are very dangerous to it; whereas the contrary ones are necessary and wholesome to it, serving to dry it from all external humidity, from the sun's heat, &c. There must also be openings in the walls to be set open in dry weather, partly to let in fresh air, and partly to let out the warm effluvia which are often emitted by the corn. The roof of the roofs should always be of tiles, because in the worst seasons, when the other openings cannot be safe, there will always be a constant inlet for fresh air, and a way out for the warm air by their joinings, which are never close. There should be any windows to the south, great care should be taken to shut them up in moist weather, and to guard against hot southern winds. There must be no cellar, or any other damp place under a granary; nor should it ever be built over stables; for in either of these cases the corn will certainly be spoiled by the vapours, and be made damp in the one, and ill tasted in the other.

GRANARY, METHODS OF DESTROYING THAT INFEST GRAIN IN. The preservation of grain from the ravages of insects may be effected by timely and frequent screening, and exposure to the sun; (See § 5.) as little or no inconvenience will follow corn or malt lodged dry, but a great deal of damage results from a neglect of these precautions. For, whether the obvious damage arises from the weevil, the moth, or the beetle, that damage is increased at the time the vermin make their nests; and under either of these species, they begin in this last state of existence, only proper care of their respective kinds of vermiculi; while they continue in that form do the damage.

In this last, or insect state, they eat little; the principal business being to deposit their eggs, which unerring instinct prompts them to do. Large collections of grain furnish food for the vermin while in a vermicular state. It is the business of industry to prevent future ravages of these ravagers, by destroying the eggs previous to their hatching; and this is best effected by frequent screening, and exposure to the winds of wind or fresh air. By frequently turning the grain, the cohesion of their eggs is broken, and the nidus of these minute worms is destroyed, which on hatching collect together, and form numerous nests of a cobweb-like lub-

stance for their security. To these nests they attach, by an infinity of small threads, many grains of corn together, first for their protection, and then for their food. When their habitations are broken and separated by the screen, they fall thro' the small interstices, and may be easily removed from the granary with the dust. Those that escape an early screening will be destroyed by subsequent ones, while the grain is but little injured; and the corn will acquire thereby a superior purity. But by inattention to this, and sometimes by receiving grain already infected into the granary, these vermin, particularly the weevil, will soon spread themselves in that state every where upon the surface, and darken the walls by their number. Under such circumstances hens, with new hatched chickens, if turned on the heap, will traverse, without feeding (or very sparingly so) on the corn, wherever they spread; as they seem insatiable in the pursuit of these insects. When the numbers are reduced within reach, a hen will fly up against the walls, and brush them down with her wings, while her chickens seize them with the greatest avidity. This being repeated as often as they want food, the whole species will in a day or two be destroyed. Of the phalæna, or moth, and the small beetle, they seem equally voracious: on which account they may be deemed the most useful instruments in nature for eradicating these noxious and destructive vermin.

(5) **A GRANARY, METHODS OF VENTILATING GRAIN IN.** M. Du Hamel and Dr Hales recommend various contrivances for blowing fresh air through corn laid up in granaries or ships, to preserve it sweet and dry, and to prevent its being devoured by weevils or other insects. This may be done by nailing wooden bars or laths on the floor of the granary about an inch distant from each other, when they are covered with hair cloth only; or at the distance of 2 or 3 inches, when coarse wire-work, or basket-work of osier is laid under the hair-cloth, or when an iron plate full of holes is laid upon them. These laths may be laid across other laths, nailed at the distance of 15 inches, and two or more deep, that there may be a free passage for the air under them. The under laths must come about six inches short of the wall of the granary at one end of them; on which end a board should be set edgeways, and sloping against the wall: by this disposition a large air-pipe is formed, which, having an open communication with all the interstices between and under the bars, will admit the passage of air below forcibly through a hole at the extremity of it, into all the corn in the granary, that will consequently carry off the moist exhalations of the corn. The ventilators for supplying fresh air may be fixed against the wall, on the inside or outside of the granary, or under the floor, or in the ceiling; but wherever they are fixed, the handle of the lever that works them must be out of the granary, otherwise the person who works them would be in danger of suffocation, when the corn is fumed with burning brimstone, as is sometimes done for destroying weevils. Small moveable ventilators will answer the purpose for ventilating corn in large bins in granaries, and may be easily moved from one bin to another. If

If the granary or corn ship be very long, the main air-pipe may pass lengthwise along the middle of it, and convey air, on both sides, under the corn. In large granaries, large double ventilators, laid on each other, may be fixed at the middle and near the top of the granary, that they may be worked by a wind-mill fixed on the roof of the building, or by a water-mill. The air is to be conveyed from the ventilators through a large trunk or trunks, reaching down through the several floors to the bottom of the granary, with branching trunks to each floor, by means of which the air may be made to pass into a large trunk along the adjoining cross walls: from these trunks several lesser trunks, about 4 inches wide, are to branch off, at the distance of 3 or 4 feet from each other, which are to reach through the whole length of the granary, and their farther ends are to be closed: some of one inch or one sixth of an inch are to be left open at the four joinings of the boards, where they are nailed together, that the air may pass through them into the corn. In some of these lesser trunks there may be sliding shutters, to stop the passage of the air through those trunks which are not covered with corn; or to ventilate one part of the granary more briskly than others, as there may be occasion. There must also be wooden shutters, hung on hinges at their upper part, so as to shut close of themselves; these must be fixed to the openings in the walls of the granary on their outside; by these means they will readily open to give a free passage for the ventilating air, which ascends through the corn to pass off, but will instantly shut when the ventilation ceases, and thereby prevent any dampness of the external air from entering: to prevent this, the ventilation should be made only in the middle of dry days, unless the corn, when first put in, is cold and damp. In lesser granaries, where the ventilators must be worked by hand, if these granaries stand on saddles, so as to have their lowest floor at some distance from the ground, the ventilators may be fixed under the lowest floor, between the saddles, so as to be worked by men standing on the ground, without or within the granary. A very commodious and cheap ventilator may be made for small granaries, by making a ventilator of the door of the granary; which may be easily done by making a circular screen, of the size of a quarter of a circle, behind the door: but for this purpose, the door must open, not inwards but outwards of the granary, so that as it falls back, it may be worked to and fro in the screen; which must be exactly adapted to it in all parts of the circular side of the screen, as well as at the top and bottom. But there must be a stop at about 8 or 10 inches from the wall, to prevent the door from falling back further; that there may be room for a valve in the screen to supply it with air; which air will be drawn in by the door, through a hole made in the wall near the floor, into the main air-trunk, in which there must be another valve over the hole in the wall, to prevent the return of the air.

GRANATAN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgebürg, 12 miles NE. of Freyburg.

(1.) * GRANATE. *n. f.* [from *granum*, Lat.]

A kind of marble so called, because it is marked

with small variegations like grains. O GRANITE.

(2.) THE GRANATE, OR GARNET, is of fossils ranking among the siliceous, according to Magellan, analogous to them being composed of the siliceous, and calcareous earths, with a greater portion of iron. The opaque and black contain about a fifth part of iron; but phanous ones only a sixtieth, according to Cronstedt. The garnets, properly so called, contain a greater quantity of siliceous earth than both, and both are now justly ranked with the earths. The general properties of the garnets, according to Cronstedt, are as follows: 1. fusible as it contains less metallic matter, more transparent or glassy in its texture, and with salt of kelp, it may, on a piece of coal, be converted into glass by the fire, which cannot be done without flint. 2. transparent garnet may, without any addition, be brought to a black opaque slag by the fire. 3. It is never, as far as is hitherto known, pure, or without some mixture of metallic iron, which may be extracted by the methods. The garnet matter during the fusion, has either been formed in small quantities, or else had the power of passing into crystals, though closely confined in substances; since garnets are generally to be found in other solid stones, and sometimes in harder ones, such as quartz and chert. Cronstedt informs us, that garnet is easily melted by borax or the vegetable alkali. And Brunich, most of the garnets strike fire. Cronstedt observes, that the metallic calx mixed with other earthy substances, may alter their fusibility; iron, for instance, in the argillaceous and micaceous earths, them fusible, though otherwise they are not. Hence there may be some reasons for considering the garnet as a quartz impregnated with iron, yet, on the whole, he thinks it will be better to call the garnet a stone of a different order, we have experiments sufficient to warrant the reduction of the number of earths. The garnet is never found but in an indurated state divided into the garnet properly so called, shirl or cockle; though this perhaps is owing to the figure of their crystals than any thing. Wallerius makes the specific gravity of it from 3600 to 3900, and even 4400; Briffart it 4100; and Cotes says, that the garnet hemia are 4300, those of Sweden heavier. Some make it no less than 5000. The steamed is the Syrian garnet; which is red, inclining to purple, very transparent, less beautiful than the oriental amethyst, according to Magellan, is the amethyst of Pliny, and is found in Syria, Calcutta, Cambodiaa, and Ethiopia. The Sorani ancients was another kind of garnet of a blue inclining to yellow, called *vermeil* French, and *gracinto guarnacino* by the latter, the former having the name of *rubens* among the last mentioned people. The *rannus* comes from Sorian or Surian, a Pegu, from whence these gems are

ic garnets have a yellow colour, in y are called HYACINTHS. Like other e divided into oriental and occiden- means only *more* or *less* valuable; s being always called *oriental*, where- ne from. Some very fine ones are emia; they are also met with in Pyma. in Silesia. S. Sapho, in the ne, in Switzerland, in Spain, and in heir colour is supposed to proceed nd, according to M. Saussure, even ental garnets attract the magnetic all distance. In the focus of a good the garnet melts into a brown mass, acted by the magnet; which shows rs into its composition in a consider- on. Some garnets, however, con- old; and some, called by the Ger- pen, contain tin. M. Magellan is of the *lapis abaniticus* of Pliny, and an- hich he mentions of a deep purple, ie garnets. 4. The cockle or snail. The garnets abound so much with y are sometimes worked with profit it metal; in which case no notice is atural character of the stone, in the as is done with clays and jaspers that for in these the quantity of metal is mented, until at last they acquire the f iron itself. The greatest part of owever, contain only from 6 to 12 on, which is too poor to be worked th advantage as an ore of that me- ny of the garnet kind are to be tried they contain, the iron ought to be them by the common process; and at the same time contains tin or ill likewise be included in the iron. extracted out of it, however, by a r augmented; the lead and tin sweat- rm of drops, though always some- with iron. None of the garnet kind found in the form of an earth prod; though at Swappawari, in Lap- found a bole which has the same he garnet; and the hornblende of h is somewhat harder than this bole, appearance of cockle.

ATE PASTE. See GARNET, § 4.

US, in lithology, a genus of fossils, ive, under its English name GRA- 2. See also GARNET, § 1. and 2. o species, viz.

RUS CRASSUS, the coarse grained ivy hard stone, crystallizing in form balls, mostly of a reddish brown co- und of a reddish brown and whitish r, in different parts of Sweden.

RUS CRYSTALLIZATUS, the crystal- is reckoned among the precious rying in its colour and form of its han any of them. Sometimes it is dark colour; sometimes yellowish sometimes brown, black or opaque. both in lustre and hardness to the o- elding to the file, although it will ith steel. The crystals are some- ur, but frequently assume rhombi-

dal, tetradecahedrai, and almost all other regular forms.

GRANBOROUGH, a town of Warwickshire.

(1.) GRANBY, Marquis of. See MANNERS.

(2.) GRANBY, a township of Connecticut, in Hartford county, 18 miles N. of Hartford, bor- dering on Massachusetts.

(3.) GRANBY, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, 90 miles W. of Boston, con- taining 596 citizens, in 1795.

(4.) GRANBY, a town of S. Carolina, on the Congaree.

(5.) GRANBY BAY, a bay on the N. coast of Hispaniola. Lon. 61. 25. W. Lat. 15. 42. N.

GRANCEY, a town of France, in the dept. of Cote d'Or, 10½ miles N.W. of Is sur Tille.

(1.) * GRAND. *adj.* [*grand*, French; *grandis*, Latin.] Great; illustrious; high in power or dig- nity.—God had planted, that is, made to grow the trees of life and knowledge, plants only pro- per and becoming the paradise and garden of so *grand* a Lord. *Raleigh's Hist.* 2. Great; splen- did; magnificent.—

A voice has flown

To re-enslave a *grand* delign.

Young.

3. Principal; chief.—

What cause

Mov'd our *grand* parents, in that happy state,

Favour'd of heav'n to highly, to fall off

From their Creator.

Milton.

4. Eminent; superiour: very frequently in an ill sense.—

Our *grand* foe, Satan.

Milton.

So clomb this first *grand* thief into God's fold.

Milton.

5. Noble; sublime; lofty; conceived or expressed with great dignity. 6. It is used to signify ascent or descent of consanguinity.

(2.) GRAND, in geography, a town of France, in the dept. of Vosges, 9 miles W. Neufchateau.

(3.) GRAND, Anthony LE, a Cartesian philoso- pher of the 17th century, author of several works, the best of which is entitled, A Sacred History from the Creation to the time of Constantine the Great, 8vo.

(4.) GRAND, Joachian LE, a French political author, born in 1653. He was a man of general knowledge, and was much esteemed at the court of Lewis XIV. He died at Paris in 1733.

(5.) GRAND, Mark Antony LE, a celebrated French poet and actor. He was author of several comedies, which were published in 4 vols 12mo. He died at Paris in 1723.

(6.) GRAND ASSIZE. See ASSIZE, § 2.

(7.) GRAND DISTRESS, (*distressio magna*.) in English law, a writ of distress, so called on ac- count of its extent, which reaches to all the goods and chattels of the party within the county. This writ lies in two cases: either when the tenant or defendant is attached and appears not, but makes default; or where the tenant or defendant hath once appeared, and after makes default. On such occasions, this writ lies by common law, in lieu of a petit cape.

(8.) GRAND GUSTO, among painters, a term used to express that there is something in the pic- ture very great and extraordinary, calculated to surprise, please, and instruct. Where this is found,

Cicely

they say, the painter was a man of *grand gusto*; and they use the words *sublime* and *marvellous*, when they speak of a picture, in much the same sense.

(9.) GRAND JURY, } &c. See JURY, LAR-
(10.) GRAND LORNEY, } CENV, &c.

* GRANDAM *n. f.* [*grand* and *dam* or *dame*.]

1. Grandmother; my father's or mother's mother.

I meeting him, will tell him that my lady

Was fairer than his *grandam* and as chaste

As may be in the world. *Shak. Troil. and Cres.*

—We have our forefathers and great *grandames* all before us, as they were in Chaucer's days.

Dryden.

Thy tygers heart believeth thy angel face:

Too well thou shew'st thy pedigree from Rune:

Thy *grandame's* was the first by Pyrrha thrown.

Dryden.

2. An old withered woman.—

The women

Cry'd, one and all, the suppliant should have right,

And to the *grandame* hag adjudge'd the knight.

Dryden.

GRAND ANSE, or JEREMIA, a town in the W. part of Hispaniola.

* GRANDAUGHTER. *n. f.* [*grand* and *daughter*.]

The daughter of a son or daughter.

GRAND BAY, a bay on the S. of Newfoundland.

GRANDBY, a town in Nottinghamshire, SE. of Bingham. It has a fair Nov. 1.

GRAND CHAMP, a town of France in the dept. of Morbihan, 7 miles NNW. of Vannes.

* GRANDCHILD. *n. f.* [*grand* and *child*.]

The son or daughter of my son or daughter; one in the second degree of descent.—Augustus Cæsar, out of indignation against his daughters and Atrippe his *grandchild*, would say that they were not his seed, but imposthumes broken from him. *Bacon.*

These hymns may work on future wits, and to

May great *grandchildren* of thy praises grow.

Donne.

—He hoped his majesty did believe, that he would never make the least scruple to obey the *grandchild* of K. James. *Clarendon.*

Fair daughter, and thou son and *grandchild* both!

Milton.

He 'scaping, with his gods and reliques fled,

And tow'rd the shore his little *grandchild* led.

Denham.

GRANDCOUR, a town of the Helvetic republic,

in Bern, 10 miles W. of Friburg.

GRANDCOURT, a town of France, in the dept. of the Lower Seine, 15 miles E. of Dieppe, and 4. N. of Neufchâtel.

(1.) GRANDE, a river of Africa, the S. branch of the NIGER. It runs into the Western Ocean.

(2, 3.) GRANDE, two rivers of S. America; 1. in Peru, near Cuzco, whose lands are rich in gold; 2. in Brazil. Both run into the Atlantic.

(4.) GRANDE, a town of Norway, in the diocese of Drontheim, 28 miles W. of Drontheim.

(1.) * GRANDEE. *n. f.* [*grand*, Fr.; *grandis*, Lat.] A man of great rank, power, or dignity.—They had few sharper and some milder differences which might easily happen in such an interview of *grandees*, both viceroy on the parts which they swayed. *Storace.*—When a prince or

grandee manifests a liking to such a thing, he is generally set about to make himself master of such things. *South.*—Some parts of monarchy are rather for ornament than for use; they furnish out viceroysalties for the king and posts of honour for the noble families.

(2.) GRANDEE, in Spain, is used to denote the prime lords of the court, to whom the king has once given leave to be in his presence: There are some *grandees* made by the king's saying simply, Others are *grandees* by descent; as the king's saying, *Be covered for thy grandfather*. These last are reputed far above the first. Some have 3 or 4 *grandeeships* in the family.

GRANDEESHIP, *n. f.* the office of a *grandee*. See last article.

GRANDENTZ. See GRAUDENTZ.

GRANDE-PRE. See GRANDPRAIRIE.

(1.) GRANDE RIVIERE, a river in France.

(2.) GRANDE RIVIERE, a town in France, on the above river, 20 miles SW. of Paris.

GRANDESHAGEN, a town in Pomerania, 2 miles NW. of Greifswald.

GRANDET, a French biographer, much esteemed for the purity of his style, born in 1646, and died in 1724.

* GRANDEVITY. *n. f.* [from Latin.] Great age; length of life.

* GRANDEVOUS. *adj.* [*grand* and *evous*.]

Long lived; of great age. *Dryden.*

(1.) * GRANDEUR. *n. f.* [French.] Splendour of appearance; magnificence; magistracy or great officer, he looks on all approaches by the multiplied attendance, by the distance of court.

grandeur. *South.* 1. Elevation of language, or mien.

(2.) GRANDEUR. See SUBLINEITY.

(1.) * GRANDFATHER. *n. f.* [*grand* and *father*.]

The father of my father or mother, or above my father or mother in the scale. One was saying that his great-grandfather, and father died at sea; that he heard him, an' I were as you, I come at sea. Why, faith he, who great-grandfather, and grandfather, die? He answered, where but in the answer, an' I were as you, I would in bed. *Bacon.*—Our grandchild's rags hung up in Westminster hall, a hundred millions, whereof they are arrears, and boast that their grandchild is rich and great. *South.*

(2.) GRANDFATHERS, in geogra-

phy, large mountains in the SE. corner of France, in which the head waters of French Catalaw rivers take rise.

GRANDGOR, or GLENGORE, a place in Scotland for the port of

Trans. N° 469. sect 3. there is a continuation of K. James IV. ordering this disease, or who had attended all forthwith to repair to an island in

Forth. If the grandgor was the pestilence came into Europe at the year 1495, it must have made a rapid

have caused such an alarm at Edinburgh.

ANDIFICK. *adj.* [*grandis* and *facio*, Making great. *Dith*

ANDINOUS. *adj.* [*grando*, Latin.] Full consisting of hail. *Dith*.

ISLAND, the name of 3 islands in N. viz. 1st. in the mouth of Lake Ontario, 5 to Britain, 20 miles long and 4 broad; N. side of Lake Superior; and 3. in the 4 miles N. of Fort Erie, about 6 miles 3 broad.

ISLES, 2 large islands in Lake Cham- ch about 9 miles long. They belong to of Vermont, and form two townships.

ANDITY. *n. f.* [from *grandis*, Latin.] 1; grandeur; magnificence. An old word. ets excel in *grandity* and gravity, smooth- propriety, in quickness and briefness. *Remains.*

LAKE, a lake of N America, in New k, near St John's river, 30 miles long, 10 broad, and in some places 40 fathoms

IDLUCE, a town of France in the dep. 14 miles SE. of Mans.

MANAN, an island of the Atlantic, on der of the United States, 6 miles SE. of ello.

DMONT. See GRAMMONT, N° 1.

NDMOTHER. *n. f.* [*grand* and *mother.*] er's or mother's mother.—Thy *grand-* is, and thy mother Eunice. 2 *Tim.* i. 5.

DOLA, a town of Portugal in Etrema- miles SE. of Setuval.

DPRE, a town of France, in the dep. ies, and late prov. of Champagne; feat- Aire, 33 miles E. of Rheims. On the 1794, the French under Dumouriez. ated near this town by the allied army

D. of Brunswick, and forced back to ould; on the 16th the Prussians entered ; but on the 30th they were driven out n. Kellerman, after losing 3000 men in pidemical fever and dysentery.

DRIEUX, a town of France in the dep. , 10½ miles NW. of Langogne.

AND RIVER, or RIO GRANDE, a river which runs into the Atlantic, in Lou. . Lat. 11. 0. N.

AND RIVER, a river of N. America, 13 NW. into Lake Erie, 80 miles SW. : Isle.

IDSIRE. *n. f.* [*grand* and *fire.*] 1. Grand-

c'st thou, that I will leave my kingly one,

n my *grandfire* and my father sat? *Shak.* *grandfire*, and his brother, to whom fame rom two conquer'd parts o' th' world, ir name. *Denham.*

e wreaths his *grandfire* knew to reap e toil and military sweat. *Prior.* cestor, poetically.—

should a man, whose blood is warm hin,

his *grandfire* cut in alabaster? *Shak.*

: the portal, carv'd in cedar wood, n their racks, their godlike *grandfires* d. *Dryden.*

PART II.

So mimick ancient wits at best,
As apes our *grandfires* in their doublets drest.

Pope.
* **GRANDSON.** *n. f.* [*grand* and *son.*] The son of a son or daughter.—

Almighty Jove augment your wealthy store,
Give much to you, and to his *grandsons* more.

Dryden.
—Grandfathers in private families are not much observed to have great influence on their *grandsons*, and, I believe, they have much less among princes. *Swift.*

GRAND-SONE, a town of France, in the dept. of Doubs, 4 miles E. of Besançon.

GRANDS SEAUX, or GREAT SEALS, a nation of N. American Indians, who inhabit the country S. of the Missouri. They have about 300 warriors.

(1.) **GRANDVILLE,** a town of France in the dept. of the Channel, and ci-devant prov. of Normandy, partly seated on a plain, partly on a rock; forming an oval peninsula and surrounded with walls and 2 gates. It has a harbour capable of containing 60 ships, and contains about 2,500 citizens. It is 12 miles NW. of Avranches, 15 S. by E. of Coutances, and 185 W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 32. W. Lat. 48. 50. N.

(2.) **GRANDVILLE,** a town of France in the dept. of Meuse, 3 miles SW. of Longwy.

GRAND VILLIER, a town of France, in the dept. of Oise, 14 miles NNW. of Beauvais.

GRANEN, a town of Spain in Arragon, 13 miles S. of Huesca.

GRANENA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 10 miles S. of Lerida.

GRANEVSKIA, a fort of Russia, on the Volga, in the province of Saratov.

GRANEWOLDEN, a town of Norway, 26 miles S. of Christiania.

(1.) * **GRANGE.** *n. f.* [*grange*, French.] A farm: generally a farm with a house at a distance from neighbours.—One, when he had got the inheritance of an unlucky old *grange*, would needs sell it; and, to draw buyers, proclaimed the virtues of it: nothing ever thrived on it, saith he; the trees were all blasted, the swine died of the measles, the cattle of the murrain, and the sheep of the rot; nothing was ever reared there, not a duckling or a goose. *Ben Jonson's Discov.*—At the moated *grange* resides this dejected Mariana. *Shak.*

The loose unletter'd hinds,
When for their teeming flocks and *granges* full
In wanton dance they praise the bounteous Pan.

Milton.
—If the church was of their own foundation, they might chuse, the incumbent being once dead, whether they would put any other therein; un- less, perhaps, the said church had people be- longing to it; for then they must still maintain a curate: and of this sort were their *granges* and priories. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) **GRANGE** [from *granum*, Lat. grain.] is also an ancient term for a barn, or place wherein to lay up and thresh corn. Hence also **GRAN- GER,** or *granzier*, a grange-keeper or farmer.

(3.) **GRANGE** is also used for an inn.

(4.) **GRANGE,** Joseph Chancel DE LA, a French

F F F

author

author born in 1701, celebrated for his talents and misfortunes; which last he drew upon himself by publishing a severe philippic against Philip D. of Orleans. He wrote several tragedies of great merit. He died in 1785, aged 82.

(5.) GRANGES, M. DE LA, a learned and judicious French critic, born at Paris in 1738. He published a translation of Lucretius; and his translation of Seneca was published after his death, in 1771.

(6.) GRANGE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, so named from *Grange*, a farm. (See N° 1.) 6 miles long from N. to S. and 5 miles broad. It contains about 16,000 acres, of which little more than 4000 are in tillage. The church is 4 miles E. of Keith, 10 N. of Huntly, 12 S. of Portsoy, and 16 SW. of Banff. The hills along the S. side of it. The parish being hilly, the climate is cold and moist. About $\frac{1}{3}$ of the soil is fertile; the rest is mostly a poor clay upon till, or moor. The produce is oats, barley, pease, turnips, potatoes and flax. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. Francis Forbes in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 3572, and had decreased 225, since 1755. The number of horses was 422, of sheep 2582, and of black cattle 1843. The roads are bad. Improvements in agriculture had been introduced by the late lord Findlater, but are retarded by high rents, short leases, and severe services; as well as by oppressive mill-multiplication till of late that they were commuted. Mr Forbes says, the people also complain much of the excessive and dissolvent laws as unequal and oppressive. Notwithstanding all these dissuasive pages, the parish produces more grain than supplies the inhabitants, except in very bad seasons. In 1768, the crop after it was cut down, was almost entirely swept away by an overflowing of the Isla. Linen yarn and coarse linens are the only manufactures. About 25,000 holls of lime are also made annually, as the parish abounds in lime-stone.

(7.) GRANGE, a town of France, in the dep. of Vosges, 5 miles ESE. of Bruyeres.

(8.) GRANGE, a town of Sweden, in the province of Dal-carlia, 30 miles S. of Fahlun.

(9.—20.) GRANGE is also the name of 13 English villages: viz. 1. in Cheshire, on the Dec; 2. in Cumberland, near Kefwick; 3. in Dorsetsh. near Wareham; 4. NE. of Durham; 5. in Gloucestersh. 6. in Hampshire, NE. of Itching-stoke; 7. in Herefordsh. near Brompton-Brian; 8. in Kent, 1 mile from Gillingham; 9. in Lancashire, with a port for small vessels; 10. N. of Lincoln; 11. in Northumberland, SW. of Morpeth; and 12. in ditto, near Pontiland.

(21.—25.) GRANGE, is also the name of 5 small towns in Ireland: viz. 1. in Antrim; 2. and 3. in Meath; 4. in Sligo; and 5. in Tyrone.

(26.) GRANGE, CAPE LA, a cape on the N. side of

the dep. of Upper Saone; 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles SSE. of

GRANGER, or GRAINGER, James, M. D. born at Dunfermline, about 1723. He was a translation of Tibullus, several medical tracts, a poem on the Sugar Cane, and other

poetical pieces. He died in the W. where he had chiefly practised, in 1769.

(27.) GRANGE. See GRANGES, N° 1.

GRANGES, a town of France in the Lot and Gironne; 6 miles E. of Turenne.

GRANGNANO, a town of Naples; 35 miles W. of Salerno.

GRANHULT, a town of Sweden in 35 miles NW. of Calmar.

GRANI, [from *grann*, Irish, a heavy ancient winter, mulchies or whistles] Roman Catholics give as a reason why they refused to the lady, *Quia barbari, & non best grannos, dum peculum inter epulas sum liquore pilos infundunt, quam ut infundunt.*

GRANICUS, a small river near the in Lesser Asia, remarkable for the gained by Alexander the Great over Darius.—Authors disagree about the of the Persian, though all agree that vastly more numerous than the Grecian and Grecian tell us, that the Persian a sister of 200,000 foot and 20,000 horse makes the total amount to 200,000; but tells us, that they were only 100,000 to 150,000 horse. The Macedonian army exceed 30,000 foot and 5000 horse. The cavalry lined the banks of the Grani to oppose Alexander wherever he should a passage; and the foot were posted in cavalry on an easy ascent. Parmenio had Alexander to allow his troops to retreat themselves; but he replied, having crossed the Hellespont, it would grace to him and his troops to be rivulet. Accordingly a proper place the river was no sooner found, than he led a strong detachment of horse to himself followed with the right wing, commanded in person; the trumpets in time sounding, and loud shouts of joy through the whole army. The Persian such showers of arrows against the detached Macedonian horse, as caused some confusion of their horses being killed or wounded they drew near the bank a most blow ensued; the Macedonians advanced, and the Persians pushing them back river. Alexander, who observed they were in, took the command of the and landing in spite of all opposition, Persian cavalry, after an obstinate give ground. However, Spithrochates, of Ionia, and son in law to Darius, killed his ground, and did all that lay in to bring them back to the charge. Alexander full gallop to engage him, and slightly wounded at the first encounter. Spithrochates having thrown his javelin with advanced sword in hand to meet him, who ran him through with his pike his arm to discharge a blow with his But Rosaces, brother to Spithrochates, in time gave Alexander such a furious blow head with his battle-axe, that he beat off and slightly wounded him through the As he was ready to repeat the blow, C

Broke of his scymitar cut off Rosaces's head, thus in all probability saved the life of his son. The Macedonians then, animated by example of their king, attacked the Persians with new vigour, who soon after betook themselves to flight. Alexander immediately charged enemy's foot with all his forces, who had now led the river. The Persians, disheartened at defeat of their cavalry, made no great resistance. The Greek mercenaries retired in good order to a neighbouring hill, whence they sent messages to Alexander desiring leave to march off un molested. But he, instead of coming to a parley with them, rushed furiously into the middle of his mail body; where his horse was killed under him, and he himself in great danger of being cut in pieces. The Greeks defended themselves with incredible valour for a long time, but were at almost entirely cut off. In this battle the Persians said to have lost 20,000 foot and 2,500 horse, the Macedonians only 55 foot and 60 horse.

(2.) **GRANITE**, *n. f.* [*granit*, Fr. from *grain*, Lat. because consisting as it were of grains, small distinct particles.] A stone composed of coarse and very large concretions, rudely connected together; of great hardness, giving fire like steel; not fermenting with acids, and infusibly calcinable in a great fire. The hard red granite with black spots, commonly called *porphyry*, forms a very firm, and though rude, beautifully variegated mass. It is found in immense strata in Ireland, but not used there. Cornwall it is found in prodigious masses, and brought to London, for the steps of public buildings. Hard red granite, variegated with black and white, now called *oriental granite*, is valuable for its extreme hardness and beauty, and capable of a most elegant polish. *Hill on Fossils*.—*Abaster*, marble of divers colours, both simple and mixed, the *opulites*, *porphyry*, and the *misc*. *Woodward*.—There are still great pillars of *granite*, and other fragments of this ancient temple. *Addison on Italy*.

(2.) **GRANITE**, in natural history, is a distinct genus of stones. See § 1. Of this genus there are species: 1. The hard white granite, (§ 1.) is a very valuable kind, consisting of a beautiful congeries of very variously constructed and differently coloured particles, not diffused among or running into one another, but each pure and distinct, though firmly adhering to which ever of the others it comes in contact with, and forming a very firm mass. 2. The hard red granite variegated with black and white, is common in Egypt and Arabia. This species is also found in many parts of Europe. There are fine tables, &c. equal to the best oriental granite, at Mount Edgecumbe in Devonshire, which are wrought from stone found in that county. It is also found in other counties of England. 3. The pale whitish granite, variegated with black and yellow. This is sometimes found in strata, but more frequently in loose nodules, and used for paving the streets. Some of these kinds of stones are found in almost every country, and in many places they are found of immense bigness. The largest mass of this kind in the known world, being as an unconnected stone, is found near the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, and of which we

have the following description in the *Philosophical Transactions*, vol. 68. p. 101, given by Mr Anderson in a letter to Sir John Pringle. "The stone is so remarkable, that it is called by the people here the *Tower of Babel*, and by some the *Pearl Diamond*. It either takes the last name from a place near which it is situated, or it gives name to the tract of cultivated land called the *Pearl*. It lies upon the top of a ridge of low hills, beyond a large plain, about 30 miles from the Cape Town; beyond which, at a little distance, is a range of hills of a much greater height. It is of an oblong shape, and lies N. and S. The South end is highest; the E. and W. sides are steep and high; the top is rounded, and slopes away gradually to the N. end, so that you can ascend it by that way, and enjoy a most extensive prospect of the whole country. I could not precisely determine its circumference, but it took us above half an hour to walk round it; and by making every allowance for the rugged way, and stopping a little, I think the most moderate computation must make it exceed half a mile. The same difficulty occurred with respect to knowing its height; but I think, that, at the S. end, it is nearly equal to half its length.—I am uncertain whether it ought to be considered as the top of the hill, or a detached stone, because there is no positive proof of either, unless we were to dig about its base; but it would certainly impress every beholder, at first sight, with the idea of its being one stone, not only from its figure, but because it is really one solid uniform mass from top to bottom, without any interruption. It has indeed a few fissures, which do not reach deeper than 4 or 5 feet; and near its north end a stratum of a more compact stone runs across, which is not above 12 or 14 inches thick, with its surface divided into little squares, or oblongs, disposed obliquely. This stratum is perpendicular. Its surface is also so smooth, that it does not appear to have formerly been joined to, or separated from, any other part by violence, but enjoys the exact situation where it was originally placed; and has undergone little change from being exposed for so many successive ages to the calcining power of a very hot climate."—A part of this stone being examined by Sir William Hamilton, he determined it to be a granite, and of the same nature with the tops of some of the Alps; and supposes both to have been elevated by volcanic explosions.

(3.) **GRANITE**, in Lithology, a genus of stones of the order of *petræ*, belonging to the class of *saxa*. The principal constituent parts of this stone are *felt-spar* or *rhombic quartz*, *mica*, and *quartz*. These ingredients constitute the hardest sort of granite, and that most anciently known. That into which *schoerl* enters is more subject to decomposition. They never have any particular texture or regular form, but consist of enormous shapeless masses extremely hard. In the finer granites the quartz is transparent; in others generally white or grey, violet or brown. The felt-spar is generally the most copious ingredient, and of a white, yellow, red, black, or brown colour. The mica is also grey, brown, yellow, green, red, violet, or black; and commonly the least copious. The *schoerl* is generally black, and

abounds in the granites that contain it. Hence the colour of the granites depends principally on that of the spar or schoerl. The red granites consist commonly of white quartz, red felt spar, and grey mica; the grey ones of white quartz, grey or violet felt spar, and black mica. The black granites commonly contain schoerl instead of felt-spar; and the green usually contain green quartz. On exposing granite to the flame of a blow pipe, the component ingredients separate from one another. Mr Gerbard, having melted some in a crucible, found the felt spar run into a transparent glass; below it the mica lay in form of a black slag, the quartz remaining unaltered. It melted somewhat better when all the three were powdered and mixed together; though even then the quartz was still discernible by a magnifying glass. Hence we may explain the reason why grains of a white colour are sometimes found in volcanic lavas. The mixture of mica prevents the flux or quartz from splitting or cracking; and hence its infusibility and use in furnace-building. Granites are seldom flaty or laminated. In those of a close texture, the quartz and schoerl predominate. They take a good polish; for which reason the Egyptians formerly, and the Italians still work them into large pieces of ornamental architecture, for which they are extremely fit, as not being liable to decay in the air. Faber, in his letters from Italy, mentions a kind of stone named *GRANITONE*, composed of felt spar and mica: a substance of this kind, which moulders in the air, is found in Finland; which is said to contain felt-spar, and sometimes common salt. In that country it is called *rapakivi*. Wallerius describes 18 species of granites, besides many others akin to this genus. Those described by Cronstedt are, 1. Loose or friable, which comes from France, and is used at the brass-works for casting that metal in. 2. Hard or compact, of which there are two varieties, red and grey. The former is met with of two kinds; viz. fine-grained from Swappari in Lapland, or coarse grained from the province of Dalarna in Sweden. The grey, with other colours, is met with on the coast round Stockholm and Norland in Sweden.

GRANITELLO, a genus of stones of the order of petra, belonging to the class of laxa. There are 2 species, 1. That composed of distinct particles, found in several of the mountainous parts of Sweden. In some of these there is a predominance of quartzose particles, in others of micaceous; in which last case the stone is slaty, and easily split. 2. That composed of convoluted particles. It is met with of different colours, as whitish, grey, greenish, and reddish. Both these kinds of stone are used in building furnaces, on account of the powerful resistance they make to the fire; but the latter is preferable to the other, on account of its containing a little of a refractory clayish substance. It is likewise of great use in mills, where the fellow is a coarse sand stone.

GRANIFONE. See *GRANITE*, § 3.

GRANIVOROUS, *adj.* [*granum* and *voro*, Lat.] Eating grain; living upon grain. — *Granivorous* birds, as a crane, upon the first peck of their bills, can distinguish the qualities of hard bodies, which the sense of men discerns not without mul-

lication. *Spous.*—Panick affords a nourishment, both for *granivorous* birds and kind. *Arbutus*

GRANNA, a town of Sweden, in Småland, 12 miles NNE. of Jönköping.

* GRANNAM, *n. f.* [for *grandam*.] mother. Only used in burlesque works.

Of my kind *grannam* told me, with warning

GRANOLIERS, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 12 miles NNE. of Barcelona.

GRANSEE, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate, 30 miles NNW. of Bish.

GRANSKEVITZ, a town of Upper Hungary, 12 miles NW. of Ruck.

GRANSO, an island in the Baltic, on the coast of Sweden. Lon. 16. 36. E. of Paris 57. 46. N.

(1.) GRANSON, a town of the Helvetia in Neuchâtel. It was besieged in 1474, by the bold duke of Burgundy; and after a long siege surrendered at discretion, when the duke barbarously massacred the garrison; but he afterwards defeated with an army of 30,000 only 10,000 Swiss. It lies 16 miles SW. of Neuchâtel. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 46. 50. N.

(2.) GRANSON, a ci-devant bailiwick in Switzerland, of which the above town (No. 1.) is the capital, between Lake Neuchâtel and Mont Blanc.

(1.) GRANT, Francis, Lord Colclough, a eminent lawyer and judge in Scotland, descended from a younger branch of the Grants of Colclough. He was born about 1660, and having entered the law, made a distinguished figure at the bar, by opposing the old lawyers, who argued on the inability of the Convention to make any disposition of the crown abilities he moved in favour of the revolution, commended him to an extensive practice which he acquired to much honour, the union between the two kingdoms was not long, Q. Anne, without application, created a baronet, with a view of securing his interest in that measure; and soon after created lord of session. The same good qualities, commended him to this house, as he was conspicuous in the discharge of his office, which he continued for 25 years with the highest reputation, when after an illness which lasted but a few days he expired without agony on March 18th 1711. In the *Biographia Britannica*, it is recorded with honour, "That as an advocate he was under in the management of business; but at the same time that he spared no pains, he would use it. He had so high an idea of the dignity of the profession, that he held it equally criminal to neglect any honest means of coming at justice, or to use of any arts to elude it. In respect to his private character he was very considerate, and his private charities were very considerable. He grew in proportion with his profits. He did not suffer a just cause to be lost through a want of money. He was such an enemy to oppression, that he never denied his assistance as laboured under it; and with respect to the dignity of all professions in Scotland, he served without a log. Whenever he sat as lord of

f causes was remarkably full, for his being equally established for knowledge, there were none who had a good their own pretensions, but were desisting them before him, and not many sit down satisfied with his decision.

Sentences were reversed, and when it was commonly owing to himself; mature reflection, or upon new real at the re-hearing, he saw any just altering his judgment, he made no scrupling it; being persuaded, that it was as well as more just, to follow truth, port opinion: and his conduct in this head of lessening, raised his reputation. Yet, however, with all this great stock of age, experience, and probity, trust matters of blood, or venture to decide cases on the lives of his fellow-creatures was the reason that, though often could never be prevailed upon to act in the judiciary court.—In his private was as amiable as he was estimable in. He was charitable without ostentation, in his friendships, and beneficent to any thing to do with him. He was strictly just, but so free from avarice, that finding him more intent on the business to him by others than on his own, he left the care of placing out his money to prevent his postponing, as he was such kind of affairs, when securities offered the circumstances of them to be in form of cases, and so procured him in his own concerns as if they had been silent. He was so true a lover of learning, much addicted to his studies, that, finding the multiplicity of his business at bar, and his great attention to his as a judge, he found time to write volumes on very different and important subjects political, which were remarkably and highly serviceable to the government of a more extensive nature, such as *law, religion, and education*, which were presented to George II. when prince of Wales, whose command his then secretary, Molyneux, wrote him a letter of which were many gracious expressions in relation to the piece as to its composition, besides these, many discouraging subjects, for the exercise of his own mind for the better discovery of truth; no farther than his own closet, and a simple of modesty were not communicated to his most intimate friends."

DR. PATRICK, Lord Prebendary, a learned lawyer and judge in Scotland, Edinburgh, in 1698. In 1754, he was on the bench. He wrote several tracts against rebellion in 1745, and died at Edinburgh aged 64.

GRANT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. The giving or bestowing. 2. The thing granted—a boon.—

Courtiers juggle for a grant,
When they break their friendship plead their want.
Dryden.

3. [In law.] A gift in writing of such a thing as cannot aptly be passed or conveyed by word only; as rents, reversions, services, advowsons in gross, commons in gross, tithes, &c. or made by such persons as cannot give but by deed, as the king, and all bodies politic; which differences be often in speech neglected, and then is taken generally for every gift whatsoever, made of any thing by any person; and he that granteth it is named the grantor, and he to whom it is made the grantee. A thing is said to be in *grant* which cannot be assigned without deed. *Coovel.*—All the land is the queen's, unless there be some *grant* of any part thereof, to be shewed from her majesty. *Spenser.*—Not only the laws of this kingdom but of other places, and the Roman laws, provide that the prince should not be deceived in his *grants*. *Davenant.* 4. Concession; admission of something in dispute.—But of this so large a *grant*, we are content not to take advantage. *Hooker.*—

'This *grant* destroys all you have urg'd before.
Dryden.

* To GRANT. *v. a.* [from *garantir*, Fr. *Jamieson* and *Skinner*; perhaps, as *Minshew* thinks, from *gratuite*, or rather from *gratia*, or *gratificor*.] 1. To admit that which is not yet proved; to allow; to yield; to concede.—They gather out of Scripture general rules to be followed in making laws; and so, in effect, they plainly *grant*, that we ourselves may lawfully make laws for the church. *Hooker.*—I take it for *granted*, that though the Greek word which we translate *saints*, be in itself as applicable to things as persons; yet in this article it signifieth not holy things, but holy ones. *Pearson.*—

Grant that the fates have firm'd, by their decree,

The Trojan race to reign in Italy. *Dryden.*

Suppose, which yet I *grant* not, thy desire
A moment elder than my rival fire,
Can chance of seeing first thy title prove?

Dryden.

—If he be one indifferent as to the present rebellion, they may take it for *granted* his complaint is the rage of a disappointed man. *Addison.* 2. To bestow something which cannot be claimed of right.—The God of Israel *grant* thee thy petition that thou hast asked of him. 1 *Samuel* xvii.—Then hath God also to the gentiles *granted* repentance unto life. *Acts* xiii. 18.—

Didst thou not kill this king?

—I *grant* ye.

—Do't *grant* me, hedgehog? then *grant* me too,
Thou may'st be damned for that wicked deed.
Shak.

He heard, and *granted* half his prayer;

The rest the winds dispers'd. *Pope.*

GRANTA, a river of England, which runs into the Cam at Cambridge.

* GRANTABLE. *adj.* [from *grant*.] That which may be granted.—The office of the bishop's chancellor was *grantable* for life. *Ayliffe.*

* GRANTEE. *n. s.* [from *grant*.] He to whom any grant is made.—To smooth the way for popery in Mary's time, the *grantees* were confirmed by the pope in the possession of the abbey-lands. *Swift.*

GRANT-

GRANTHAM, a populous town of Lincolnshire, which has good inns of great resort, on the road, from London to York. It is supposed to have been a Roman town, from the remains of a castle formerly dug up in it. It is governed by an alderman and 12 justices of the peace, a recorder, a coroner, an escheator, and 12 common councillors. It has a fine large church with a stone spire, one of the loftiest in England, being 300 feet high; and, by a deception of the sight, it seems to lean to one side. Grantham has a good free school, where Sir Isaac Newton received his first education, besides two charity schools. It is a borough, and sends 4 members to parliament. It is seated on the Witham, 38 miles S. of Lincoln, and 110 N. of London. Lon. 0. 36. W. Lat. 52. 59. N.

GRANTLEY, a town in York, SW. of Rippen.

* **GRANTOR**. *n. f.* [from *grant*.] He by whom any grant is made.—A *duplex querela* shall not be granted under pain of suspension of the grantor from the execution of his office. *Ayliffe*.

(1.) **GRANVILLE**, George, lord Lansdowne, was descended from a very ancient family, derived from Rollo the first duke of Normandy. At 21 years of age he was sent to Trinity college in Cambridge, where he remained 5 years: but at the age of 13 was admitted M. A. having, before he was 21, spoken a set of verses of his own composition to the duchess of York at his college, when she visited the University of Cambridge. In 1696, his comedy called the *Sir gallants* was acted at the theatre royal in Lincoln-Inn fields, as his tragedy called *Heroic Love* was in 1698. In 1702 he translated into English the *second Olympian of Demosthenes*. He was M. P. for the county of Cornwall in 1710; afterwards secretary of war, comptroller of the household, then treasurer, and one of the privy council. In 1711, he was created baron Lansdowne. On the accession of K. George I. in 1714, he was removed from his treasurer's place; and in 1715 entered his protest against the bills for attainting lord Bulingbroke and the duke of Ormond. He entered deeply into the scheme for raising an insurrection in the W. of England; and was committed to the Tower, where he continued two years. In 1719, he made a speech in the house of Lords, against the bill to prevent occasional conformity. In 1722, he withdrew to France, and continued abroad near 10 years. At his return in 1732, he published a fine edition of his works in 2 vols. quarto. He died in 1735, leaving no male issue.

(2.) **GRANVILLE**. See **GRANDVILLE**, N° 1.

(3.) **GRANVILLE**, a fertile county of N. Carolina, in Hillsbury district, bounded on the SE. by Warren county, S. by Wake, SW. and W. by Orange, and N. by Virginia. It contained 6,819 citizens, and 4,163 slaves, in 1795. Williamsborough is the capital.

(4.) **GRANVILLE**, a town in Kentucky.

(5.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, 14 miles W. of Springfield, containing 1979 inhabitants, in 1795.

(6.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of New York, in Washington county, containing 2240 inhabitants in 1792.

(7.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of Maryland, in Annapolis county.

* **GRANULARY**. *adj.* [from *gran* and compact; resembling a small grain. Small coal, with sulphur and nitre, properly mixed, tempered, and formed into balls, do make up that powder which guns. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(1.) * **To GRANULATE**. *v. a.* [from *granum*, Latin.] To be formed into grains.—The juice of grapes, insipid, *granulates* into sugar. *Spratt*.

(2.) * **To GRANULATE**. *v. a.* 1. To make into small masses or granules. 2. To excite appetite.—I have observed, in many gullets, before its entrance into the stomach much dilated, and thick set, or as it were, *granulated* with a multitude of glandules, which was provided with its excretory vessels.

GRANULATED, *part. pass.* that has undergone granulation. See the next.

(1.) * **GRANULATION**. *n. f.* [from *granulate*.] 1. The act of melting metal into cold water, so as to *granulate* or congeal into small grains: thus done through a colander, or a sieve. Gunpowder and some salts are likewise *granulated*, from their resemblance to *Quincy*. 2. The act of showing or forming small masses.—Fests in wounds, by the growth of the little *granulations* of the process of time harden them, and produce a scabula. *Sharp's Surgery*.

(2.) **GRANULATION**, in chemistry, a method by which metallic substances are reduced into small roundish particles, to facilitate combination with other substances. This consists only in pouring the melted metal into a vessel filled with water, which mean time to be agitated with a bar of melted copper, however, which is done with great violence on the contact of these precautions are to be observed. It works at Bristol, copper is *granulated* in a danger of explosion, by letting it fall into a large cistern of cold water cool brass plate. In the middle of the plate, in which is secured with sturdy small vessel, whose capacity does a spoonful, perforated with many small holes through which the copper passes. As cold water passes through the cistern, and to grow hot the copper will fall to the bottom and run into flat plates instead of balls. Lead or tin may be *granulated* by the same method when melted into a box; the interior of which is rubbed with powdered charcoal, and strongly shaken till the grains are solid. Metals are *granulated*, because the process renders them incapable of being fused, and because filing is long and tedious render the metal impure by an admixture from the file.

* **GRANULE**. *n. f.* [from *granum*.] A small compact particle.—With an microscope, where the naked eye did not see powder, the assisted eye could discern

e blue, and some yellow. *Bayle on*

LOUS. *adj* [from *granule*.] Full of

a village in Kilkenny, Ireland.

W, a town of Germany in Bran-
denburg SE. of Prenzlau.

GRAPE. *n. s.* [*grappe*, French; *krappe*,
German] the fruit of the vine, growing in clus-
ter from which wine is expressed.—

Will not glean thy vineyard, neither
pluck every *grape* of thy vineyard;
leave them for the poor and stranger.

—
con for thy sake

the mention make;

action by thee fell,

at, I lov'd thee well.

Cowley.

the vines in early flow'r deserv'd,

and discolour'd on the sunny side. *Pope.*

G, the fruit of the vine. See **VINE**,

VINE; also **CURRENT** and **RAISIN**.

GRAPE HYACINTH, or **GRAPE Flow-**
er.

G **HYACINTH**. See **HYACINTHUS**.

G, **MANGROVE**. } Two species of

G, **SEA-SIDE**. } **POLYGONUM**.

n. s. plur. in the manege, a term used
for arrests or many tumours that hap-
pen to a leg.

GRAPNEL, in artillery, is a combination of
wrought into a thick canvas bag, and cord-
ed together, so as to form a kind of cy-
linder diameter is equal to that of the ball
of the cannon. The number of shot in a
grapple according to the service or size of the
service nine is always the number;
it is increased to any number or size,
one and a quarter in weight to three
pounds. In sea-service the bottoms and
sides of iron, whereas those used by land

GRAPNEL. *n. s.* [*grape* and *stone*.] The
stone contained in the grape.—

an obedient nature knows his will,

grapestone, or a hair can kill *Prior.*

GRAPHICAL. *adj* [*grape*.] Well delineated

with a needle, or bodkin, or knife,

when the fruit or trees are young;

grow, so the letters will grow more

graphical. *Bacon's Natural History.*

GRAPHICALLY. *adv.* [from *graphical*] In a

manner; with good description or de-

scribe the hyena odorata, or civet cat, is

described graphically by *Castellus.*

gar Errors.

GRAPNEL. *n. s.* [*grapin*, French.] 1.

or belonging to a little vessel. 2. A

grapple with which in fight one ship fastens

on another.

GRAPNELS, or **GRAPPLINGS**, (§ 1. *def.* 1.)

are fitted with 4 or 5 flukes or claws, and com-
monly used to ride a boat or other small vessel.

* **GRAPPLE.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Con-
test hand to hand, in which the combatants seize
each other: the wrestlers hold.—

As when earth's son, Antæus strove

With Jove's Alcides, and, oft foil'd, still rose

Fresh from his fall, and fiercer grapple join'd,

Throttled at length in th' air, expir'd and fell,

Milton.

Or did his genius

Know mine the stronger demon, fear'd the grap-
ple,

And, looking round him, found this nook of fate,

To skulk behind my sword? *Dryd. Don Sebast.*

2. Close fight.—In the grapple I boarded them:
on the instant they got clear of our ship, so I alone
became their prisoner. *Hamlet.* 3. Iron instru-
ment by which one ship fastens on another.—

But Cymon soon his crooked grapples cast,

Which with tenacious hold his foes embrac'd.

Dryden.

(1.) * **To GRAPPLE.** *v. n.* [*grabbelen*, Dutch;
krappeln, German] 1. To contend by seizing each
other, as wrestlers.—They must be also practised
in all the locks and grips of wrestling, as need
may often be in fight to tugg or grapple, and to
close. *Milton.*—

Living virtue, all achievements past,

Meets envy, still to grapple with at last. *Waller.*

—Does he think that he can grapple with divine
vengeance, and endure the everlasting burnings?
South.—

Antæus here and stern Alcides strive,

And both the grappling statues seem to live. *Add.*

2. To contest in close fight.—

I'll in my standard bear the arms of York,

To grapple with the house of Lancaster. *Shak.*

Sometimes, from fighting squadrons of each

fleet,

Two grappling Ætnas on the ocean meet,

And English fires with Belgian flames contend.

Dryden.

(2.) **To GRAPPLE.** *v. a.* 1. To fasten; to fix;
to join indissolubly. Now obsolete.

Grapple your minds to sternage of the navy,

And leave your England as dead midnight still.

Shakespeare's Henry V.

That business

Grapples you to the heart and love of us. *Shak.*

2. To seize; to lay fast hold of.—For Hippagines,
vessels for the transporting of horse, we are indebted
to the Salaminians; for grappling hooks to A-
nacharis. *Heylyn.*

* **GRAPPELMENT.** *n. s.* [from *grapple*.] Close
fight; hostile embrace. Not in use.—

They catching hold of him, as down he lent,

Him backward overthrew, and down him stay'd

With their rude hands and grievous grappelement.

Spenser.

(1.) **GRAPPLING.** See **GRAPNEL**, § 2.

(2.) **Fire-GRAPPLING**, an instrument nearly re-
sembling the Grapnel, (See **GRAPNEL**, § 2.) but
differing in the construction of its flukes, which
are furnished with strong barbs on their points.
These machines are usually fixed on the yard-arms
of a ship, to grapple any adversary whom she in-
tends

tends to board. They are more particularly useful in FIRE-SHIPS for the purposes described under that article.

GRAS, Antony Le, a French writer, born in 1691. He published translations of Cornelius Nepos, and of the works of the primitive fathers, into French. He died in 1761, aged 70.

GRASHOLM, one of the small Orkney Isles, half a mile S. of Shapinsay.

(1.) * GRASHOPPER. *n. f.* [*grass* and *hop*.] A small insect that hops in the summer grass. The *cricket* of the Latins is often by the poets translated *grasshopper*, but improperly.—

Her waggon spokes made of long spinners legs,

The cover of the wings of grasshoppers. *Shak.*
—Grasshoppers eat up the green of whole countries. *Bacon.*

Where silver lakes with verdant shadows crown'd,

Disperse a grateful chitina all around ;

The grasshopper avoids th' untainted air,

Nor in the midst of Summer ventures there. *Addison.*

—The women were of such an enormous stature, that we appeared as grasshoppers before them. *Spectator.*

(2.) GRASHOPPER, or more properly GRASSHOPPER, in entomology. See GRYLUS.

* GRASIER. See GRAZIER.

GRASKA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Bracław, 30 miles SW. of Bracław.

GRASMARK, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland, 44 miles N. of Carlstadt.

GRASON, an island in the gulf of Bothnia, near the coast of Sweden, 15 miles long and 2 broad. Long. 18. 20. E. Lat. 60. 22. N.

* GRASP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The gripe or seizure of the hand.—

Nor wanted in his grasp

What seem'd both spear and shield. *Milton.*

This hand and sword have been acquainted well ;

It would have come before into my grasp,

To kill the ravisher. *Dryd. Don Sebastian.*

—The left arm is a little defaced, though one may see it held something in its grasp formerly. *Aldis.*

2. Possession ; hold.—

I would not be the villain that thou think'st

For the whole space that's in the tyrant's grasp,

And the rich East to boot. *Shak. Macbeth.*

3. Power of seizing —

Wunn the direful grasp

Of savage hunger, or of savage heat. *Milton.*

—They look'd upon it as their own, and had it even within their grasp. *Clarendon.*

(1.) * To GRASP. *v. a.* [*graspare*, Italian.] 1. To hold in the hand ; to gripe.—O fool that I am, that thought I could grasp water and bind the wind. *Sidney.*

In his right hand

Grasping ten thousand thunders which he sent

Before him, such as in their souls infix'd

Plagues. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Kings, by grasping more than they can hold,

First made their subjects, by oppression, bold.

Denham.

Doom, as they please, my empire
I'll grasp my sceptre with my dagger

Dryd. Iván.

2. To seize ; to catch at.—This grasp militia of the kingdom into their own I desired the Summer before. *Clarendon.*

For what are men who grasp at gain
But bubbles on the rapid stream of

(2.) * To GRASP. *v. m.* 1. To endeavour to seize ; to try at.—So end orbitant are the desires of men, that grasp at all, and can form no scheme happiness with less. *Swift.* 2. To strive ; to grapple. Not now in use.—

See, his face is black, and full of
His hands abroad display'd, as one
And tugg'd for life. *Shak.*

3. To gripe ; to encroach.—

Like a miser 'midst his ill

Who grasps and grasps 'till he can be

* GRASPER. *n. f.* [from *grasp*.]

grasps, seizes, or catches at.

(1.) * GRASS. *n. f.* [*grax*, Saxon.] mon herbage of the field on which cattle herb with long narrow leaves.—Ye are as the heifer at grass, and belloo as by 11.—The beef being young, and one was thin, light, and moist, and not of to endure the salt. *Temple.*

You'll be no more your former
But for a blooming nymph will pass
Just fifteen, coming Summer's grass

(II.) GRASS, in botany, is defined as having simple leaves, a stem generally tubular, a husky calyx, called Glum seed single. Hence wheat, oats, bark properly grasses, while clover and similar plants are not grasses, though so called by that name. Of grass the leaf for cattle, the small seeds for birds, and grain chiefly for man. And it is observed nature has so provided, that cattle (seldom eat the flower intended to produce unless compelled by hunger. For the different sorts of grain and grasses, BANDRY, and the names of the genera der.

(III.) GRASSES, CULMIFEROUS, divided into two general classes for the pur farmer, that it might be of use for him to, viz. 1st, Those which, like the annual kinds of corn, run chiefly to seed leaves gradually decaying as these towards perfection, and becoming total or falling off entirely when the seed Rye-grass belongs to this class in the 1st To it likewise may be assigned the v dogs-tail grass, and fine bent grass. 2 whole leaves continue to advance even seed-stalks are formed, and retain the and succulence during the whole season case with the fescue and poa tribes whose leaves are as green and succulent seeds are ripe and the flower stalks so any other time. "It is wonderful,"



GRASSES.

Plate C

Mountain Hair Grass

Meadow Fescue Grass

Flora Fesina Grass

Annual Meadow Grass

Fire Grass



Vernal Grass

Crested Dogtail

Creeping Meadow Grass

Silver Hair Grass



arks, to see how long mankind has ne-
 make a proper advantage of plants of
 ortance, and which, in almost every
 e the chief food of cattle. The farmer,
 of distinguishing and selecting grasses
 ills his pastures either with weeds, or
 proper grasses; when by making a right
 ter some trials, he might be sure of the
 and in the greatest abundance that his
 is of. At present, if a farmer wants to
 his land to grass, what does he do? He
 es his seeds indiscriminately from his
 hay-rick, or sends to his next neighbour
 ly. By these means, besides a certain
 all sorts of rubbish, which must neces-
 sarily, if he chances to have a large pro-
 portion of good seeds, it is not unlikely but that
 weeds for dryland may come from moist,
 grow naturally, and the contrary. This
 is a lovely method of proceeding, as one
 rick could not possibly prevail universally:
 he case as to all grasses except the daniel
 what is known in some few counties by
 of the *Suffolk grass*; and this latter in-
 wing, I believe, more to the soil than
 of the husbandman. Now, would the
 at the pains of separating once in his
 pint or a pint of the different kinds of
 , and take care to sow them separately,
 the time he would have wherewithal to
 run properly, according to the nature
 and might at the same time spread
 separately over the nation, by supply-
 ing shops. The number of grasses fit for
 is, I believe, small; perhaps half a do-
 zenscore are all he need to cultivate;
 and all the trouble would be of such a talk,
 that the benefit, must be obvious to e-
 very first sight. Would not any one be
 as wild who should sow wheat, barley,
 pease, beans, vetches, buck-wheat,
 and weeds of all sorts together? yet how
 less absurd to do what is equivalent in
 grasses? Does it not import the farmer
 good hay and grass in plenty? and will
 be equally on all sorts of food? We
 contrary. Horses will scarcely eat hay
 so well enough for oxen and cows.
 Linnæus, are particularly fond of one
 is, and fatten upon it faster than any
 Sweden. And may they not do the
 same? How shall we know till we have
facts relating to Nat. Hist) As most
 now scarce any of the grasses by name,
 without such knowledge little improve-
 ment made in this branch of husbandry,
Plate CLXIX. given figures of those
 have been recommended as the most
 viz.
 1. ANNUAL MEADOW, *Poa annua*.
 is (says Mr Stillingfleet) makes the
 It grows every where by way sides,
 found commons. It is called in some
Suffolk grass. I have seen whole fields
 of Suffolk, without any mixture of o-
 ; and, as some of the best salt butter
 of London comes from that county, it
 is to be the best grass for the dairy. I

have seen a whole park in Suffolk covered with
 this grass; but whether it affords good venison, I
 cannot tell, having never tasted of any from it.
 I should rather think not, and that the best pas-
 ture for sheep is also the best for deer. However,
 this wants trial. I remarked on Malvern hill
 something particular in relation to this grass. A
 walk that was made there, for the convenience of
 the water-drinkers, in less than a year was cover-
 ed in many places with it, though I could not
 find one single plant of it besides in any part of
 the hill. This was no doubt owing to the fre-
 quent treading, which above all things makes this
 grass flourish; and therefore it is evident that roll-
 ing must be very serviceable to it. It has been
 objected, that this grass is not free from *bents*,
 by which word is meant the flowering stems. I
 answer, that this is most certainly true, and that
 there is no grass without them. But the flowers
 and stems do not grow so soon brown as those of
 other grasses; and being much shorter, they do not
 cover the radical leaves so much; and therefore
 this grass affords a more agreeable turf without
 mowing, than any other whatever that I know of.”
 The seeds of this species drop off before they are
 dry, and, to appearance, before they are ripe. The
 utmost care is therefore necessary in gathering the
 blades, without which, very few of the seeds will
 be saved. It ripens from the middle of April, to
 so late, it is believed, as the end of October; but
 mostly disappears in the middle of the summer.
 It grows in any soil and situation, but rather af-
 fects the shade.”

2. GRASS, BULBOUS FOXTAIL, *Alopecurus bul-
 bosus*, is recommended by Dr Anderson, in his
Essay on Agriculture, &c. as promising on some
 occasions to afford a valuable pasture grass. It
 seems chiefly, he observes, to delight in a moist
 soil, and therefore promises to be only fit for a
 meadow pasture grass. The quality, that first re-
 commended it to his notice, was the unusual firm-
 ness that its matted roots gave to the surface of
 the ground, naturally soft and moist, in which
 it grew; which seemed to promise that it might
 be of use upon such soils, chiefly in preventing
 them from being much poached by the feet of
 cattle which might pasture upon them. Moist
 soils especially are so much hurt by poaching, that
 any thing that promises to be of use in preventing
 it deserves to be attended to.

3. GRASS, COCK'S TAIL, or FEATHER, *Stipa
 pennata*. See STIPA.

4. GRASS, CREEPING MEADOW, *Poa compressa*,
 according to Dr Anderson, seems to be the
 most valuable grass of any of this genus. Its
 leaves are firm and succulent, of a dark Saxon
 green colour, and grow so close upon one an-
 other, as to form the richest pile of pasture grass.
 The flower stalks, if suffered to grow, appear in
 sufficient quantities; but the growth of these does
 not prevent the growth of the leaves, both advan-
 cing together during the whole summer; and
 when the stalks fade, the leaves continue as green
 as before. Its leaves are much larger and more
 abundant than the common meadow grass, *Poa
 trivialis*; and therefore it better deserves to be
 cultivated.

5. GRASS, CREEPING SOFT, *Holcus lanatus*. See HOLCUS.

6. GRASS, CRESTED DOG'S-TAIL, *Cynosurus erythraus*. Mr Stillingfleet imagines this grass to be proper for parks, from his having known one, where it abounds, that is famous for excellent venison. He recommends it also, from experience, as good for sheep; the best mutton he ever tasted, next to that which comes from hills where the purple and sheep's fescue, the fine bent, and the silver hair grasses abound, having been from sheep fed with it. He adds, that it makes a very fine turf upon dry sandy or chalky soils; but unless swept over with the scyth, its flowering stems will look brown; which is the case of all grasses which are not fed on by variety of animals. For that some animals will eat the flowering stems is evident by commons, where scarcely any parts of grasses appear but the radical leaves. This grass is said to be the easiest of the whole group to collect a quantity of seeds from. It flowers in June, and is ripe in July.

7. GRASS, FINE BENT, *Agrostis canaliculata*, is recommended by Mr Stillingfleet, from his having always found it in great plenty on the best sheep pastures, in the different counties of England that are remarkable for good mutton. This grass flowers and ripens its seed the latest of them all. It seems to be lost the former part of the year, but vegetates luxuriantly towards the autumn. It appears to be fond of moist ground. It retains its seed till full ripe; flowers the latter end of July, and is ripe the latter end of August. The same may be said of the MOUNTAIN and SILVER HAIR GRASSES.

8. GRASS, FLOTE, or FLOATING FESCUE, *Festuca fluitans*. See FESTUCA, N° 2. It is surprising that the seeds of this plant, which are used as nutritious food in Sweden, Germany, &c. have hitherto been neglected in Britain, as they are so easily collected and cleaned. There is a clamminess on the ear of the flote fescue, when the seeds are ripe, that tastes like honey: and for this reason perhaps they are called *manna seeds*. Linnaeus, in his *Flora Suecica*, (art. 95.) says, that the bran of this grass will cure horses troubled with botts, if kept from drinking for some hours. Concerning this grass we have the following information by Mr Stillingfleet. "Mr Dean, a very sensible farmer at Rulcomb, Berkshire, assured me that a field, always lying under water, of about 4 acres, was covered with a kind of grass, that maintained 5 farm horses in good heart from April to the end of harvest, without giving them any other kind of food, and that it yielded more than they could eat. He, at my desire, brought me some of the grass, which proved to be the flote fescue with a mixture of the marsh bent; whether this last contributes much towards furnishing so good pasture for horses, I cannot say. They both throw out roots at the joints of the stalks, and therefore are likely to grow to a great length. In the index of dubious plants at the end of Ray's Synopsis, there is mention made of a grass under the name of *gracilis coninum supinum longissimum*, growing not far from Salisbury, 24 feet long. This must by its length be a grass with a creeping stalk; and that there is a grass in Wiltshire growing in wa-

tery meadows, so valuable, that an acre has been sold for 10l. to 11l., I have been informed by persons. These circumstances incline me to think it must be the flote fescue; but whatever it be, it certainly must deserve to be brought into notice.

9. GRASS, GREAT MEADOW, *Poa annua*. It seems to approach in many respects to that of the purple fescue; only that its leaves are broader, and not near so long; being only 2 or 3 inches at their greatest length. It produces few seed stalks and many long, an abiding plant. It affects chiefly the edges of meadows, though it is to be found in good pastures. It is very retentive of its seeds, and may therefore be suffered to remain till the stalks are quite dry. It blossoms in the latter end of June, and its seeds are ripe in July.

10. GRASS, MEADOW FOXTAIL, *Setaria pectinata*. Linnaeus says, this is a poor grass, growing on grounds that have been dug up. Mr Stillingfleet was informed, that the best seed that comes to London is from the meadows where this grass abounds. It is scarce in many parts of the year from hay ricks, as it does not ripen its seeds without rubbing, which is the case with few grasses. It is amongst the most grateful to cattle. It is ripe about the latter end of July.

11. GRASS, MOUNTAIN HAIR, *Agrostis alba*. See N° 7. and AIRA.

12. GRASS, NEW AMERICAN, *Agrostis canaliculata*. A grass from America, named *Agrostis canaliculata*, some time ago much advertised and sold, as possessing the most wonderful qualities. The seeds of it were sold at the enormous price of 10s. the bushel. But we have not heard that it has answered expectation. On the contrary, Mr Anderson in his *Bee*, (Vol. i. p. 38.) says, "it has upon trial been found to be good for nothing. Of the seeds sown, few of them germinated: but even of plants made the same, to ascertain, that the grass, in its quality, is among the poorest of the kind, that it is an annual plant, and altogether unsuitable to the farmer."

13. GRASS, PURPLE FESCUE, *Festuca ovina*. See FESTUCA, N° 3.

14. GRASS, RYE, *Hordium marinum*. It is properly the *SECALE VILLOSUM*. The darnel, *Solomon perenne*, is also, in some parts of England, improperly called *rye grass*.

15. GRASS, SILVER HAIR, *Aira caerulea*. See N° 7. and AIRA.

16. GRASS, SHEEP'S FESCUE, *Festuca ovina*. See FESTUCA, N° 3. This is perhaps the most valuable grass of all. It is observed to thrive in lands of all qualities and in all parts of meadows. It does not part with its seeds till some time after they are ripe, and is very dry. It makes the thickest and closest sward of them, and sends up but few flower stalks in proportion to its leaves. It flowers in the latter end of June, and its seeds are ripe in July.

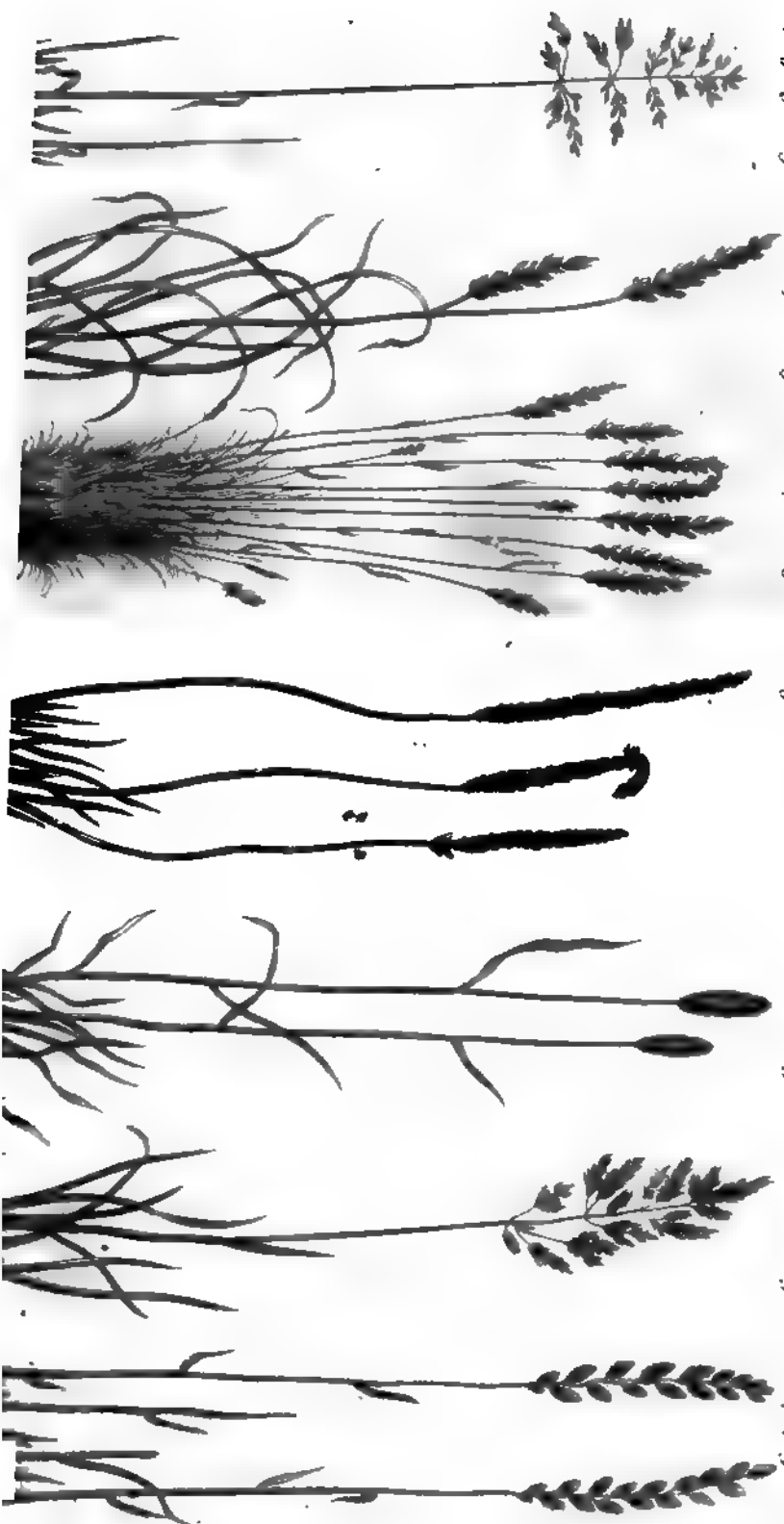
17. GRASS, VERNAL, *Anthriscus vernalis*. It grows very commonly on dry hills, and is found in rich meadow land. It is one of the

GRASSES.

Plate CLXX

Climbing Soft Grass. Purple Ryegrass. Sharpe Ryegrass. Small Grass leaved Plantain. Bulbous Foxtail Grass. Great Meadow Grass.

Ryegrass





as we have; and from its being found on
s of pastures as sheep are fond of, and
nce excellent mutton comes, it is most
e a good grass for sheep pastures. It
teful odour to hay. In one respect, it
y to gather, as it sheds its seeds upon
ubbing. A correspondent of the Bath
however, mentions a difficulty that oc-
ollecting them, owing to its being far-
with taller grasses at the time of its ripen-
eing almost hid among them. If it be
lly watched when nearly ripe, he ob-
d gathered within a few days after it
maturity, great part of the seed will be
twisted elastic awns, which adhere to
lift them out of their receptacles with
notion from the wind, even while the
ear remain quite erect. It is found
the moist parts of meadows; very little
y pastures. It flowers about the begin-
y, and is ripe about the middle of June.

* GRASS OF PARNASSUS. *n. f.* [*par-*
in.] A plant.—This plant is called *sur-*
m mount Parnassus, where it was sup-
row; and because the cattle feed on it,
l the name of grass, though the plant
eimbance to the grass kind. *Miller.*

ASS OF PARNASSUS. See PARNASSIA.
LASS, ORCHESTON. See ORCHESTON.
RASS VETCH. See LATYHRUS.

GRASS WALKS are made, for the most
by sowing grass seeds, but by laying
l indeed the turfs from a fine common
re much preferable to sown grass: but
r plats are to be made by sowing, the
s to procure the seed from those pastures
grass is naturally fine and clear; or else
e of keeping it from spiry or benty grass
ry great, and it will scarce ever look
—To sow grass walks, the ground must
ig; and when it has been dressed and
it must be carefully raked over, and all
and stones taken off, and then covered
ch thick with good mould. The seed
wn pretty thick, that it may come up
short; it must then be raked over again,
he seed, that if the weather should be
may not be blown away. Where grass
gardens, either for lawns or walks,
ild always be a good quantity of the
oil or Dutch clover sown with it; for
ake a fine turf much sooner than any o-
grass, and will retain a better verdure
ther of the grass tribe. To keep grass
home, and in good order, sow in au-
seed over any places that are not well
where the grass is dead; but nothing
grass so much as mowing and constant
When turf is laid in gardens, it is a ge-
ice to cover the surface of the ground
turf, either with sand or very poor earth,
keep the grass fine, by preventing its
o rank. This is proper for very rich
ut not for middling, or poor land; for
is practised in such places, the grass
wear out and decay in patches. When
n from a common or down, such ought
n as is free from weeds: and when it

is deligned to remain for years without renew-
ing, a dressing should be laid upon it every other
year, either of very rotte - Jung, althe-, or, where
it can easily be procured, rotten tan; but these
dressings should be laid on early in the winter, that
the rain may wash them into the ground, other-
wise they occasion the grass to burn, when the
warmth of the summer begins. When grass is thus
dressed and well rolled and mowed, it may be kept
very beautiful for many years; but where it is not
dressed, or fed with sheep, it will rarely continue
handsome more than eight or ten years.

(VIII.) GRASS WRACK. See ZOSTERA.

* To GRASS. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To breed
grass; to become pasture.—

Land arable, driven, or worn to the proof,
With oats ye may sow it, the sooner to *grass*,
More soon to be pasture, to bring it to pass.

Tusser.

(1.) GRASSE, a town of France, in the dept.
of Aude, and late province of Languedoc, seated
on the Orbieu, at the foot of Mount Courbiere;
14 miles SE. of Carcassone, and 18 SW. of Nar-
bonne.

(2.) GRASSE, a town of France, in the dept.
of Var, and ci-devant province of Provence. It
is seated on a hill, 15 miles WSW. of Nice, and
9 WNW of Antibes. Lon. 6. 56. E. Lat. 43. 42. N.

GRASSELLA, a town of France, in the dept.
of Aude, 21 miles SW. of Narbonne, and 26
NNW. of Perpignan. Lon. 20. 17. E. of Ferro.
Lat. 43. 5. N.

GRASSENA, a town of the Piedmontese re-
public, in the dep. of Sesia, and late duchy of A-
osta; 18 miles E. of Aosta.

GRASSETORTH, a town of Austria.

GRASSHOPPER. See GRILLUS

* GRASSINESS. *n. f.* [from *grassy*.] The state
of abounding in grass.

(1.) GRASSMERE, a lofty mountain of Cum-
berland, near Buttermere.

(2.) GRASSMERE, a village of Northumberland,
between Kendal and Kelwick, seated on a pro-
montory, that projects far into the lake N° 3.

(3.) GRASSMERE WATER, a beautiful lake in
Westmoreland, near Ambleside and Rydal. Its
banks are formed into small bays, by bold pro-
jecting eminences, some of rock and some of turf.

* GRASS-PLOT. *n. f.* [*grass* and *plot*.] A small
level covered with short grass.—

Here on this *grass-plot* in this very place,

Come and sport.

Shak. Tempest.

—The part of your garden next your house should
be a parterre for flowers, or *grass-plots* bordered
with flowers. *Temple.*—They are much valued by
our modern planters to adorn their walks and
grass-plots. *Mortimer.*

* GRASS-POLY. *n. f.* A species of WILLOW-
WORT.

* GRASSY. *adj.* [from *grass*.] Covered with
grass; abounding with grass.—

Ne did he leave the mountains bare unseen,
Nor the rank *grassy* fens delights untry'd. *Spens.*

Rais'd of *grassy* turf

Their table was, and mossy seats had round.

Milton.

The most in fields, like herded beasts, lie down.
To dews obnoxious, on the *grassy* floor. *Dryd.*

GRASWINCKEL, a learned Dutch civilian, born at Delft, in 1600. He was a man of taste, and published several works, wherein he distinguished himself in the belles lettres, as well as in law. He died at Mechlin, in 1666.

GRATAROLUS, William, a learned physician of the 16th century, born at Bergamo in Italy. He taught medicine with reputation at Padua, but having embraced the Protestant religion, he retired to Switzerland, where he was made professor of physic. He died at Basil in 1568, aged 42. He wrote several curious works in Latin; amongst which are, 1. The manner of preserving and improving the memory. 2. Of preserving in health travellers, men of letters, magistrates, and studious persons, &c.

GRATCHI, a town of Russia, in the country of the Cossacs, 20 miles NW. of Tzantzinz.

(1.) * **GRATE**. *n. s.* [*crates*, Lat.] 1. A partition made with bars placed near to one another, or crossing each other: such as in cloisters or prisons.—I have grated upon my friends for three reprieves for you, and your couch fellow Nim: or else you had looked through the *grates*, like a gemmy of baboons. *Shak.*—

Out at a little *grate* his eyes he cast
Upon those bordering hills, and open plain.

Daniel.

—A fan has on it a nunnery of lively black eyelid
vestals, who are endeavouring to creep out at the
grates. *Addison.* 2. The range of bars within which fires are made.—My dear is of opinion that an old fashioned *grate* consumes coals, but gives no heat. *Spectator.*

(2.) **GRATES FOR FIRES** (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are composed of ribs of iron placed at small distances from one another, so that the air may have sufficient access to the fuel, and the accumulation of the ashes, which would choke the fire, may be prevented. Grates seem peculiarly adapted to the use of pit coal, which requires a greater quantity of air to make it burn freely than other kinds of fuel. The hearths of the Britons seem to have been fixed in the centre of their halls, as is yet practised in some parts of Scotland, where the fire is nearly in the middle of the house, and the family sit all around it. Their fire place was perhaps nothing more than a large stone, depressed a little below the level of the ground, and thereby adapted to receive the ashes. About a century ago, it was only the floor of the room, with the addition of a bank of clay. But it was now changed among the gentlemen for a portable fire-pan, raised upon low supporters, and fitted with a circular grating of bars. Such were in use among the Gauls in the first century, and among the Welsh in the tenth.

(1.) * **To GRATE**. *v. a.* [*gratter*, Fr.] 1. To rub or wear any thing by the attrition of a rough body.—

Thereat the fiend his gnashing teeth did *grate*.

Spenser.

Blind oblivion swallow'd cities up,

And mighty states characters are *grated*

To dusty nothing. *Shak Troilus and Cressida.*

—If the particles of the putty were not made to stick fast in the pitch, they would, by rolling up and down, *grate* and fret the object metal, and

fill it full of little holes. *Newton's Opticks.*
offend by any thing harsh or vexatious.

Thereat enraged, soon he 'gan
Grinding his teeth, and *grating* his

—They have been partial in the gold
and chosen out those softer and more
tates, which would less *grate* and
Decay of Piety.—

Just resentment and hard usage
Th' unwilling word and *grating* ear
Take it, for 'tis thy due. *Drake.*

—This habit of writing and discourse
I unfortunately differ from almost the
dom, and am apt to *grate* the ears of
I could wish, was acquired during my
ship in London. *Swift.* 3. To form
collection of asperities or hard bodies.—

The *grating* shock of wrathful
Shak.

On a sudden open fly,
With impetuous recoil and jarring
Th' infernal doors, and on their hinges
Harsh thunder, that the lowest bottom
Of Erebus. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

(2.) * **To GRATE**. *v. n.* 1. To
as to injure or offend; to offend, as
sion or importunity.—

Wherein have you been galled by
What peer hath been suborn'd to
That you should seal this lawless

Of forg'd rebellion with a seal divine
—I have *grated* upon my good friends
reprieves for you, or else you had lost
the *grates*. *Shak.*—Paradoxing in of
the faculty must be so tenderly managed
to *grate* upon the truth and reason
L'Estrange—This *grated* harder upon
of men. *South*—I never heard him make
complaint, in a case that would have
on some men's patience, and have filled
with discontent. *Locke.* 2. To make
as that of a rough body drawn over, and
are not so nice as to cast away a sharp
cause the edge of it may sometimes *grate*

* **GRATEFUL**. *adj.* [*gratus*, Lat.]
ving a due lease of benefits; willing to
ledge and to repay benefits.—

A *grateful* mind

By owing owes not, but still pays.

—When some degree of health was
erted all his strength in a return of *grat*
nition to the author of it. *Fell*—

Years of service past,

From *grateful* souls exact reward at last

2. Pleasing; acceptable; delightful; &
Whatsoever is ingrate at first, is made
custom; but whatsoever is too pleas
groweth quickly to satiate. *Bacon's Essays.*

—A man will endure the pain of
thirst, and refuse such meats and drinks
grateful to his appetite, if he be pers
they will endanger his health. *Hobbes.*—
is the more *grateful* to strangers, in ref
being a frontier town, and bordering
nations, many languages are used
Brown's Travels.—

golden fruits on loaded branches shine,
grateful clusters swell with floods of wine.

Pope.

GRATEFULLY. *adv.* [from *grateful*.] 1. Inclined to acknowledge and repay bene-
 due sense of obligation.—

A new wak'd, thus *gratefully* reply'd.

Milton.

gh remains for household charge beside,
 and tender children to sustain,
gratefully to feed his dumb deserving train.

Dryden's *Virgil*.

prus long by men and gods obey'd,
 ers toil she *gratefully* repaid. *Granville*.
 aising manner.—Study detains the mind
 perpetual occurrence of something new,
gratefully strike the imagination. *Watts*.

GRATEFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *grateful*.] 1. A
 ide; duty to benefactors. Now obso-
 letonian knight having sometime served
 more *gratefulness* than good courage de-
 n. *Sidney*.—

ngs beforehand, ties of *gratefulness*,
 ind of glory ringing in our ears. *Herbert*.
 of being acceptable; pleasantness.

ELEY, a town of England, in Hamp-
 the SE. side of Quarley-hill, between
 and Salisbury, where, in 926, king A-
 eld a grand council of the nobles.

GRATER. *n. f.* [*gratoir*, Fr. from *grate*.] 1.
 coarse file with which soft bodies are
 powder.—

ler handed touch a nettle,
 stings you for your pains,
 p it like a man of mettle,
 soft as silk remains.

is with common natures,
 hem gently they rebel,
 be rough as nutmeg *graters*,
 e rogues obey you well.

A. Hill.

GRATES, a cape on the E. of Newfoundland.

GRATIAN, the son of Valentinian I. by
 wife, was associated in the empire by his
 : Amiens in 365, and succeeded him in
 rince equally extolled for his wit, elo-
 modesty, chastity, and zeal against here-
 associated Theodosius with him in the em-
 advanced the poet Ausonius to the confu-
 : made a great slaughter of the Germans
 urg, (See *ARGENTORA*.) and hence was
 l *Alemannicus*. He was the first emperor
 sed the title of *Pontifex Maximus*, on ac-
 its being a Pagan dignity. He was assas-
 y Andragathius in 375, in the 24th year
 e.

GRATIAN, a British soldier in the Roman
 ho was crowned emperor by the legions
 1, about A. D. 407, but was murdered
 within 4 months. See *ENGLAND*, § 12.

GRATIAN, a famous Benedictine monk, in
 century, born at Chiufi. He was em-
 ear 24 years in composing a work, entit-
Concordantia Discordantium Ca-
ecuse he there endeavoured to reconcile
 ns which seemed contradictory to each o-
 his work was published in 1151. As he
 ntly mistaken, in taking one canon of one
 or one passage of one father, for another,

and has often cited false decretals, several authors
 have endeavoured to correct his faults; and chiefly
 Anthony Augustine, in his excellent work, intit-
 led, *De emendatione Gratiani*. To the decretals
 of Gratian, the popes principally owed the great
 authority they exercised in the 13th and following
 centuries.

GRATIANI, Jerome, an Italian dramatic writ-
 ter of the 16th century, who, among other pieces,
 wrote a tragedy, called *Cromwell*, which was
 much esteemed.

* **GRATIFICATION.** *n. f.* [*gratificatio*, Lat.] 1. The act of pleasing.—They are incapable of
 any design above the present *gratification* of their
 palates. *South*. 2. Pleasure; delight.—How hard-
 ly is his will brought to change all its desires and
 averfions, and to renounce those *gratifications* in
 which he has been long uied to place his happiness.
Rogers. 3. Reward; recompence. A low word.

* **To GRATIFY.** *v. a.* [*gratificor*, Latin.] 1.
 To indulge; to grant by compliance.—

You steer between the country and the court,
 Nor *gratify* whate'er the great desire,
 Nor grudging give what publick needs require.

Dryden.

2. To delight; to please; to humour; to soothe.—

But pride stood ready to prevent the blow;
 For who would die to *gratify* a foe? *Dryd. Fab.*

The captive generals to his car are ty'd;

The joyful citizens tumultuous tide

Echoing his glory, *gratify* his pride. *Prior.*

—A palled appetite is humorous, and must be
gratified with sauces rather than food. *Tatler*.—

At once they *gratify* their scent and taste.

While frequent cups prolong the rich repast.

Pope.

A thousand little impertinencies are very *grati-*
fying to curiosity, though not improving to the
 understanding. *Addison*.—3. To requite with a
 gratification: as, I'll *gratify* you for this trouble.

* **GRATINGLY.** *adv.* [from *grate*.] Harshly;
 offensively.

GRATINGS, in a ship, are small edges of sawed
 plank, framed one into another like a lattice or
 prison grate, lying on the upper deck, between
 the main mast and fore-mast, serving for a defence
 in a close fight, and also for the coolness, light,
 and conveniency of the ship's company.

GRATIOLA, **HEDGE HYSSOP**: A genus of the
 monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class
 of plants; and ranking according to the natural
 method in the 40th order, *Personate*. The corol-
 la is irregular; there are two barren stamina; the
 capsule is bilocular; the calyx has seven leaves,
 with the two exterior ones patulous. There are
 four species; the most remarkable of which is the

GRATIOLA OFFICINALIS, the common hedge
 hyssop, grows naturally on the Alps and other
 mountainous parts of Europe. It has a thick,
 fleshy, fibrous, creeping root, which propagates
 very much, when planted in a proper soil and si-
 tuation. From this arise several upright square
 stalks, garnished with narrow spear-shaped leaves,
 placed opposite. The flowers are produced on
 the side of the stalks at each joint: they are shaped
 like those of the fox-glove, but are small, and of
 a pale yellowish colour.—This herb has an emetic
 and purgative virtue; to answer which intentions,

it was formerly used by the common people in England, but was never much prescribed by the physicians, and at last fell totally into disuse. It is the subject of a dissertation by Dr James Kosciuszko, of Warsaw, in Poland; who gives some remarkable accounts of its effects in mania and obdurate venereal cases. It was given in powder, or in extract, to the quantity of half a drachm of the first, and a whole drachm of the second, at each dose. From the cases he relates the author draws the following conclusions: 1. The gratiole may be given with safety both to male and female patients. 2. In all disorders proceeding from a superabundance of serum in the fluids, it appears to be a most effectual remedy. 3. In consequence of this, it is had recourse to with very great advantage in melancholy and mania arising from that state of the system. 4. It powerfully promotes purging, vomiting, sweat, and urine; and is therefore much superior to any of the usual evacuating medicines, most of which prove only active in promoting one of these discharges at once. 5. The most obstinate cases of gonorrhoea, fluor albus, and venereal ulcers, are cured by the powder.—In some instances it has induced salivation; but whether it can always be made to produce that effect, is not yet altogether certain. 6. The powder prepared from the extract, and exhibited with sugar, does not induce vomiting; and, on the contrary, the powder of the root always promotes that evacuation.

(1.) GRATIOLE, one of the AZORES. See GRACIOSA. It is about 10 miles long and 8 broad. It has several towns and forts. La Plata is the capital. Lon. 10. 12. W. of Ferro. Lat. 39. 2. N.

(2.) GRATIOLE, or GRACIOSA, one of the Canary Islands. See CANARY, § 9. Lon. 13. 7. W. Lat. 29. 15. N.

* GRATIS, *adv.* [Latin.] For nothing; without a recompence.—

The people cry you mock'd them; and, of late,
When 'orn was given them *gratis*, you repin'd.

Shakespeare.

—They sold themselves; but thou, like a kind fellow, gav'st thyself away *gratis*, and I thank thee for thee. *Shak.*—The taking of us, though he judged lawful, yet never approved by practice, but lent still *gratis* both to friends and strangers. *Fell.*—Kindred are no welcome clients, where relation gives them a title to have advice *gratis*. *L'Estrange.*—I scorned to take my degree at Utrecht or Leyden, though offered it *gratis* by those universities. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) * GRATITUDE, *n. f.* [*gratitudo*, low Latin.] 1. Duty to benefactors.—

Forbid

That our renowned Rome, whose *gratitude*
Tow'rd her deserving children is enroll'd,

Should now eat up her own! *Shak. Coriol.*

Suspicious thoughts his pensive mind employ,
A sullen *gratitude*, and clouded joy. *Harte.*

2. Desire to return benefits.—

The debt immense of endless *gratitude*. *Milt.*
—*Gratitude* is properly a virtue, disposing the mind to an inward sense and an outward acknowledgment of a benefit received, together with a readiness to return the same, or the like. *South.*

(2.) GRATITUDE, in ethics, is a turning the mind to an inward sense and acknowledgment of benefits received. Ingratitude, Mr Paley observes, checks voluntary beneficence; hence the want of a grateful temper is a considerable importance. A 2d reason for cultivating that temper is; That the man which is touched with the kindness of a benefactor, is capable of being affected with goodness, and of becoming, in consequence of that affection, a source of the most exalted virtue. The love of the blindest gratitude. It is a mistake, to imagine, that this virtue is omitted in the precept, which is "to love God, because he first loved us" supposes the principle of gratitude, and its proper object.

(3.) GRATITUDE, INSTANCE OF. Frescobald, a Florentine merchant, had a plentiful fortune, of which he was liberal and civil. One day a young stranger applied for charity. Frescobald asked him his name, and of what country? "I am (he) a native of England; my name Cromwell, and my father-in-law is a man. I left my country to seek my fortune, and came with the French army that was at Gathay, where I was a page to a lord, and carried his pike and burget." Frescobald, pitying his necessities, clothed him, took him into his house till he had recovered strength by better diet; and, at his request, mounted him upon a good horse, and gave him a bag of gold in his pocket. Cromwell returned to his native land; where he got into the service of a lord, Woolsey; and after his death, he was so effectually into the favour of Henry he made him a baron, viscount, E. of last lord high chancellor. Mean time, by repeated losses, was reduced to poverty. Some English merchants being indebted to him for the sum of 15,000ducats, became to London for payment. In pursuit of this affair, he was met by the lord chancellor as he was going to court; who immediately alighted him, and asked him, If he was not Sir John Frescobald? "Yes, Sir," (said he) "my most humble servant." "My servant (said the Chancellor) No; you are my special friend, relieved me in my wants, laid the foundation for my greatness, and, as such, I receive since the affairs of my sovereign will admit a longer conference, I beg you will sit down with me this day with your company at my house, and dine with me." Frescobald was astonished at this great man should be that acknowledging his obligations, but, recollecting his poverty and carriage, he concluded it to be a mistake, and therefore went to his house. He came soon after; and taking his seat, he turned to the lord high chancellor, and, addressing him as a nobleman, saying, "This is the gentleman who first contributed to my advancement," told them the whole story; led him into his dining room, and placed him next to him.

company being gone, the Chancellor's affair had brought him to England? gave him the true state of his circumstances, to which Cromwell replied, "I am sorry for misfortunes, and I will make them as good as I can; but, as men ought to be repaid, they are kind, it is fit I should repay you." Then leading him into his study, he first took out 16 ducats, and delivering them to Sigebald, said, "My friend, here is the money you lent me at Florence, with ten more laid out for my apparel, and ten more for my horse; but as you might have made advantage of this money in trade, take these four bags, which is 400 ducats." He next caused him to write the names of his debtors, and the amount they owed; which he transmitted to one of his clerks, with a charge to find out the men, and compel them to pay him in 15 days under the penalty of his displeasure; and thus in a short time the whole sum was paid. All this time Sigebald was entertained in the Chancellor's study, who proposed to him to continue in England, and offered him the loan of 60,000 ducats, if he would trade here; but he desired to return to Florence, which he did, with extraordinary favours from Lord Cromwell. *Hackwell's* *Life*, c. 10. p. 436.

GRATIUS of Falisci, a Latin poet, cotemporary with Virgil, the author of a poem entitled *De Arte*, or *the Manner of writing with dogs*. The best edition is that of Leyden, 12mo, with the learned notes of Janus Ulitius: 1645, 8vo.

GRATUITOUS. *adj.* [*gratuitus*, Latin; *gratis*, Voluntary; granted without claim or reward. Do not mistake the *gratuitous* blessings of heaven for the fruits of our own industry. *L'Estrange* said without proof.—The second motive to introduce this *gratuitous* declination is the same poet gives us. *Ray*.

GRATUITOUSLY. *adv.* [from *gratuitous*.] Without claim or merit. 2. Without proof.—I know whence came this obliquity of direction, which they *gratuitously* tack to matter: ascribe will and choice to these particles. *Bib. Princ.*

GRATUITY. *n. s.* [*gratuité*, Fr. from *gratia*.] A present or acknowledgment; a free gift. Every man might have pretended to comply with him, and dismissed him with a small *gratuity*. *the Od.*—He used every year to present him with an almanack, upon the score of some little gratuity we gave him. *Swift*.

GRATULATE. *v. a.* [*gratulari*, Latin.] To congratulate; to salute with declarations of joy.

To gratify the good Andronicus, and salute his safe return to Rome, the people will accept whom he admires. *Shak.*

Whither away so fast?
No farther than the Tower,
To salute the gentle princes there. *Shakesp.*
No nature could behold so dire a crime,
To salute at least my native clime,
In such a land, which such a monster bore,
So distant from our Thracian shore. *Dryd.*
To salute joy for; to mention with expressions

Yet give thy jealous subjects leave to doubt,
Who this thy 'scape from rumour *gratulate*,
No less than if from peril; and devout,
Do beg thy care unto thy after state. *Ben Jon.*

* **GRATULATION**. *n. s.* [from *gratulari*, Lat.] Salutations made by expressing joy; expression of joy.—They are the first *gratulations* wherewith our Lord and Saviour was joyfully received at his entrance into the world, by such as in their hearts, arms, and bowels embraced him. *Hooker*.

The earth

Gave signs of *gratulation*, and each hill. *Milt.*
—Your enjoyments, according to the standard of a Christian desire, require no addition: I shall turn my wishes into *gratulations*, and, congratulating their fulness, only wish their continuance. *South*.

* **GRATULATORY**. *adj.* [from *gratulate*.] Congratulatory; expressing congratulation.

(1.) **GRATZ**, or **GRAZ**, a handsome town of Germany, capital of Stiria, with a castle seated on a high rock, an university, a great number of palaces, and a fine arsenal. The castle communicates with the river by means of a deep well. The empress-dowager Mary Theresa, was obliged to retire hither during the war of 1741 and 1742. It was taken by the French in March, 1797. It is seated on the Muer. Lon. 16. 5. E. Lat. 47. 4. N.

(2.) **GRATZ**, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Troppau, seated on the Mora, 4 miles S. of Troppau.

GRATZARNITZA, a town of European Turkey, in Bosnia, 36 miles ENE. of Serajo.

GRATZEN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Bechin; 17 miles NE. of Rosenberg.

GRAVASELE, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata; 15 miles E. of Venosa.

GRAUDENTZ, or **GRUDZIANDS**, a town of Polish Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm, with a castle, seated on the Vistula, 14 miles NNE. of Culm, 30 N. of Thorn, and 110 NW. of Warsaw. Lon. 18. 52. E. Lat. 53. 36. N.

(1.) * **GRAVE**. *adj.* [*grave*, Fr. *gravis*, Latin.] 1. Solemn; serious; sober; not gay; not light or trifling.—

To th' more mature,

A glass that featur'd them; and to the *grave*,
A child that guided dotards. *Shak. Cymb.*

We should have else desir'd

Your good advice, which still hath been both
grave

And prosperous, in this day's council. *Shak.*
—That *grave* awfulness, as in your best breed of mastives, or elegancy and prettiness, as in your lesser dogs, are modes of beauty. *More against Atheism*.—Even the *grave* and serious characters are distinguished by their several sorts of gravity. *Dryden's Fables, Preface*.—

Youth on silent wings is flown;

Graver years come rolling on. *Prior*

To laugh, were want of goodness and of grace;
And to be *grave*, exceeds all power of face. *Pope*

Folly-painting humour, *grave* himself,
Calls laughter forth. *Thomson*

—They have as much reason to pretend to, and as much necessity to aspire after, the highest accomplishments of a Christian and solid virtue, as the *gravest* and wisest among Christian philosophers.

phers. *Law.* 2. Of weight; not futile; credible. Little used.—The Roman state was of all others the most celebrated for their virtue, as the *gravest* of their own writers, and of strangers, do bear them witness. *Greus's Cym.* 3. Not showy; not tawdry: as, a *grave* suit of cloaths. 4. Not sharp of sound; not acute.—Accent, in the Greek names and usage, seems to have regarded the tone of the voice; the acute accent raising the voice, in some syllables, to a higher, *i. e.* more acute pitch or tone, and the *grave* depressing it lower, and both having some emphasis, *i. e.* more vigorous pronunciation. *Holder.*

(1.) GRAVE, in grammar, a species of accent opposite to acute. The grave accent is expressed thus ('); and shows, that the voice is to be depressed, and the syllable over which it is placed pronounced in a low deep tone.

(2.) GRAVE, in music, is applied to a sound which is in a low or deep tone. The thicker the chord or string, the more grave the tone or note, and the smaller the acuter. Notes are supposed to be the more grave, in proportion as the vibrations of the chord are less quick.

(3.) GRAVE, in the Italian music, serves to denote the slowest movement.

(4.) GRAVE, a final syllable in the names of places, is from the Saxon *graf*, a grove or cave. *Gibson's Camden.*

(5, i.) GRAVE, in geography, a strong city of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and ci devant province of Dutch Brabant; with a fort, seated in a marshy country on the S. side of the Meuse. In 1323, John III, D. of Brabant, obtained it from Otho, lord of Cuyck. It was taken by the French, under Pichegru, Dec. 28, 1794, by capitulation; after a bombardment of 30 weeks, during which hardly one house escaped. It lies 8 miles S. of Nimègue, 30 E. of Bois-le-duc, and 34 SE. of Utrecht. Lon. 5. 45. E. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(ii.) GRAVE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Alps, 16 miles NW. of Briançon.

(7, i.) GRAVE. *n. f.* [*graf*, Sax.] The place in the ground in which the dead are repositied.—

Now it is the time of night,

That the *graves*, all gaping wide,

Every one lets forth his spright,

In the church-way paths to glide. *Shak.*

Thou wilt not leave me in the loathsome *grave*. *Milton.*

To walk upon the *graves* of our dead masters,

Is our own security. *Denham's Sophy.*

—A flood of waters would overwhelm all those fragments which the earth broke into, and bury in one common *grave* all the inhabitants of the earth. *Burnet.*—They were wont once a-year to meet at the *graves* of the martyrs; there solemnly to recite their sufferings and triumphs, to praise their virtues, to bless God for their pious examples, for their holy lives and their happy deaths. *Nelson.*

(ii.) GRAVES, among the Jews were generally out of the city, though there are instances of their interring the dead in towns. Frequent mention is made of graves upon mountains, in highways, in gardens, and private houses; so that nothing on this head seems to have been determined. The

fame may be observed with respect to the Thebans had a law that every one who had distinguished themselves were buried in the public forum. The custom was, however, to bury out chiefly by the highway side. The law forbidden by the law of the XII tables burn the dead in the city; but some in pulchres in Rome, though they paid an indulgence.

(1.) GRAVE. *v. a.* *preter.* *grav* pass. *graven.* [*graver*, Fr. *grave*.] 1. To carve a figure or inscription in any substance.—

Cornice with bossy sculptures *graven*.—Later vows, oaths, or leagues can out those former *gravings* or characters just and lawful oaths were made upon *K. Charles.*—

Thy sum of duty let two words be
O! may they *graven* in that heart
Be humble and be just.

2. To carve or form.—What profited image, that the maker thereof had? *Hab. ii. 18.* 3. To copy paintings upon metal, in order to be impressed on *gravures* can and ought to imitate the colours by the degrees of the lights and 'tis impossible to give much strength to *grave*, after the works of the schools, imitating in some sort the colour of *Dryden's Dufres.* 4. [From *grave*.] Not in use.—

There's more gold:

Do you damn others, and let this damn
And ditches *grave* you all! *Shak.*

5. To clean, caulk, and sheath a ship. 4

(2.) GRAVE. *v. n.* To write or on hard substances.—Thou shalt make pure gold, and *grave* upon it. *Ex. xxxi.*

* GRAVE-CLOATHS. *n. f.* [*grave* and *The dress of the dead.*—

But of such subtle substance and so
That like a ghost he seem'd, whose *grave*
were unbound.

—And he that was dead came forth, he and foot with *grave-cloaths*. *Job. xl. 4.*

GRAVEDONA, or } a town of the
GRAVEDONO, } republic, in the
Lario, and ci-devant duchy of Milan;
the W. bank of Lake Como, 41 miles N.

(1.) GRAVEL. *n. f.* [*graver*, Fr. Dutch; *gravel*, Armoric.] 1. Hard consisting of very small pebble stones, consists of flints of all the usual sizes and of the several sorts of pebbles: sometimes few pyrites, and other mineral bodies, or intermixed, and common sand. *Wooden* armour, all gilt, was so well handled, that ed like a glittering sand and *gravel*, is with silver rivers. *Sidney.*—

Proofs as clear as founts in July, 1

We see each grain of *gravel*. *Shak. Ham.*

—Providence permitted not the earth to self in base *gravels* and pebbles, instead of stones. *Moss.*—

rep, and yet so clear, we might behold
 gravel bottom, and that bottom gold. *Dryd.*
 per garden at Kensington was at first no-
 a gravel pit. *Spe&.*—Gravel walks are
 uit-trees. *Mört. Hufb.* 2. [*Gravelle*, Fr.]
 After concreted in the kidneys.—If the
 rittle it will often crumble, and pass in
 of gravel: if the stone is too big to pass,
 method is to come to a sort of a compo-
 ruce with it. *Arbutnot.*

GRAVEL, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) in natural history
 meaning, a congeries of pebbles, which,
 with a stiff loam, makes lasting and elegant
 walks; an ornament peculiar to our gar-
 den, which gives them an advantage over
 other nations.

GRAVEL, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in medicine. See
 E, *Index*; and ALKALI.

GRAVEL WALKS. To make these proper-
 bottom should be laid with lime rubbish,
 stones, or any other hard matter, for
 ches thick, to keep weeds from growing
 and over this the gravel is to be laid 6
 inches thick. This should be laid rounding
 the middle, by which means the larger
 stones run off to the sides, and may be raked
 out; the gravel should never be screened
 before it is laid on. It is an error to lay these
 round, which not only makes them un-
 equal upon, but takes off from their appa-
 rent smoothness. One inch in 5 feet is a sufficient rise
 in the middle; so that a walk of 20 feet wide
 should only 4 inches higher at the middle than
 at the sides, and so in proportion. As soon as
 the gravel is laid, it should be raked, and the large
 stones run off again: then the whole should
 be rolled both lengthwise and crosswise; and the
 roller should draw the roller should wear shoes
 on his heels, that he may make no holes; be-
 cause wheels made in a new walk are not easily re-
 mended. The walks should always be rolled 3 or
 4 times a week, after which they will
 hold more firmly than otherwise they could
 be made to do. Gravel, with some loam ad-
 mixed, binds more firmly than the rawer kinds;
 but gravel is naturally very harsh and sharp,
 so as to add a mixture of loam to it. The
 best for walks is such as abounds with
 round pebbles, which, being mixed with
 loam, are bound so firmly together, that
 they never afterwards injured either by wet or
 dry. These are not so liable to be turn-
 ed up by the feet in walking, as the more irregu-
 lar pebbles, and remain much more firm
 in places after rolling.

GRAVEL, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To
 cover with gravel.—Moss groweth upon
 especially such as lie cold, and upon the
 in divers terraces; and again, if they
 are trodden, or if they were at the first gra-
 velled. 2. To stick in the sand.—William
 the Conqueror, when he invaded this island, chan-
 ced to arrive to be gravelled; and one of his
 horses fell so fast in the sand, that he fell to the
 ground. 3. To puzzle; to stop; to put
 to; to embarrass.—I would kiss before I
 say, you were better to speak first, and
 then were gravelled for lack of matter you
 had. **PART II.**

might take occasion to kiss. *Shak.*—The disease it-
 self will gravel him to judge of it; nor can there
 be any prediction made of it, it is so sharp. *Hewel.*
 —What work do our imaginations make with e-
 ternity and immensity? And how are we gravelled
 by their cutting dilemmas? *Glanville's Sceptis.*—

Mat, who was here a little gravelled,
 Tost up his nose, and would have cavill'd. *Prior.*
 4. [In horsemanship.] To hurt the foot with gra-
 vel confined by the shoe.

* GRAVELESS. *adj.* [from *grave*.] Wanting a
 tomb; unburied.—

My brave Egyptians all,
 By the discarding of this pelleted storm,
 Lie graveless. *Shak. Ant. and Cleopatra.*

GRAVELINES, a very strong town of the
 French republic, in the dep. of the North, and
 ci-devant French Flanders, with a castle and har-
 bour. It was ceded to France by the treaty of the
 Pyrenees, and is seated in a marshy country on the
 river Aa, near the sea, 12 miles E. of Calais. Lon.
 2. 13 E. Lat. 50. 59. N.

* GRAVELLY. *adj.* [*graveleux*, French; from
gravel.] Full of gravel; abounding with gravel;
 consisting of gravel.—There are some natural
 spring waters that will insipidate wood; so that
 you shall see one piece of wood, whereof the part
 above the water shall continue wood, and the part
 under the water shall be turned into a gravelly
 stone. *Bacon's N. Hist.*—If you live in a consump-
 tive air, make choice of the more open, high, dry,
 and gravelly part of it. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

GRAVELLY LAND, or SOIL, that abounding
 with gravel or sand, which easily admits of heat
 and moisture; and the more stony such lands
 are, the more barren they prove, in general;
 though not always; for there are gravelly lands
 in different places in Scotland pretty fertile, which
 have proved barren upon removing the stones, and
 recovered their fertility, when the stones and gra-
 vel were restored.

GRAVELOT, an eminent French engraver,
 born at Paris in 1699. He resided 13 years in Eng-
 land. The finest editions of the French poets were
 ornamented by his works. He died at Paris in 1773.

GRAVELOTTE, a town of France, in the dep.
 of Moselle; 4 m. N. of Gorze, and 6 SW. of Metz.

* GRAVELY. *adv.* [from *grave*.] 1. Solemnly;
 seriously; soberly; without lightness or mirth.—
 Thou stand'st

Gravelly in doubt when to hold them wise. *Milt.*
 —A girl longs to tell her confidant that she hopes
 to be married in a little time, and asks her very
 gravelly what she would have her to do. *Spe&.*—

Wisdom's above suspecting wiles;
 The queen of learning gravelly smiles. *Swift.*
 —A formal story was very gravelly carried to his
 excellency, by some zealous members. *Swift.*—

Is't not enough the blockhead scarce can read,
 But must he wisely look, and gravelly plead?
Young.

2. Without gaudiness or show.

GRAVEN, a town of Norway, 24 miles SW.
 of Bergen.

(1.) GRAVENAC, a county of Suabia.
 (2.) GRAVENAC, the capital of the county,
 (N^o 1.) 30 miles W. of Ulm. Lon. 9. 28. E. Lat.
 48. 22. N.

H h h h

GRAVENAII,

GRAVENAU, a town of Lower Bavaria, 20 miles N. of Passau, and 50 ESE. of Ratisbon.

* **GRAVENESS**, *n. f.* [from *grave* + *Seriousness*; solemnity and sobriety of behaviour.—

You no less become as

The light and careless merry that it wears,

Then settled are his fables, and his weeds

Importing health and *graveness*.

Hamlet.

But yet beware of counsels when too full;

Numbers make long disputes and *graveness* dull.

Denham.

GRAVENHORST, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, 4 miles NE. of Rheine.

GRAVENMACHFREN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Forêts, and late duchy of Luxembourg. It has an ancient monument about 1500 years old. This town was sacked and burnt by the marquis of Brandenburg, in 1441. It is 25 miles ENE. of Luxembourg, and 12 NW. of Treves.

GRAVENWERT, a town of Lower Bavaria, 25 m. N. of Amberg, and 45 ENE. of Nuremberg.

* **GRAVEOLENT**, *adj.* [*graveolens*, Latin.] Strong scented. *Diss.*

(1.) * **GRAVER**, comp. of *grave*. See **GRAVE**.

(2.) * **GRAVER**, *n. f.* [*graveur*, Fr. from *grave*]

1. One whose business is to interbe or carve upon hard substances; one who copies pictures upon wood or metal, to be impressed on paper.—If he makes a design to be graved, he is to remember that the *graver* does not alter their colours as the painters do; and that by consequence he must take occasion to find the shades of his design in the natural shadows of the figures, which he has disposed to cause the effect. *Dryden's Dunciad*. 2. The file or tool used in graving.—With all the care wherewith I tried to do the known way of softening *graver*, I could not soften this. *Boyle*.—

The toil of different labour stole,
Some work to do, some the *graver* guile.

Gay's Fan

(3.) **GRAVER**, *n. f.* [*graving*, *f.* II, 1, 2]

GRAVEROL, a French advocate, born at Nismes, in 1635. He was author of *The Sorberiana*, and several other works. He died in 1694.

(1.) **GRAVESANDE**, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of Delft, and late province of S. Holland; 6 miles WSW. of Delft, and 4 from the coast. It was anciently the chief residence of the Counts of Holland.

(2.) **GRAVESANDE**, William James, LL. D. and F. R. S. an eminent mathematician, born of an ancient family at Delft in Holland, in 1688. He studied the civil law at Leyden, but mathematical learning was his favourite amusement. When he had taken his degree in 1707, he settled at the Hague, and practised at the bar, in which situation he cultivated an acquaintance with learned men; with a society of whom, he published a periodical review, intitled *Le Journal Littéraire*, which was continued without interruption from 1713 to 1742, when he died. The most considerable of his works are, 1. *A Treatise on Perspective*; 2. An introduction to the Newtonian philosophy, or a treatise on the elements of physics confirmed by experiments; 3. A treatise on the elements of algebra, for the use of young students; and, 4. A course of logic and metaphysics. The ministers of the republic consulted him on many occasions,

and his skill in calculation was often of service to them; as well as his address in decyphering secret correspondence of their enemies. He was sent by the States to congratulate George I. on his accession; and on his return appointed professor of mathematics and astronomy at Leyden, where he was the first that taught Newtonian philosophy. He was intimate acquainted with Sir Isaac Newton, and was of his doctrine.

(1.) **GRAVESEND**, a town of Kent, situated on the banks of the Thames, 21 miles from London; and has a castle mounted with cannon, to command the river, directly opposite to Tilbury fort. This town was plundered and burnt by the French and Spaniards in the reign of Richard II. penance which, the king vested it with the sole privilege of carrying passengers by water to London at 4s. the whole fare, head, which was confirmed by Henry V. now the fare is 9d. a head in the summer, and 1s. in the winter. The former must not carry more than 40 passengers, the latter only 20. ply here at the landing of people from Dover, to carry them to Rochester, at 2s. This town and Milton were incorporated by Elizabeth, and granted some peculiar privileges. Great quantities of garden stuffs are sold here, and other places, where the soil is good. Gravesend is preferred to that of Ramsgate, outward bound ships are obliged to stop here till they have been visited by the house officers; and for this purpose the block house fires a musket: but the inward bound all pass by without notice, put waiters on board, if they are not sufficient. As those outward bound general provisions here, the place abounds with provisions. The town being burnt down in 1727, was granted by the parliament in 1731, to the Corporation. In 1624, one Mr Pannock gave the town a school, besides one for a master to employ the poor; and there is a charity school for 24 boys, who are both taught and clothed. The town-house was erected in 1763, and an act was passed for paving and lighting.

(2, 3.) **GRAVESEND**, a township and parish in the County of Long, 10 miles N. by E. of the city.

(4.) **GRAVESEND**, a sea port town of Kent, on the S.W. side of the island, seated on a point of land.

(5.) **GRAVESEND**, a village in Hertfordshire, 10 miles N. of St. Albans.

GRAVESON, a town of France in the Mouths of the Rhone, 5 miles NE. of Arles.

* **GRAVEST**, *superl. of grave*. See **GRAVE**.

* **GRAVE-STONE**, *n. f.* [*grave* and *stone*] a stone that is laid over the grave; the monument.

Timon, presently prepare thy
Lye where the light foam of the sea
Shall thy grave stone daily.

GRAVID, *adj.* Big with child. *40.* It is surprising that Dr Johnson should have used this adjective, when he inserts its ab-

* **GRAVIDITY**, *n. f.* [*gravidus*, Latin] pregnancy; state of being with child.—Women who are not always the forementioned

hese the signs of *gravity* and obstruc-
ard to be distinguished in the beginning.

DONA. See GRAVEDONA.

METER, *n. f.* [from *gravis* weighty,
to measure.] an instrument or glass
by Citizen Guyton Morveau, entirely
principles of Nicholson's Hydrometer.
METER and HYDROSTATICS.

AVINA, a town of Naples, in the
ari, with a bishop's see, 9 miles W. of
id 32 SW. of Biri. Lon. 17. 0. E.
N.

AVINA, John Vincent, an eminent
illustrious lawyer of Italy, born at
1654. He was professor of the canon
college of Sapienza at Rome; where
1718. His works are both curious and
chief of them is, *De ortu et progressu*
s. They were printed in 4to at Leip-
with notes by Mascovius.

AVINA, Peter, an Italian poet, born at
and much esteemed by gen. Gonsalvo,
s, and Prosper Colonna. He wrote,
roman style, Discourses on Matters re-
Law and to the Belles Lettres, as well
He died in 1525, aged 75.

VING. *n. f.* [from *grave*.] Carved
ifal to work in gold; also to grave any
graving, and to find out every device
be put to him. 2 *Cero* ii. 14.

LA VITAIE. *v. n.* [from *gravis*, Lat.]
the centre of attraction —

who have nature's steps with care
u'd,

atter is with active force endu'd,
its parts magn-tick pow'r exert,
ach other *gravitate*, assert. *Blackmore*.
tle matter must be of the same sub-
all other matter, and as much as is
led within a particular body must *gra-*
y with that body. *Bentley*.

RAVITATION. *n. f.* [from *gravitate*.]
ing to the centre.—The most confide-
menon belonging to terrestrial bodies
ral action of *gravitation*, whereby all
ies, in the vicinity of the earth, do
els towards its centre. *Bentley*.—

the loose mountain trembles from on

itation cease, if you go by? *Pope*.

VITATION, in natural philosophy, is
listinguished from GRAVITY. Thus
his takes gravity for that force where-
ould fall to the earth; but gravitation
diminished by the centrifugal force.
NIAN PHILOSOPHY.

AVITY. *n. f.* [*gravitas*, Lat. *gravite*,
ght; heaviness; tendency to the cen-
quality by which all heavy bodies tend
centre, accelerating their motion the
approach towards it, true philosophy
be unsolvable by any hypothesis,
it into the immediate will of the
all bodies, considered within the con-
fluid, there is a twofold *gravity*, true
, and vulgar or comparative: abso-
is the whole force by which any bo-

dy tends downwards; but the relative or vulgar
is the excess of *gravity* in one body above the speci-
fic *gravity* of the fluid, whereby it tends downwards
more than the ambient fluid doth. *Quincy*.—Bodies
do swim or sink in different liquors, according to
the tenacity or *gravis* of those liquors which are to
support them. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Though this
increase of density may at great distances be ex-
ceeding slow, yet if the elastick tone of this medi-
um be exceeding great, it may suffice to impel
bodies from the denser parts of the medium to-
wards the rarer, with all that power which we
call *gravity*. *New. Opt.* 2. Atrociousness; weight
of guilt.—No man could ever have thought this
reasonable, that had intended thereby only to
punish the injury committed, according to the
gravity of the fact. *Hooker*.—3. Seriousness; solem-
nity.—There is not a white hair on your face but
should have his effect of *gravity*. *Shak. Hen. IV.*

Our youths and wildness shall no whit appear,

But all he buried in his *gravity*. *Shak. Jul. Caesar*.
—For the advocates and council that plead, pa-
tience and *gravity* of hearing is an essential part
of justice. *Bacon*.—

Great Cato there, for *gravity* renown'd.

Dryden.

—The emperors often jested on their rivals or
predecessors, but their mints still maintained their
gravity. *Addison*.—He will tell you with great
gravity, that it is a dangerous thing for a man
that has been used to get money, ever to leave it
off. *Law*.

(2.) GRAVITY, or GRAVITATION, (for they are
most commonly used synonymously.) signifies ei-
ther the force by which bodies are pressed towards
the surface of the earth, or the manifest effect of
that force; in which last sense the word has the
same signification with *weight* or *heaviness*. Con-
cerning gravity in the first sense of the word, or
that active power by which all bodies are impelled
towards the earth, there have been great disputes.
Many eminent philosophers, and among the rest
Sir Isaac Newton himself, have considered it as
the first of all second causes; an *incorporeal* or *spi-*
ritual substance, which never can be perceived any
other way than by its effects: an universal property
of matter, &c. Others have attempted to ex-
plain the phenomena of gravitation by the action
of a very subtle ethereal fluid; and to this expla-
nation Sir Isaac, in the latter part of his life, seems
not to have been averse. He has even given a con-
jecture concerning the matter in which this fluid
might occasion these phenomena. But for a full
account of the discoveries of this great philosopher
concerning the laws of gravitation, the conjectures
made by him and others concerning its cause, the
various objections that have been made to his
doctrine, and the state of the dispute at present,
see the articles ASTRONOMY, ATMOSPHERE, AT-
TRACTION, EARTH, ELECTRICITY, FIRE, LIGHT,
NEWTONIAN PHILOSOPHY, REPULSION, PLE-
NUM, VACUUM, &c.

(3.) GRAVITY, SPECIFIC, denotes the weight
belonging to an equal bulk of every different sub-
stance. Thus the exact weight of a cubic inch of
gold, compared with a cubic inch of water, tin,
lead, &c. is called its *specific gravity*. See HYDRO-
STATICS, and SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

H h h h 2 GRAULHET.

GRAULHER, a town of France, in the dep. of Tarn, 9 miles NE. of Lavaur, and 15 NW. of Castres.

(1.) **GRAUNT**, Edward, an eminent English grammarian of the 16th century. He was head master of Westminster school, and published a work entitled, *Græcæ Linguae Specilegium, et Institutio Græcæ Grammaticæ*. He died in 1601.

(2.) **GRAUNT**, John, P. R. S. author of a curious and celebrated book, entitled, *Natural and Political Observations made upon the Bills of Mortality*. He was a haberdasher, but gave up his trade, and all public employments, on account of his religion. He was educated a puritan; afterwards professed himself a Socinian; but at last declared himself a Roman Catholic. He died in 1674.

GRAUSZYSZKI, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Wilna; 18 miles SE. of Wilna.

* **GRAY**. *v. s.* The serous juice that runs from flesh not much dried by the fire—Meat we love half raw, with the blood trickling down from it, delicately terming it the *gray*, which in truth looks more like an ichorous or raw bloody matter. *Haver. on Consump.*—There may be a stronger broth made of vegetables than of any *gray* soup. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) * **GRAY**. *adj.* [*greg*, Saxon; *grau*, Dan. *grau*, Dutch.] 1. White with a mixture of black.—

They left me then, when the gray headed even,
Like a sad votarist in palmer's weed,
Rode from the hindmost wheels of Phœbus' wain.

Milton.

—These *gray* and dun colours may be also produced by mixing whites and blacks, and by consequence differ from perfect whites, not in species of colours, but only in degree of luminousness. *Newton's Optics*. 2. White or hoary with old age.—Living creatures generally do change their coat with age, turning to be *gray*; as is seen in men, though some earlier and some later; in horses, that are dappled and turn white; in old squirrels that turn grizzly, and many others. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Thou hast neither forsaken me now I am become *gray* headed, nor suffered me to forsake thee in the late days of temptation. *Watson.*

Anon

Gray headed men and grave, with warriors
mix'd,

Assemble.

Milton's Par. Lost.

—The restoration of *gray* hairs to juvenility, and renewing the exhausted marrow, may be effected. *Glanville.*—

Gray headed infant! and in vain grown old!

Art thou to learn that in another's gold

Lie charms resistless?

Dryden's Juv.

—We most of us are grown *gray* headed in our dear master's service. *Spectator.*—

Her *gray* hair'd synods damning books unread,
And Bacon trembling for his brazen head. *Pope.*

3. Dark like the opening or close of day; of the colour of ashes.—Our women's names are more gracious than their Cæcilia, that is, *gray* eyed. *Camden.*—

The *gray* ey'd morn smiles on the snowing night,

Chequ'ring the eastern clouds with streaks of light.

Shak.

'Tis say you *gray* is not the morning
'Tis but the pale reflex of Cynthia's light
Soon as the *gray* ey'd morning breaks
And in the doubtful day the woodcock
Gay

(4.) * **GRAY**. *v. s.* A *gray* colour—
Down sunk the sun, the closing day
Came onward, mantled o'er with dusk

(3.) **GRAY**, or **GREY**. § 1 *def. l.* See § 3, and **DYING**, *Part III.* *Sec. II.* In ege they make several sorts of grays; as red or blackened gray, which has spots of dispersed here and there. The *gray* which has spots of a darker colour than of the body. The light or silver *gray* there is but a small mixture of black in sad or iron gray, which has but a final of white. And the brownish or sandy gray, where there are bay coloured hairs with the black.

(4.) **GRAY**, in geography, a town in the dep. of Upper Saône, and in Franche Compté. It is a trading place seated on the Saône, 25 miles NE. of Besançon. E. Lat. 47. 30. N.

(5.) **GRAY**, or **GRAY ABBAY**, a town in the county of Down, 89 miles lin, famous for its linen manufacture.

(6.) **GRAY**, a post town and town in the United States, in the district of Massachusetts, in the county of Worcester, 15 miles N. by W. of Boston, and 149 from Boston. The population was 577.

(8.) **GRAY**, Lady Jane. See **GRAY**.

(9.) **GRAY**, Mary of Leiden. See **BUT**.

(10.) **GRAY**, Thomas, an admired English writer was the youngest and only surviving son of a reputable citizen of London, and was born in 1716. He was educated at Eton, where he contracted a friendship with Mr Horace Walpole, and with Mr Richard West, who was chancellor of Ireland. Mr West and were both intended for the bar; but was diverted from that pursuit by an accident, Mr Walpole in his travels; accepted without any determined plan of a literary life. During his travels, he wrote of letters to Mr West and to his parents are printed with his poems; and when he was in London, finding himself in narrow circumstances, with a mind not disposed for active employment, he retired to Cambridge, and devoted himself to study. Soon after his return, his father died; and the melancholy impressed on the event may be traced in his admirable *written in a country church-yard*, which is supposed to have been begun at this time. The pulse of his sorrow for the death of his father, birth to a very tender sonnet in English, model of Petrarch; and also to a sonnet in hexameters, written in genuine majesty, with which he intended to begin his books *De Principiis cogitandi*. From 1742, to his death, his principal residence was at Cambridge; from which he was absent any considerable time, except in 1759 and 1762; when, on the spring

useum, he took lodgings in Southamp-
 in order to have recourse to the Harleian
 MSS. there deposited, from which he
 eral curious extracts, amounting in all
 able-sized folio, at present in the hands
 Walpole. About 1747, Mr Mason, the
 Mr Gray's poems, was introduced to
 Mason had written some imitations of
 juvenile poems, *viz.* A Monody on the
 Mr Pope, and two pieces intitled *Il-*
and Il Pacifico on the peace of Aix-la-
 ; and Mr Gray revised them. This laid
 fation of an intimacy which continued
 interruption till Mr Gray's death. About
 ; Gray had put his last hand to his cele-
egy written in a country church-yard, and
 nunicated it to his friend Mr Walpole,
 od taste was too much charmed with
 er him to with-hold the sight of it from
 instance. Accordingly it was shown about
 time in MS. and received with all the
 it to justly merited. At last the publisher
 f the magazines having obtained a sur-
 copy of it, Mr Gray wrote to Mr Wal-
 iring that he would put his own MS. in-
 ands of Mr Doddsley, and order him to
 nmediately. This was the most popular
 r author's publications. It ran through
 litions in a very short time; and was
 nlated into Latin by Messrs Anstey and
 and by Mr Lloyd. From 1759 to 1762,
 ally resided in London. In July 1768,
 Grafton wrote him, that his majesty had
 sed to offer to him the professorship of Mo-
 ory in the university of Cambridge, then
 This place was valuable, the salary being
 year; and was the more acceptable to
 that it was given him without solicitation.
 indeed remarkably disinterested in all his

Though his income, before this addi-
 very small, he never read or wrote with-
 of making his labours useful to himself.
 be said to have been one of those few
 s in the annals of literature, who are de-
 self interest, and at the same time atten-
 economy; and also was one of those very
 omists, who possess that talent, untine-
 th the slightest stain of avarice. When
 nstances were at the lowest, he gave a
 sums in private charity, as would have
 dit to an ampler purse. He seems early
 have had an intention of publishing an
 f Strabo; for his papers contain a great
 of notes and geographical disquisitions on
 or, particularly with respect to that part
 which comprehends Persia and India.
 fatigable pains which he took with the
 of Plato, and the number of critical and
 ry observations which he has left upon
 very part of his works, plainly indicate,
 nan in Europe was better prepared to re-
 ad illustrate that philosopher than Mr Gray.
 work, on which he bestowed uncommon
 as the *Anthologia*. In an interleaved copy
 ollection of Greek epigrams, he has tran-
 scribed several additional ones, which he selected
 sensive reading; has inserted a great num-
 critical notes and emendations, and sub-

joined a copious index. But whether he intended
 this performance for the press or not, is uncer-
 tain. The only work, which he meditated upon
 with this direct view from the beginning, was a
history of English poetry, upon a plan sketched out
 by Mr Pope. He has mentioned this himself in
 an advertisement to those three fine imitations
 of Norse and Welch poetry, which he gave the
 world in the last edition of his poems. But after
 he had made some preparations for the execution
 of this design, being informed, that Mr Warton,
 of Trinity College, Oxford, was engaged in a
 work of the same kind, he relinquished the under-
 taking; and soon after, on that gentleman's de-
 siring a sight of his plan, our author readily sent
 him a copy of it. Mr Gray had acquired a great
 knowledge of Gothic architecture. He had seen
 and studied in his youth, while abroad, the Ro-
 man proportions, both in ancient times, and in
 the works of Palladio. In his later years he ap-
 plied himself to consider those stupendous struc-
 tures of more modern date that adorn our own
 country; which, if they have not the same grace,
 have undoubtedly equal dignity. He endeavour-
 ed to trace this mode of building from the time
 it commenced through its various changes, till it
 arrived at its perfection in the reign of Henry VIII.
 and ended in that of Elizabeth. Thus he arrived
 at so very extraordinary a pitch of sagacity, as to
 be able to pronounce at first sight, on the precise
 time when every particular part of any of our
 cathedrals was erected. But the favourite study
 of Mr Gray for the last ten years of his life was
 natural history, which he then rather resumed
 than began; as by the instructions of his uncle
 Antrobus, he was a considerable botanist at 15.
 The marginal notes which he has left on Linnæus
 and other writers on the vegetable, animal, and
 fossile kingdoms, are very numerous: but the
 most considerable are on Hudson's *Flora Anglica*,
 and the 10th edition of the *Systema Naturæ*.
 While employed on zoology, he read Aristotle's
 treatise on that subject with great care, and ex-
 plained many difficult passages of that obscure an-
 cient, by the lights he had received from modern
 naturalists. He died in 1771; and an edition of
 his poems, with memoirs of his life and writings,
 were published in 4to, in 1775, by Mr Mason.
 Mr Gray's character, has been drawn by the Rev.
 Mr Temple, rector of Mamhead in Devonshire,
 in a letter to Mr Boswell. "Perhaps (says Mr
 Temple) he was the most learned man in Europe.
 He was equally acquainted with the elegant and
 profound parts of science, and that not superfi-
 cially but thoroughly. He knew every branch of
 history, both natural and civil; had read all the
 original historians of England, France, and Italy:
 and was a great antiquarian. Criticism, meta-
 physics, morals, politics, made a principal part
 of his plan of study; voyages and travels of all
 sorts were his favourite amusement; and he had
 a fine taste in painting, prints, architecture, and
 gardening. With such a fund of knowledge, his
 conversation must have been equally instructing
 and entertaining; but he was also a good man, a
 well bred man, a man of virtue and humanity.
 There is no character without some speck, some
 imperfection; and I think the greatest defect in

He was an affection in delicacy, or rather effeminacy, and a visible fallidousness, or contempt and disdain of his inferiors in science. He also had, in some degree, that weakness which disgusted Voltaire so much in Mr Congreve." (See CONGREGATE.) "Perhaps it may be said: What signifies so much knowledge, when it produces so little? Is it worth taking so much pains to leave no memorial but a few poems? But let it be considered, that Mr Gray was, to others, at least innocently employed; to himself, certainly beneficially. His time passed agreeably; he was every day making some new acquisition in science; his mind was enlarged, his heart softened, and his virtue strengthened; the world and mankind were shown to him without a mask; and he was taught to consider every thing as trifling, and unworthy the attention of a wise man, except the pursuit of knowledge, and the practice of virtue in that state wherein God hath placed us."

(11.) * GRAY. *n. f.* A badger. *Ainsworth.*

GRAY ABBEY. See GRAY, N° 5.

* GRAYBEARD. *n. f.* [gray and beard.] An old man; in contempt.—

Youngling, thou canst not love so dear as I.
—Graybeard, thy love doth freeze. *Shak.*

Have I in conquest stretch mine arm so far,
To be afraid to tell graybeards the truth?

Shakespeare.

(12.) * GRAYLING. *n. f.* [*thymallus.*] The umber, a fish.—The grayling lives in such rivers as the trout does, and is usually taken with the baits, and after the same manner; he is of a fine shape, his flesh white, and his teeth, those little ones that he has, are in his throat. He is not so general a fish as the trout, nor so good to eat *Walton's Angler.*

(2.) GRAYLING, in ichthyology, a species of SALMO. In angling for this fish your hook must be armed upon the shanks with a very narrow plate of lead, which should be slenderest at the bent of the hook, that the bait (a large grasshopper, with the uppermost wing pulled off) may come over to it the more easily. At the point let there be a cad-bait in a continual motion. The jag-tail, which is a worm of a pale flesh-colour, with a yellow tag on its tail, is an excellent bait for the grayling in March and April.

* GRAYNESS. *n. f.* [from gray.] The quality of being gray.

GRAYS, or GRAYS-THURROCK, a town of England in Essex, on the banks of the Thames, opposite Dartford. It has a market on Thursday, and lies 12½ miles SE. of Rumbold, and 24 E. of London. Lon. 5. 24. E. Lat. 51. 26. N.

GRAY'S TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, and province of Munster.

GRAZ, or GRATZ. See GRATZ, N° 1.

GRAZALEMA, a town of Spain in Granada, 8 miles W. of Ronda.

(1.) * To GRAZE. *v. a.* [from grass.] 1. To tend grazing cattle; to set cattle to feed on grass. Jacob graz'd his uncle Laban's sheep. *Shak.*

O happy man, saith he, that, lo! I see

Grazing his cattle in those pleasant fields,

If he but know his good! *Dan. Civil War.*

2. To feed upon.—

I was at first as other beasts, that
The trodden herb, of abject thought

Their feeds around.

Free from their harness, graze the bow

—Some graze their land 'till Christmas
longer. *Mori.*

This Neptune gave him, when he
His scaly flocks that graze the war

The lambs with wolves shall graze
dant mead.

3. To supply with grass.—He hath
barn to repair, and a field or two
cows, with a garden and orchard *Shak.*

(2.) * To GRAZE. *v. n.* 1. To feed on grass.—The greatest of my pig
my ewes graze, and my lunds suck, *Shak.*
where you will, you shall not house

Leaving in the fields his grazing

He sought himself some hospitable

The more ignoble through

Attend their stately sleeps, and sleep
long.

2. To supply grass.—Physicians ad-
tients to remove into airs which are
paigns, but grazing, and not overgrowing

Bacon.—The sewers must be kept so
may not stay too long in the Spring:

ground continueth the wet, whereby
graze to purpose that year. *Bacon.*

of grazing ground is that near the
commonly very rich land. *Mori.*

move on devouring.—As every state
the other that was oppressed, so the

usually grazed. *Bacon.* 4. [From *raja*]
To touch lightly.—

Mark then a bounding valour is on

That bring dead, like to the bullets,
Breaks out into a second course of

Killing in relapse of mortality. *Shak.*

GRAZE LE BOIS, a town of France, u
of Maine, 6 miles E. of Maine and 9 of

* GRAZER. *n. f.* [from *graze.*]

grazes or feeds on grass.—

His flock daily crops

Their verdant dinner from the moss

* Sufficient: after them the cackling
Close grazer, finds wherewith to eat

GRAZIE, an isle of Maritime Aus-
district of Dorio Duro, near Venice as

gio. It has a church with elegant pias

* GRAZIER. *n. f.* [from *graze.*]

feeds cattle.—All graziers prefer their
meaner pastures to better. *Bacon.*—One

which fillet the husbandman's barns, ti
folds, and the tradesman's shop. *Houel.*

fusion increased when he found the
father to be a grazier. *Sprad.*—Of agric

desolations made in the country by engra-
sers, and the great yearly importations

from England, are lamentable instances u
discouragement it lies. *Smyth.*

GRAZZINI, Antony Francia, surnam-
ed, a native of Florence, and one of the

my della Crusca. See ACADEMY, §
He wrote 6 Comedies and several
died in 1583.

GREASE. *n. s.* [*graisse*, French.] 1. The
be fat; the oily or unctuous part of

Grease, that's sweeten
murth'rer's gibbet, throw
me. *Shak. Macbeth.*

at a spot of *grease* they use a coal u-
aper. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

op'ft, with sacrifice of oxen slain,
fs wealth, and bribe the god of gain
ee flocks and herds, with large en-

; expect them from a bullock's *grease*.

, foul with *grease*, binds his obliu-
Dryd. *Juv.*

anship.] A swelling and gourdi-ness
which happens to a horse after a jour-
standing long in the stable.

SE, § 1. *def.* 2. See FARRJERY, Part
I.

GREASE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To
oint with *grease*. 2. To bribe; to
presents.—

Envy not the store
as'd advocate that grinds the poor.

GREASE. *n. s.* [from *grease*.] Oiliness;
on the most of these stones, after they
e appears always, as it were, a kind
or unctuousity. *Boyle.*

GREASY. *adj.* [from *grease*.] 1. Oily; fat;

gments, scraps, the bits and *greasy* re-

reaten faith.
with *grease*.—

Even the lewd rabble
their roaring throats, and grumbled

ave hugg'd the *greasy* rogues; they
ed me. *Osw.*

, and see that they be big-boned, and
greasy, well curled close wool. *Mort.*

of body; bulky: in reproach.—Let's
ther against this *greasy* knight. *Shak.*

GREAT. *adj.* [*great*, Sax.; *groot*, Dut.]

bulk or number.—Judas one of the
, and with him a *great* multitude with

aves. *Mat. xxvi. 47.*—All these cities
with high walls, gates, and bars, be-

alled towns, a *great* many. *Deut. iii. 5.*

mental air diffus'd

to the uttermost convex

eat round. *Milton.*

od created the *great* whales. *Milton.*

on horrible, on all sides round,

eat furnace flam'd. *Milton.*

The tallest pine

Norwegian hills, to be the mast

great admiral. *Milton.*

ny quality in a high degree.—There

a *great* fear. *Pf. xiv. 5.*

ow'r was *great*. *Milton.*

Great triumph and rejoicing was in heav'n.

Milton.

Charms such as thine, inimitably *great*

He only could express. *Broome.*

3. Having number or bulk, relative or compara-

tive.—The idea of so much is positive and clear:

the idea of *greater* is also clear, but it is but a

comparative idea. *Locke.*—4. Considerable in ex-

tent or duration.—Thou hast spoken of thy ser-

vants house for a *great* while to come. 2 *Sa. vii. 19.*

5. Important; weighty.—

Make sure

Her favours to thee, and the *great* oath take

With which the blessed gods assurance make.

Chapman.

Many

Have broke' their backs with laying manors on

them,

For this great journey. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

What is low raise and support,

That to the height of this *great* argument

I may assert eternal Providence,

And vindicate the ways of God to men. *Milt.*

On some *great* charge employ'd

He seem'd, or fix'd in cogitation deep. *Milton.*

By experience of this *great* event,

In arms not worse. *Milton.*

After silence then,

And summons read, the *great* consult began.

Milton.

—And though this be a *great* truth, if it be impar-

tially considered, yet it is also a *great* paradox to

men of corrupt minds and vicious practices. *Tillot.*

6. Chief; principal.—

Hear the king's pleasure, cardinal, who com-

mands you

To render up the *great* seal presently. *Shak.*

7. Venerable; adorable; awful.—

Thou first art wot God's *great* authentick

will,

Interpreter, through highest heav'n to bring.

Milton.

8. Wonderful; marvellous.—

Great things, and full of wonder. *Milton.*

9. Of high rank.; of large power.—

Such men as he be never at heart's ease,

Whilst they behold a *greater* than themselves.

Shak. Julius Caesar.

Worthiest by being good,

Far more than *great* or high. *Milton.*

Of all the *great*, how few

Are just to heav'n, and to their promise true!

Pope's Odyssey.

Misfortune made the throne her seat,

And none could be unhappy but the *great*.

Rowe.

Despise the farce of state.

The sober follies of the wise and *great*. *Pope.*

The marble tombs that raise on high,

Whose dead in vaulted arches lie;

These, all the poor remains of state,

Adorn the rich, or praise the *great*. *Parnel.*

10. General; extensive in consequence or influ-

ence.—

Prolifick humour soft'ning all her globe,

Fermented the *great* mother to conceive. *Milt.*

11. Illustrious; eminent; noble; excellent.—()

Lord

Lord, thou art *great*, and thy name is *great* in might. *Jer. x. 6.*

The *great* Creator thus reply'd, *Milton.*

The *great* Son return'd

Victorious with his saints. *Milton.*

Fair angel, thy desire that tends to know

The works of God, thereby to glorify

The *great* work-master, tends to no excess

That reaches blame. *Milton.*

Great are thy works Jehovah, infinite

Thy pow'r! what thought can measure thee,
or tongue

Relate thee! *greater* now in thy return,

Than from the giant angels: thee that day

Thy thunder magnified, but to create

Is *greater* than created to destroy. *Milton.*

The *great* luminary,

Aloof the vulgar constellations thick,

That from his lordly eye keep distance due,

Dispenses light from far. *Milton.*

Here Cæsar grac'd with both Minervas shone,

Cæsar, the world's *great* master, and his own.

Pope.

Scipio,

Great in triumphs, in retirement *great.* *Pope.*

12. Grand of aspect; of elevated mien.—

Such Dido was; with such becoming state,

Amidst the crowd, she walks serenely *great.*

Dryd. Virg.

13. Magnanimous; generous; high minded.—In her every thing was goodly and stately; yet so, that it might seem that *great* mindedness was but

the ancient-bearer to the humbleness. *Sidney.*

14. Opulent; sumptuous; magnificent.—

Not Babylon,

Nor *great* Alcázar, such magnificence

Equall'd in all their glories. *Milton.*

—He disdain'd not to appear at *great* tables and festival entertainments. *Alterb.*

15. Intellectually *great*: sublime.—

This new created world, how good, how fair,

Answering his *great* idea. *Milton.*

16. Swelling; proud.—Solyman perceived that Vienna was not to be won with words, nor the

defendants to be discouraged with *great* looks; wherefore he began to batter the walls. *Knolles.*

17. Familiar; much acquainted. A low word.

—Those that would not censure, or speak ill of a man immediately, will talk more boldly of those that are *great* with them, and thereby wound

their honour. *Bacon.*

18. Pregnant; teeming.—

His eyes sometimes even *great* with tears. *Sidney.*

Their bellies *great*

With swelling vanity, bring forth deceit. *Sandys.*

This fly, for most he stings in heat of day,

From cattle *great* with young keep thou away.

May's Virg.

19. It is added in every step of ascending or descending consanguinity: as *great* grandson & the

grandson of my grandson.—I dare not yet affirm for the antiquity of our language, that our *great*—

great—*great* grandfathers tongue came out of Ferns. *Camden's Remains.*—What we call *great*—

great grandfather they called forthafader. *Camden's Remains.*—Their holyday-cloaths go from father to

son, and are seldom worn out till the 2d or 3d generation; so that is it common enough to see a

countryman in the doublet and breeches of his

great grandfather. *Addison.*

20. His

grievous. A proverbial expression.—

matter to live lovingly with good meek persons. *Taylor's Devotion.*

(21.) *GREAT* is also a title appropriated to princes, as, the *great* Turk, the

the *great* cham of Tartary, the *great*

revenge, &c.

(3.) *GREAT* is also a surname bestowed on several kings and emperors, as, Alexander the *great*; Charles the *great*; &c.

(4.) * *GREAT. n. f.* [from the *adj.* *great*]. The whole; the gross; the whole in a

whole; the gross; the whole in a
To let out thy harvest by *great*

Let this by experience lead thee

By *great* will deceive thee with thy
out,

By day will dispatch.

—It were behoveful, for the strength
that no ships should be builded by
hy daily experience they are found to

imperfect. *Raleigh.*—
He did at length so many pains
And lost the tale, and took them

—Carpenters build an house by the
agreed for the sum of money. *Mason*

one day in a week for lovers, and into
great for any gentlewoman who is

Addison.

(5.) A *GREAT MANY*, a very
though common phrase, to be found in

authors. See *DICTIONARY*, § 4.

GREAT BANK OF NEWFOUNDLAND

fishery bank on the coast of Newfound

tending from N. to S. but nearly of

shape. It is separated from the island

by a broad channel of deep water. *R.*

Lon. 49. 45. and 54. 45. W. and betw

0. and 50. 24 N.

GREAT BARRINGTON, a town in

chusetts in Berkshire county, 150 N.

Boston, and 20 E. by S. of Hudson, in

GREAT BEAR LAKE, a water in the

of N. America, which runs W. into

River, near the Arctic circle. It is

yards wide.

* *GREATBELLIED. adj.* [*great* and

nant; teeming.—

Greatbellied women.

That had not halt a week to go. B

In the old time of war, would shab

—A *greatbellied* woman, walking then

ty in the day time, had her child in

her womb, and carried half a turkie

Hilms.

GREAT BRITAIN. See *BRITAIN*,

and *SCOTLAND.* The long projected

tween Great Britain and Ireland, was

position in the last Irish parliament, was

a majority in the parliaments of both

in 1800; It took place on new years

first meeting of the Imperial parliament

on the 22d of January 1801. See *1st*

GREAT DISMAL SWAMP. See *DIS*

* *To GREATEN. v. a.* [from *gr*

to enlarge; to magnify. A word little or they fought to *greaten* themselves in using strangers for the commanders of the Turks by degrees beat them out of goodly countries. *Raleigh*.—A favourite is to please his king, a minister's to exalt him. *Ken*.

ER TONE, in music. See TONE.

FAMING, a river of New York, which mountains near the source of the Onondaga NW. by W. into Lake Ontario, 10 of Black river.

THEARTED. *adjs* [*great* and *heart*.] ed; undejected.—The earl, as *greathearted*, declared that he neither cared for him, nor feared his hatred. *Clarendon*.

EAT ISLAND, an island of Ireland, 10 miles long, and from 1 to 3 broad, 8 of Cork.

EAT ISLAND, an island of New Hampshire, catagua harbour.

ATLY. *adv*. [from *great*.] 1. In a great manner.—

How I will *greatly* multiply. *Milton*. illustriously.—

London, empress of the northern clime, though fate thou *greatly* didst expire. *Dryden*. bravely; generously; bravely.—

These are these bold intrepid sons of war, who *greatly* turn their backs upon the foe, their general send a brave defiance?

Addison's Cato.

MAN'S BAY, a bay of Ireland, on the NW. of Galway, 6 miles N. of Arran.

ATNESS. *n. s.* [from *great*.] 1. Large quantity or number. 2. Comparative

—We can have no positive idea of any quantity, which is not made up of and compared to repeated numbers of feet or days or years, and whereby we judge of the *greatness* of these sort of quantities. *Locke*.—The good does not, according to the quantity it has, or is acknowledged to have, cause to that *greatness*, as all pain causes does to itself; because the absence of good is a pain, as the presence of pain is. *Locke*.—The degree of any quality.—Zeal, in duties, is proportioned to the *greatness* of the reward, the certainty. *Rogers*. 4. High place; power; influence; empire.—The most glory is lodged most easily in the greatest; for their ordinary conceit drawing to *greatness*, and then have they discern the right degrees of duty. *Sidney*.

el, a long farewell to all my *greatness*.

Shak.

So many

to *greatness* dedicate themselves. *Shak*.—Your *greatness* not to give the law to realms; but beaten, to withdraw.

Dryden.

reaching *greatness* met him with her arms

for and future state;

to keep her from his arms.

Dryden.

ocles raised the Athenians to their *greatness*.

PART. II.

ness at sea, which he thought to be the true and constant interest of that commonwealth. *Swift*.

3. Swelling pride; affected state.—My lord would have you know, that it is not of pride or *greatness* that he cometh not aboard your ships. *Bacon*. 6. Merit; magnanimity; nobleness of mind.—

Greatness of mind and nobleness their seat Build in her loveliest. *Milton*.

7. Grandeur; state; magnificence.—

Greatness with Timon dwells in such draught, As brings all Brobdignag before your thought.

Pope.

GREAT RIDGE, a ridge of the ALLEGANY mountains between the Savannah and the Alamaha.

GREAT SKELIG, an island of Ireland on the coast of Kerry, in Munster.

* GREAVE. *n. s.* [*græf*, Saxon.] A grove. *Spenser*.—

Yet when there haps a honey-fall,

We'll lick the firupt leaves,

And tell the bees that theirs is gall

To that upon the *greaves*.

M. Drayton.

(1.) GREAVES, John, an eminent physician and antiquary, the eldest son of John Greaves rector of Colemore, near Alresford in Hampshire. He was born in 1602, and educated at Balliol College in Oxford, from which he removed to Merton. He was afterwards chosen professor of geometry, in Gresham college. His ardent thirst of knowledge led him to travel into several parts of Europe, where he eagerly seized every opportunity of improving it. His next voyage was into the eastern countries; where nothing remarkable in the heavens, earth, or even subterraneous places seems to have escaped his observation. He, with indefatigable industry, and even at the peril of his life, collected a considerable number of Arabic, Persian, and Greek MSS. for Abp. Laud. Of these he well knew the value, as he was a master of the languages in which they were written. He also collected for that prelate many oriental gems and coins. He took a more accurate survey of the pyramids than any traveler who went before him. On his return from the East, he visited several parts of Italy a second time. During his stay at Rome, he made a particular inquiry into the true state of the ancient weights and measures. Soon after he finished his 2d voyage, he was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, for which he was eminently qualified. His books relating to oriental learning, his *Pyramidographia*, or a description of the pyramids in Egypt, his *Epochæ Celebriores*, and other curious and useful pieces, of which Mr Ward has given us a catalogue, show him to have been a great man. Those which he intended to publish would have shown him to be a greater; but he was stopped in his great career by death in 1652.

(2.) * GREAVES. *n. s.* [from *gréves*, Fr.] Armour for the legs; a sort of boots. It wants the singular number.—He had *greaves* of brass upon his legs. 1 Sam. xvii. 6.—

A shield make for him, and a helm, fair *greaves*, and curets such

As may renown thy workmanship, and honour him as much.

Chapman.

III

GREBE.

GREBE. See *CORYMBUS*, N^o 2, 3, and 12.

GREBENS TEIN, a town of Hesse Cassel, 13 m. NW. of Cassel, and 16 NNE. of Naumburg.

GREBIN, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania, 6 miles SE. of Danzig.

GRECIAN. See *GREEK*.

GRECINUS, Julius, a Roman Senator and a man of letters, born at Trevis, in the reign of Augustus. He was a man of exemplary virtue, and was put to death by Caligula, for refusing to accuse an innocent man who had incurred that tyrant's displeasure.

* *GRECISM*. *n. f.* [*gracismus*, Lat.] An idiom of the Greek language.

GREEDINO, a town of Franconia, in the bishopric of Aichstadt, 13 miles NE. of Aichstadt.

* *GREE*. *n. f.* [*gré*, French; probably from *gratia*.] Good will; favour; good graces.—

And falling her before do lowly knee,

To her makes present of his service seen,

Which she accepts with thank and goodly *gree*.

Spenser.

(1.) GREECE, in many respects, one of the most deservedly celebrated countries in the world, was anciently bounded on the N. by Macedonia and the river Strymon, on the W. by the Ionian sea; on the S. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by the Egean sea and Archipelago. It extended from the Strymon, by which it was parted from Thrace, to the promontory of Tenarus, the southernmost point of the Peloponnesus, now the Morea, about 6° 20' of latitude, or nearly 440 English miles, and in breadth from E. to W. about 350 miles.

(2.) GREECE, ANCIENT NAMES OF THE INHABITANTS OF. The general names by which the inhabitants of this country were known to the ancients were those of *Graeci*, or *Graeci*, from whence the name of *Greece* is plainly derived. These names are thought to come from *Γραεὺς*, the father, or (according to some, the son, of Thessalus, who gave name to Thessaly; but some modern critics derive it from *Raga*, the same with *Reu*, the son of Peleg, by the transposition of a letter to soften the sound.—These names were afterwards changed for *ΑΧΑΙΟΙ* or *ΑΧΙΒΙΟΙ*, and *ΗΛΛΗΝΕΣ*, the first, as is supposed, from *Αχαιῶν*, the son of Xuthus, the son of Hellen, and father of Ion; or, according to the fable, the son of Jupiter: the other from Hellen, above-mentioned, the son of Deucalion, and father of Dorus, from whom came the *Dores*, afterwards a famous nation among the Greeks.—Another name by which the Greeks were known in some parts of the country, was that of *ΠΕΛΑΣΓΟΙ*, which the Arcadians, the most ancient people in Greece, deduced from their pretended founder *Pelasgus*, who is said to have got such footing in Peloponnesus, that the whole peninsula from him was called *ΠΕΛΑΣΓΙΑ*. But the most ancient name of all is universally allowed to have been that of *ΙΩΝΕΣ*, which the Greeks themselves derived from Ion the son of Xuthus; or, as the fable hath it, of Apollo, by Creusa the daughter of Erechtheus the grandson of Deucalion. Josephus, however, affirms, that their original is of much older date; and that *JAVAN*, the son of Japhet, and grandson of Noah, was the first who peopled these countries; which Bochart has also rendered very pro-

bable. It is true, indeed, that among the themselves, only the Athenians and such as sprang from them, were called *Ιωνες*; but this is also plain beyond exception, that others gave this name to all the inhabitants of the country.

(3.) GREECE, ANCIENT SAVAGE STATE. The inhabitants of Greece in the first ages, according to their own historians, appear to have been savages scarce a degree removed from beasts. They lived indifferently on every fruit, and root that came in their way; and lay either in open fields, or at best sheltered themselves in caves, and hollow trees: while the country remained one uncultivated desert.—The first improvement they made in their way of life, was the exchanging of their old food for the more wholesome atoms, building huts for themselves to sleep in, and covering their bodies with skins of beasts. For all this, it seems, they were still holden to *Pelasgus* above mentioned (see above) by some to be *ΠΕΛΑΓ* spoken of in Scripture, who was highly revered by them on account of his reformation in their way of life. However, it seems wrought none in them. On the contrary, they who had nothing but a hole to sleep in, began now to rob one another of these slender acquisitions. In process of time, put them under a necessity of joining themselves into companies, and making head, that they might either more safely defend themselves against their neighbours, or preserve what they had. Laws they had none except that of the strongest; so that those only lived in safety who inhabited the most barren and craggy places; and hence for a long time had no settled inhabitants, the weakest being always turned out by the strongest. Their gigantic size and strength, if we believe Plutarch, added so much to their pride and cruelty, that they seemed to glory in committing the greatest acts of violence and bloodshed on those that unhappily fell into their hands.

(4.) GREECE, ANCIENT STATES AND DOMINIONS OF. The next advance towards civilisation was their forming themselves into regular states, to cultivate the lands, and build towns for their safety. Their original barbarity and mutual violence prevented them from uniting into one nation, or even into any considerable confederacy, and hence the great number of states in Greece was originally divided. The most considerable of these small principalities mentioned in the following: in Peloponnesus were those of Sicyon, Argos, and Messenia, Achaea, Arcadia, and Laconia. In Graecia Propria, that part of Greece which lay without Peloponnesus, were those of Attica, Megara, Boeotia, Epichnemidia, Doris, Phocis, Locris, and Aetolia. In Epirus were the Molossians, Cassiopaëi, Dryopes, Chaonians, and Acarnani. In Thessaly those of Thessaliotis, Estiotis, Pelasgiotis, and Phthia. All these were at one time or other severally governed by kings of the country, though we only find the names of many mentioned in the histories of the more considerable kingdoms of Sparta, Attica, Thebes, &c.

(5.) GREECE, GENERAL HISTORY OF THE SIEGE OF TROY. The creation

however, for some time, did not much use; the inhabitants of the new kingdoms and destroyed one another with-

Attica was the only place in any degree secure from these incursions, because it was a solitude of every thing that could invite an enemy; but those cities fared much less well which were situated on the sea-coasts; they were in continual danger of being plundered by sea or land: for pirates at that time infested all those seas than robbers did. And this was one main cause why the ancient cities of Greece were situated at considerable distance from the shore; but still, as all their safety consisted in the arms they could make against an invader, the inhabitants were under a necessity of going armed, and being ever on their guard. The chief arising from these continual robberies was, that they occasioned a great part of the lands to lie uncultivated; the people only planted and sowed as much as was barely necessary for their support; there was so great a neglect of agriculture, that there could be little room for any discoveries in the useful arts and trades. Hence, when other nations had improved themselves to a very high degree, the Greeks seem to have been utterly ignorant of every useful art. During this period of barbarity, the most renowned Grecian heroes, Hercules, Theseus, &c. performed their exploits; which, however exaggerated by poets, no doubt had a foundation in truth. The poets are of opinion, that the Grecian heroes were entirely fictitious, and their exploits deformed by those of the Hebrew worthies, such as Samson, &c. Yet, considering the excess of barbarity which at that time prevailed throughout Greece, it seems not at all improbable, that some persons of extraordinary courage might undertake the cause of justice, and travel about like the more modern knights errant in quest of adventures.

GREECE, GENERAL HISTORY OF, TILL THE CONQUEST OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT. The history of Greece from the time of its union in which we find the Greeks united against Troy, for the particulars of the Trojan War. Their success in this war, which ended about A. A. C. 1184.) cost them vast numbers of their bravest warriors; great numbers of the survivors being killed on their return; and many of those who returned had lost their fortune to get back again, being plundered, or driven out of their country. It is probable however, that their having been so long a time in Asia, might contrivance the Greeks somewhat sooner than it otherwise would have been; and accordingly, we find their history somewhat improved. and as it were beginning to emerge from darkness. The continual wars, indeed, in which they were engaged among themselves, no long time, prevented them from making considerable progress in those arts in which they afterwards made so great improvement. These wars, which indeed never ceased till the Greeks preserved their liberty, ren-

dered them brave, and skilled in the military art, above all other nations; but at the same time they effectually prevented them from making permanent conquests, and confined them within the bounds of their own country: while the different states were one way or other so equally balanced, that scarce one of them was able perfectly to subdue another. The Spartans, however, having, with great difficulty, reduced the kingdom of Messene, and added its territories to their own, became the leading people in Greece. Their superiority was long disputed by Athens; but the Peloponnesian war at last determined that point in favour of the Spartans, when the city of Athens was taken, and its walls demolished by Lysander the Spartan general. See ATTICA, § 13. By the battle of Leuctra, the Spartans lost that superiority which they had maintained for 500 years, and which now devolved on the Thebans. After the death of Epaminondas, the celebrated Theban general, however, as no person was found possessed of his abilities, the Thebans were again obliged to yield the superiority to the Spartans. But by this time the Greeks had become acquainted with the luxuries and elegancies of life; and all the rigour of their original laws could not prevent them from valuing these as highly as other people. This did not indeed abate their valour, but it heightened their mutual animosities; at the same time that, for the sake of a more easy and comfortable life, they became more disposed to submit to a master. The Persians, whose power they had long dreaded, and who were unable to resist them by force of arms, at last found out, by the advice of Alcibiades, the proper method of reducing the Grecian power; namely, by assisting them by turns, and supplying one state with money to fight against another, till they should all be so much reduced, that they might become an easy prey. Thus the Greeks were weakened, though the Persians did not reap any benefit from their weakness. Philip of Macedon entered into the same political views; and partly by intrigue, partly by force, got himself declared Generalissimo of Greece. His successor Alexander the Great completed their subjection; and by destroying the city of Thebes, and exterminating its inhabitants, struck such a terror throughout Greece, that he was as fully obeyed by all the states as by any of the rest of his subjects.

(7.) GREECE, HISTORY OF, TILL ITS SUBJUGATION BY THE TURKS. During the absence of Alexander in Persia the Greeks attempted to shake off the Macedonian yoke, but were quelled by his general Antipater. The news of Alexander's death was to them a matter of the utmost joy; but their mutual animosities prevented them from joining in any solid plan for the recovery of their liberties, and hence they continued to be oppressed by Alexander's successors, or other tyrants, till Aratus, the Achæan, about 268 B. C. formed a design of setting his country free from these oppressors. He persuaded a number of the small republics to enter into a league for their own defence, which was called the *Achæan league*; and notwithstanding that the republics, taken singly, had very little strength, they not only maintained their independence, but soon became formidable when united.

This association continued to become daily more and more powerful; but received a severe check from Cleomenes III. king of Sparta, which obliged them to call in Antigonus to their assistance. This prince overcame Cleomenes at the battle of Sellasia, and afterwards made himself master of Sparta. Thus he became a more formidable enemy than the one he had conquered, and the recovery of the Grecian liberties was incomplete. Soon after this, the Greeks began to feel the weight of a power more formidable than any which they had yet experienced; namely, that of the Romans. That indolent and haughty republic first inter-meddled with the Grecian affairs, under pretence of setting them at liberty from the oppression of Philip VI. of Macedon. This, by a proper union among themselves, they might have accomplished; but in this they acted as though they had been insatuated; receiving with the utmost joy the decree of the Roman consul, who declared them free; without considering, that he who had thus given them liberty, might take it away at his pleasure. This lesson, however, they were soon taught, by the total reduction of their country to a Roman province; yet this can scarce be called a misfortune, when we look back to their history, and consider their outrages upon one another: nor can we sympathize with them for the loss of that liberty, which they only made use of to fill their country with slaughter and bloodshed. After their conquest by the Romans, they made no united effort to recover their liberty. They continued in quiet subjection till the beginning of the 15th century. About that time, they began to suffer under the tyranny of the Turks, and their sufferings were completed by the taking of Constantinople in 1453. Since that time, they have groaned under the yoke of a most despotic government, so that all traces of their former valour, ingenuity, and learning, are now in a manner totally extinct. Whether the exertions of Passwan Oglou, or those of the French shall tend to revive their ancient spirit, time must determine.

(8.) GREECE, PRESENT STATE OF. Modern Greece, now called EUROPEAN TURKEY, and by the Turks RUMELIA, comprehends Macedonia; Albania, now called ARNAUT; Epirus; Thessaly, now JANA; Achaia, now LIVADIA; the Peloponnesus, now MOREA; together with the islands on its coast, and in the Archipelago. The continent of Greece is seated betwixt 36° and 43° lat. N. and between 19° and 26° lon. E. of London. On the N. it is bounded by Bulgaria and Servia, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains; on the S. by the Mediterranean sea; on the E. by Romania and the Archipelago; and on the W. by the Adriatic. Its length is above 400 miles, and its utmost breadth about 350. The air is extremely temperate and healthy; and the soil fruitful, though badly cultivated; yielding corn, wine, delicious fruits, and abounding with cattle, fowls, and venison. See GREEKS, § 3, 8, and 10.

(11) * GREECE. *n. s.* [corrupted from *degrees*. It is written likewise *greece* or *grice*.] A slight of steps. Obsolete.—

Ev'ry *greece* of fortune
Is smother'd by that below. *Shak.*
—After the procession, the king himself remaining

seated in the quire, the lord archbishop, *greece* of the quire, made a long oration. *Henry VII.*

GREECESTER, a small town of Northumberland. *N. o.* Otterburn.

* GREEDILY. *adv.* [from *greedy*.] ravenously; voraciously; with keen desire.—

Greedy she engorg'd without restraint
He swallow'd it as *greedy*

As parched earth drinks rain.
Ev'n deadly plants, and herbs of poison
Wild hunger seeks; and to prodigious
We *greedy* devour our certain death.

* GREEDINESS. *n. s.* [from *greedy*.] voracity; hunger; eagerness, or desire.—

Fox in stealth, wolf in *greediness*.
—Thither with all *greediness* of ass, she
gone, and there they intend to sup. *Shak.*
Ter's Tale.—

If thou wert the wolf, thy *greediness*
Sift thee. *Shak.*

I with the same *greediness* did
As water when I thirst, to swallow

* GREEDY. *adj.* [from *greedy*, Sax. *greedig*, Dutch.] 1. Ravenous; voracious.—

—As a lion that is *greedy* of his prey.
—Be not unsatiable in any dainty thing
greedy upon meats. *Ecclus. xxxiv.*
the *greedy* ravens to be Elias's caterpillars
him food. *King Charles.* 2. Eager;
desirous. It is now commonly taken
sense.—

Greedy to know, as is the mind of
Their cause of death, swift to the

—The ways of every one that is *greedy* of
Stern look'd the fiend, as frustrated
Not half suffic'd, and *greedy* yet to kill
While the reaper fills his *greedy* bin
And binds the golden sheaves in

—How fearful would he be of all *greedy*
just ways of raising their fortune? *Love*

(1.) GREEK, or GRECIAN, *adj.* In
Greece.

(2.) GREEK BIBLES. See BIBLE, § Y

(3.) GREEK CHURCH, is that part of
an church which is established in Greece
likewise to some other parts of Turkey
It is so called, in contradistinction from the
Romish church; also the *Eastern church*
from the *Western*. The Roman
Greek church the *Greek schism*; because
do not allow the authority of the pope
pend wholly, as to matters of religion
own patriarchs. They have treated the
matics ever since the *revolt*, as they call
patriarch Photius.

(4.) THE GREEK LANGUAGE, as prof
writings of the celebrated authors of
Homer, Hesiod, Demosthenes, Aristophanes,
Xenophon, &c. has a great variety of
expressions, suitable to the genius of
of a polite and learned people, who
for arts and sciences. In it, proper as
nificative; which is the reason that it

borrow so many terms from it. When invention, instrument, machine, or the like is discovered, recourse is generally had to look for a name to it; the facility whereof is there compounded, affording such expressiveness of its use; such are, barometer, thermometer, microscope, telescope, &c. But of medicine most abounds with such a diaphoretic, diagnosis, diarrhoea, hæmorrhage, hydrophobia, phthisis, atrophy, &c. The copiousness and significancy of the language wherein it excels most, if not all, other languages, it has also 3 numbers, viz. a singular, a plural; a number of tenses in its verbs, which makes a variety in discourse, prevents a monotony that always accompanies too great uniformity, and renders that language peculiar for all kinds of verse. The use of the aorist, of the aorists and preterite, together with compound words already mentioned, give it a peculiar force and brevity, without abridgement from its perspicuity. It is difficult to perceive the precise difference between the modern and ancient Greek; which consists in the termination of the nouns, pronouns, verbs, &c. not what obtains between some of the dialects of Italian or Spanish. There are also in the modern Greek many new words, not to be met with in the ancient. We may therefore distinguish three periods of the Greek tongue: the first of which is the time when Constantinople became the capital of the Roman empire; the second lasted from that period to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks; and the third from that time to

GREEK MONKS and NUNS, of whatever order consider St Basil as their founder and common father, and esteem it the highest crime to deviate from his constitutions. There are several beautiful convents with churches, in which the monks perform divine service day and night. The monks are *Cenobites*, or live together, in the same habit, eat at the same table, and observe the same exercises and employments.

GREEK ORDERS, in architecture, are the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian; in contradistinction to the two Latin orders, the Tuscan and Composite. **ARCHITECTURE**, *Index*.

GREEKS, the people of Greece.

GREEKS, CHARACTER OF THE MODERN. Modern Greeks are said to be very covetous, crafty, treacherous, great pederasts, and at the same time revengeful to the highest degree; and superstitious. They are so much despised by the Turks, that these do not value even a Greek as much as a Mahometan. Yet Baron De Tott says, that twenty Greeks, who were natives of Macedonia, defeated eighty Turkish soldiers; and that the killing of the exploits of Alexander, the Trojan War, &c. See his *Memoirs*, volume 2d. The Turks are remarkable for their taciturnity; they never use any unnecessary words: but the Greeks, on the contrary, are very talkative and glibly. The Turks generally practise what religion enjoins, but the Greeks do not; and misery puts them upon a thousand mean and scandalous practices, authorised by hadith, and perpetuated from father to son. The

Greek women have fine features and beautiful complexions: their countenances still very much resemble those of the ancient Greek statues.

(9.) **GREEKS**, HISTORY OF THE. See ATTICA, CONSTANTINOPLE, GREECE, § 5—7, SPARTA, THEBES, &c.

(10.) **GREEKS**, RELIGION AND CLERGY OF THE. Christianity was planted in Greece soon after the death of our Saviour, and flourished there for many ages in great purity; but since the Greeks became subject to the Turkish yoke, they have sunk into the most deplorable ignorance, in consequence of the slavery and thralldom under which they groan, and their religion is now greatly corrupted. It is indeed little better than a heap of ridiculous ceremonies and absurdities. The head of the Greek church is the patriarch of Constantinople; who is chosen by the neighbouring archbishops and metropolitans, and confirmed by the emperor or grand vizir. He is a person of dignity, being the head and director of the eastern church. The other patriarchs are those of Jerusalem, Antioch, and Alexandria. Mr Tournefort tells us, that the patriarchates are now generally set to sale, and bestowed upon those who are the highest bidders. The patriarchs, metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, are always chosen from among the Caloyers or Greek monks. Before the patriarchs receive their patents and the castan, which is a vest of linsey-woolsey, or some other stuff, presented by the grand signior to ambassadors and other persons newly invested with some considerable dignity, they are obliged to make large presents to the vizir, &c. The income of the patriarch of Constantinople is said to amount to no less than 120,000 guilders, of which he pays the one half by way of annual tribute to the Ottoman Porte, adding 6000 guilders as a present at the feast of Bairam. The next person to a bishop among the clergy is an archimandrite, who is the director of one or more convents, which are called *mandren*; then come the abbot, the arch-priest, the priest, the deacon, the under deacon, the chanter, and the lecturer. The secular clergy are subjected to no rules, and never rise higher than high priest. They are allowed to marry once; but it must be with a virgin, and before they are ordained. They have neither glebe nor tythes, but depend on the perquisites that arise from their office; and they seldom preach but in Lent. The Greeks have few nunneries; but many convents of monks, who are all priests, and, students excepted, obliged to follow some handicraft employment, and lead a very austere life. The Greeks deny the supremacy of the pope, and abhor the worship of images; but have many pictures of saints in their churches, whom they pray to as mediators. Their fasts are very severe. They believe also in the doctrine of transubstantiation, and that the Holy Ghost does not proceed from the Son. They admit not of purgatory, says Mr Thevenot: but yet they allow a third place, where they say the blessed remain, in expectation of the day of judgment. At mass they consecrate with leavened bread; and both priests and laymen communicate under both kinds, and women and children as well as men. When they carry the sacrament to the sick, they do not prostrate themselves before it, nor expose it

it to be adored: nor do they carry it in procession, or have any particular feast in honour of it. Baptism is performed among them by plunging the whole body of the child thrice into water. Immediately after baptism, they give it confirmation and the communion; and seven days after that, it undergoes the ceremony of ablation. When a priest is married, among other ceremonies, the bridegroom and bride drink each two glasses of wine; then the glass is given to the priest, who merrily drinks off the rest of the wine, and breaking the glass, says, So may the bridegroom break the virginity of the bride.

(I, i.) * GREEN. *adj.* [*grun*, German; *groen*, Dutch] 1. Having a colour formed commonly by compounding blue and yellow; of the colour of the leaves of trees or herbs. The green colour is said to be most favourable to the sight.—The general colour of plants is *green*, which is a colour that no flower is of: there is a greenish primrose, but it is pale, and scarce a *green*. *Bacon's N. Hist.*

Groves for ever *green*. *Pope.*

2. Pale; sickly: from whence we call the maid's disease the *green sickness*, or *chlorosis*. Like it is *Sappho's* *χλωροεν νωσος*.—

Was the hope drunk

Wherein you drest yourself? Hath it slept since?

And wakes it now to look so *green* and pale

And what it did so freely? *Shak. Macbeth.*

—There's never any of these demure boys come to any proof: they fall into a kind of male *green sickness*. *Shak. Henry IV.*—

'Till the *green sickness* and love's force betray'd

To death's remorseless arms th' unhappy maid.

Garth.

3. Flourishing; fresh; undecayed: from trees in Spring.—If I have any where said a *green* old age, I have Virgil's authority; *Sed cruda deo viridisque senectus*. *Dryden.* 4. New; fresh: as, a *green* wound.—

The door is open, fir; there lies your way:

You may be jogging while your boots are *green*.

Shakespeare.

Griefs are *green*;

And all thy friends, which thou must make thy friends,

Have but their fangs and teeth newly ta'en out.

Shak. Henry IV.

In a vault,

Where bloody Tybalt, yet but *green* in earth,
Lies festering in his blood. *Shak. Rom. and Jul.*

—A man that studieth revenge keepeth his own wounds *green*, which otherwise would heal and do well. *Bacon*.—I might dilate on the temper of the people, the power, arts, and interest of the contrary party, but those are invidious topics, too *green* in our remembrance. *Dryden.* 5. Not dry.—If a spark of error have thus far prevailed falling even where the wood was *green*, and farthest off from any inclination unto furious attempts; must not the peril thereof be greater in men, whose minds are of themselves as dry fuel, apt beforehand unto tumults? *Hooker*.—

Being an olive tree

Which late he sell'd; and being *green*, must be
Made lighter for his manage. *Chapman.*

—Of fragility the cause is an impotency tended, and therefore stone is more brittle than metal, and so dry wood is more fragile than *Bacon's N. H.*—If you but consider a piece of wood burning in a chimney, you will discern, in the disbanded parts of it, the elements. *Boyle*.—The *green* do often heat and the ripe, so heated, give fire to *Mort. Husb.* 6. Not roasted; half ripe: thus head we may rank those words which different ideas, by a sort of an unaccounted fetched analogy, or distant resemblance, has introduced between one thing and another, as when we say the meat is *green*, when roasted. *Hart's Log.* 7. Unripe; immature: because fruits are *green* before they are ripe.

My fallad days,

When I was *green* in judgment, cold

O charming youth, in the first opinion
So many graces in so *green* an age.

You'll find a difference

Between the promise of his *greener* day

And these he masters now. *Shak.*

—If you would fat *green* geese, shut them up: they are about a month old. *Mort. Husb.*

Stubble geese at Michaelmas are laid

Upon the spit, next May produce green

Erg.

(ii.) * GREEN. *a. s.* 1. The *green* colour of different shades.—

Her mother bath intended

That, quaint in *green*, she shall be lovely

But with your presence cheer'd, they
mourn;

And walks wear fresher *green* at your re-

—Cinnabar, illuminated by this beam, appears the same red colour as in day light; and the lens you intercept the *green* making making rays, its redness will become more and lively. *Newton's Optics*.—Let us but mix the two colours of yellow and blue: if mingled together in any considerable proportion they make a *green*. *Hart's Logic.* 2. A plain.—

For this down trodden equity, we're
In warlike march these *greens* before you

O'er the smooth enamel'd *green*,

Where no print of step hath been,

Follow me as I sing.

The young *Æmilie*, fairer to be seen

Than the fair lily on the flow'ry *green*.

3. Leaves; branches; wreaths.—

With *greens* and flow'rs recruit their
hives,

And seek fresh forage to sustain their lives

Ev'ry brow with cheerful *green* is crown'd

The feasts are doubled, and the bowls go

The fragrant *greens* I seek, my brows I

(iii.) GREEN is one of the original primary colours, exhibited by the refraction of the light. See CHROMATICS, § 7; and COLOURS (iv.) G

N, among painters and dyers. See **KING**, *Index*; and **DYEING**, *Part III*.

SEN, in geography, a river of Kentucky, rises in Mercer county, has a gentle is navigable for about 150 miles to

, a river of Vermont, which rises in , and runs into the Connecticut, and in Massachusetts.

, a post town in the district of Maine, e of the Androscoggin, 31 miles W. town, and 39 N. of Portland.

SEN, two townships of Pennsylvania, and Washington counties.

REEN, five English villages: viz. two shire; and one each in Lancashire, and, and Sussex.

EN, Matthew, an English poet of the , born in 1697. He held an office in use. His poem entitled *The Spleen* (kins) is characterised by wit and ori- died in 1737, aged 41.

EN. v. a. [from the noun.] To make w word.—

Great Spring before
the year; and fruits and blossoms
d
weetness on the self-same bough.

Thomson's Spring.

E, a town of Denmark, in N. Jut- is NNE. of Arhuus.

-BRIAR, a fertile and extensive coun- , surrounded by those of Bath, Ran- on, Kanaway, Botetourt, and Mont- is 100 miles long and 45 broad. It 1790, along with Kanaway, (which a part of it,) 5706 citizens, and 309

-BRIAR, a river of the United States, SW. course, and falls into the Kan- t. 38° N.

ROOM. n. f. [*cytiso genista*, Latin.] A

GH, a township of New York, in y; containing 164 electors, 1278 ci- 22 slaves, in 1795.

Y, a small town in Hertfordshire.

H, a township of New York, in Ren-

TLE, a flourishing town of Pennsyl- akin county. It has a Presbyterian man Lutheran churches. It is 11 / of Chambersburg and 156 W. by phia. Lon 2. 33. W. of that city.

INCLOTH. n. f. A board or court of n the counting-house of the king's the taking cognizance of all matters t and justice within the king's court- correcting all the servants that shall —For the *greencloth* law, take it in se, I have no opinion of it. *Bacon.*
-CLOTH, BOARD OF, is composed teward and officers under him, who is court has power to maintain the verge, or jurisdiction of the court- is every way about 200 yards from

the last gate of the palace where his majesty re- sides. It takes its name from a green cloth spread over the board where they sit. Without a warrant first obtained from this court, none of the king's servants can be arrested for debt.

(3.) **GREEN-CLOTH, CLERKS OF THE**, were two officers of the board of green cloth, who appoint- ed the diet of the king and his household; and kept all records, ledgers, and papers relating there- to; made up bills, parcels, and debentures for salaries, and provisions and necessaries for the of- ficers of the buttery, pantry, cellar, &c. They also waited upon foreign princes when entertained by his majesty. But this was abolished in 1782.

(1.) **GREENE**, Edward Burnaby, an English poet of considerable merit, who published trans- lations of Anacreon and Pindar, with several origi- nal poems and plays. He died in 1788.

(2.) **GREENE**, a county of Georgia, bounded on the E. by Wilkes and S. by Washington counties; and on the W. and N. by the Oconee. It cou- tained 4028 citizens, and 1377 slaves, in 1795. Greensborough is the capital.

(3.) **GREENE**, a county of Kentucky, bounded by Hardin and Jefferson counties on the E. the state of Tennessee on the S. the Mississippi on the W. and the Ohio on the N.

(4.) **GREENE**, a township of New York, in Tioga county, on the E. side of the Chenengo.

(5.) **GREENE**, a county of Tennessee, in Wash- ington district, containing, in 1795, 7287 citizens, and 454 slaves.

* **GREENEYED. adj.** [*green* and *eye*.] Having eyes coloured with green.—

Doubtful thoughts, and rash embrac'd despair,
And shudd'ring fear, and *greeney'd* jealousy.

Shak.

(1.) **GREENFIELD**, a township of Massachu- setts, in Hampshire county, on the W. coast of the Connecticut, containing 1498 citizens in 1790.

(2.) **GREENFIELD**, a flourishing town in the a- bove township, 4 miles N. of Deerfield, and 114 W. by N. of Boston.

(3.) **GREENFIELD**, a town of New York, in Sa- ratoga county. It had 380 electors in 1795.

(4, 5.) **GREENFIELD**, two villages of England, in Lincolnshire and Oxfordshire.

(L) * **GREENFINCH. n. f.** [*chloris*.] A kind of bird.—The chaffinch, *greenfinch*, dormouse, and other small birds, are injurious to some fruits. *Mortimer.*

(2.) **GREEN-FINCH**, in ornithology, the English name of the greenish *fringilla*, with the wings and tail variegated with yellow. See **FRINGILLA**, N° 12.

(1.) * **GREENFISH. n. f.** [*asellus*, Lat.] A kind of fish. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) **GREEN-FISH.** See **ONISCUS**.

* **GREENGAGE. n. f.** A species of plum.

(1.) **GREENHOLM**, one of the Orkney isles, 14 miles SW. of Eda.

(2.) **GREENHOLM**, one of the Shetland islands, 10 miles NNW. of Lerwick.

(1.) * **GREENHOUSE. n. f.** [*green* and *house*.] A house in which tender plants are sheltered from the weather.—If the season prove exceeding pier- cing, which you may know by the freezing of a moistened cloth set in your *greenhouse*, kindle some charcoal.

charcoal. *Berlyn's Kalendar*.—Sometimes our road led us into several hollow apartments among the rocks and mountains, that look like so many natural greenhouses, as being always shaded with a great variety of trees and shrubs that never lose their verdure. *Addison*.—A kitchen garden is a more pleasing sight than the finest orangery or artificial greenhouse. *Spektor*.

(2.) A GREEN-HOUSE, or CONSERVATORY, is a house in a garden, contrived for sheltering and preserving the most curious and tender exotic plants, which in our climate will not bear to be exposed to the open air, especially during the winter season. These are generally large and beautiful structures, equally ornamental and useful. Their length must be proportioned to the number of plants intended to be preserved in them, and cannot therefore be reduced to rule: but their depth should never be greater than their height in the clear; which, in small or middling houses, may be 16 or 18 feet, but in large ones from 20 to 24 feet; and the length of the windows should reach from about one foot and a half above the pavement, and within the same distance of the ceiling, which will admit of a cornice round the building over the heads of the windows. Their breadth cannot be in proportion to their length; for if in the largest buildings they are more than 7 or 7½ feet broad, they will be extremely inconvenient. The piers between the windows must be as narrow as may be to support the building; for which reason they should either be of stone or of hard burnt bricks. If the piers are made of stone, they should be 30 inches wide in front, and sloped off behind to about 18 inches, by which means there will be no corners to take off the rays of the sun. If they are of brick, they will require to be at least 3 feet in front, but they should be in the same manner sloped off behind. Over the greenhouse may be rooms for drying and preserving seeds, roots, &c. and behind it a place for tools and other purposes; and both those behind, and the rooms above, will be of great use in keeping off the frosts, so that the wall between them need not be of more than two bricks and a half in thickness. The floor of the greenhouse, which should be laid either with Bremen squares, Purbeck stone, or flat tiles, must be raised two feet above the surface of the adjoining ground, or if the situation be damp, at least 3 feet; and if the whole is arched with low brick arches under the floor, they will be of great service in preventing damp; and under the floor, about two feet from the front, it will be advisable to make a flue of ten inches wide and two feet deep; this should be carried the whole length of the house, and then returned back along the hinder part, and there be carried up into funnels adjoining to the tool-house, by which the smoke may be carried off. The fire-place may be contrived at one end of the house, and the door at which the fuel is put in, as also the ash grate, may be contrived to open into the tool house, and the fuel being laid in the same place, the whole will be out of sight. *Bridley* advises, that the front of green houses, in the colder parts of England, be built in a sweep or semicircle, so that one part or other of it may receive the sun's rays all day. The use of fires must,

however, be very sparing in this place; one winter in 3 or 4 will require them only when the weather is very severe; frost cannot well be kept out any other way, is an expedient that is good to have in as it may save a whole house of plants; the side of the windows, in front of the house, there should be good strong shutters, with hinges, to fold back close to the piers, may not obstruct the rays of the sun. The part of the house should be either built of stucco or plastered with mortar, and in order to prevent the frosty air from passing through the walls. When the greenhouse is wainscotted, the walls should be painted with lime and hair behind the wainscot, to keep out the cold; and the wainscot, as well as the ceiling and every part within the house, should be painted white, to reflect the sun's rays. There should be a number of trellises with forms of plants, to be placed hindmost, the lowest of the windows; and the rows of plants should rise gradually, so that the heads of the plants should be entirely above the first row; and between them there should be a space of at least 18 inches, for the convenience of watering the plants, and for the free circulation of the air. The plants which should be placed in the greenhouse are, phorbia, cereuses, and other succulent plants, among orange trees, and other common house plants, is always destructive, making them receive an improper heat, which plants of that kind imbibed very much. They should therefore be placed in two wings at the end of the green house; which, if well managed, will be a great beauty, as well as of use in wintering. These wings may be made capable of receiving warmth also by more flues, and may contain a hot-bed of tanner's bark, many of the tender plants, natives of warm countries. Whilst the front of the greenhouse is facing south, one of the wings may be facing the SE. and the other the SW. By this the heat of the sun is reflected from one wing to the other all day, and the main green-house is guarded from winds. These two wings may be so contrived as to maintain plants of different degrees of heat, which may be easily effected by the extent of the fire-place, and the manner of conducting the flues: the wing facing the south is the most proper for the warmest plants; it may be divided in the middle by a wall of glass, with glass doors opening from one wing to the other. In each of these there is a fire-place, with flues carried up again to the roof, through which the smoke should pass as many times the length of it as the height will admit of the number of flues the longer that the smoke is in passing the more heat will be given to the house with a less quantity of fuel. The other wing, facing the north, should be divided and furnished with flues in a different manner; and thus different degrees of heat may be obtained, according to the seasons, and the particular sorts of plants that are to be preserved. There are no shades behind these wings, but they should not be less than three bricks thick.

k part, having sloping roofs, which are covered with tiles or slates, should be lined with reeds, under the covering. The sloping glasses of the houses should be made to slide and take off, that they may be drawn down more or less in warm weather to admit air to the plants; and upright glasses in front may be so contrived as that every other may open as doors upon hinges, the alternate glasses may be divided into two: the upper part of each should be so contrived as to be drawn down like shades, so that either of them may be used to admit air, in a greater or less quantity as there may be occasion. As to the management of the plants, Mortimer recommends turning the mould about them from time to time, sprinkling a little fresh mould in them, and a little warm dung on that; as also to water them when the leaves begin to wither and curl, and to use a little oil, which would make them fade and be dry; and to take off such leaves as wither and become dry.

GREENISH. *adj.* [from *green*.] Somewhat green; tending to green.—

With goodly *greenish* locks, all loose, unty'd,
Each had been a bride. *Spenser.*

In this order the green of all vegetables seems to arise, partly by reason of the intenseness of their colour, and partly because, when they wither, some of them turn to a *greenish* yellow. *Newton.*

1.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an island of England, on the coast of Dorsetshire, near Poole.

2.) **GREEN ISLAND**, the name of two isles in Ireland; 1. in Carlingford Bay: 2. on the coast of Donaghadee: both included in Down county.

3.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an isle on the coast of Holland, 12 miles ENE. of Cape Grafton.

4.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an island on the W. end of Jamaica. It has a harbour with good anchorage.

5.) **GREEN ISLAND**, one of the VIRGIN ISLES.

6.) **GREENLAND**, a general name given to the most easterly parts of America, stretching towards the north pole, and comprehending some islands to the N. of Europe, lying in very high latitudes. This country is divided into West and East Greenland.

GREENLAND, EAST, was long considered as a part of the continent of West Greenland, but is now discovered to be an assemblage of islands lying between $76^{\circ} 46'$ and $80^{\circ} 30'$ lat. N. and between 9° and 20° lon. E. It was discovered by Hugh Willoughby in 1553, who called it **GREENLAND**; supposing it to be a part of the European continent. In 1595, it was again visited by William Barentz and John Cornelius, two Dutchmen, who pretended to be the original discoverers, and called the country **SPITZBERGEN**, from the many sharp-pointed and rocky mountains with which it abounds. They alleged that the coast discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby was some other country; which accordingly the Hollanders delineated on their maps and charts by the name of *Willoughby Land*; whereas in fact no such land ever existed; and long before the voyage of these Dutchmen, Steven Barrow, an English shipmaster, had coasted along a desolate country from Lat. 78° to $80^{\circ} 11'$, which was undoubtedly Spitzbergen. The

sea in the neighbourhood of the islands of Spitzbergen abounds very much with whales. It is the common resort of the whale-fishing ships from different countries, and the country itself is frequently visited by these ships; but till the late voyage of Capt. Phipps, by order of his Majesty, the situation of it was erroneously laid down. It was imagined that the land stretched to the northward as far as 82° N. lat. but Capt. Phipps found the most northerly point of land, called *Seven Islands*, not to exceed $8^{\circ} 30'$. Towards the E. he saw other lands at a distance, so that Spitzbergen plainly appeared to be surrounded by water on that side, and not joined to the continent of Asia, as former navigators had supposed. He also explored the N. and W. coasts, but was prevented by the ice from sailing so far N. as he wished. The coast appeared neither habitable nor accessible. It is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the least marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed; in others covered with snow, appearing even above the clouds. The valleys between the high cliffs were filled with snow and ice. "This prospect," says Capt. Phipps, "would have suggested the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildness of the weather, the smooth water, bright sun shine, and constant day-light, given a cheerfulness and novelty to the whole of this romantic scene." The current ran along this coast half a knot an hour north. The height of one mountain seen here was found by geometrical mensuration to be $1503\frac{1}{2}$, or $1503\frac{1}{8}$ feet. By a barometer constructed after De Luc's method, the height was found to be $1588\frac{1}{2}$ feet. On this occasion Capt. Phipps remarks, "I cannot account for the great difference between the geometrical measure and the barometrical according to M. de Luc's calculation, which amounts to $84\frac{1}{2}$ feet. I have no reason to doubt the accuracy of Dr Irving's observations, which were made with great care. As to the geometrical measure, the agreement of so many triangles, each of which must have discovered even the smallest error, is the most satisfactory proof of its correctness. Since my return I have tried both the theodolite and barometer, to discover whether there was any fault in either; and find them, upon trial, as I had always done before, very accurate." There is good anchorage in Schmeerenburgh harbour, lying in Lat. $74^{\circ} 44'$ N. Lon. $9^{\circ} 50' 45''$ E. in 13 fathom, sandy bottom, near the shore, and well sheltered from all winds. Close to this harbour is an island called *Amsterdam Island*, where the Dutch used formerly to boil their whale-oil; and the remains of some conveniency erected by them for that purpose are still visible. The Dutch ships still resort to this place for the latter season of the whale-fishery. The stone about this place is chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolves easily in the marine acid. There were no appearances of minerals of any kind, nor any signs of ancient or modern volcanoes. No insects, or any species of reptiles, were seen, not even the common earth worm. There were no springs or rivers; but plenty of water was produced from the snow which melted on the mountains. The most remarkable views which these dreary regions present are those called *Icebergs*. They are large

bodies of ice filling the valleys between the high mountains. Their face towards the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light green colour. One was about 300 feet high, with a cascade of water issuing from it. The black mountains on each side, the white snow, and greenish coloured ice, composed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noise into the water. One piece was observed to have floated out into the bay, and grounded in 24 fathoms; it was 50 feet high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour with the iceberg from which it had separated. These islands are totally uninhabited, though it doth not appear but that human creatures could subsist on them, notwithstanding their vicinity to the pole. Eight English sailors, who were accidentally left here by a whale-fishing ship, survived the winter, and were brought home next season. The Dutch then attempted to settle a colony on Amsterdam island above mentioned; but all the people perished, not through the severity of the climate, but of the scurvy, owing to the want of those remedies which are now happily discovered, and which are found to be so effectual in preventing and curing that dreadful disease.—The late account also of six Russian sailors who staid four years in this inhospitable country, affords a decisive proof, that a colony might be settled on East Greenland, provided the doing so could answer any good purpose.

II. GREENLAND, WEST, is now determined by our latest maps to be a part of the continent of America. That part of it, which the Europeans have any knowledge of, is bounded on the W. by Baffin's Bay, on the S. by Davis's Straits, and on the E. by the northern part of the Atlantic Ocean. It is very mountainous, and some parts of it are so high, that they can be discerned 30 leagues off at sea. The inland mountains, hills, and rocks, are covered with perpetual snow; but the low lands on the sea side are clothed with verdure in summer. The coast abounds with inlets, bays, and large rivers; and is surrounded with a vast number of islands of different dimensions. In many places, however, on the E. coast especially, the shore is inaccessible by reason of the floating mountains of ice. The principal river, called *Baal*, falls into the sea in Lat. 64° where the first Danish lodge was built in 1721; and has been navigated above 40 miles up the country.

(1.) GREENLAND, ACCOUNT OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENT AT. West Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the 8th century, when a company of Icelanders, headed by one Eric Rande, or Ronx, a Norwegian, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of GROENLAND, or *Greenland*, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Christianity by Bp. Arnald, a missionary from Norway, sent thither by the celebrated OLAF, or OLAVS, the first Norwegian monarch who embraced the true religion, about A.D. 1203. The Greenland settle-

ment continued to increase and thrive in proportion, and in a short time the country was provided with many towns, churches, schools, bishops, &c. under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway, and a regular intercourse maintained till the death of Andreas the last bishop was sent over. At that time all correspondence was cut off, and the intercourse of Greenland has been buried in obscurity. This strange and abrupt cessation of all intercourse has been attributed to various causes, but the most probable is the following: The colony, from its first settlement, had been inhabited by the natives, a barbarous and fierce people, agreeing in customs, garb, and appearance to the *ESQUIMAUX*. The nation, called the *ESQUIMAUX*, exterminated the Iceland settlers, who had inhabited the western district, in the 11th century, so that when the brethren of the colony came to their assistance, they found not only the natives, but some cattle and flocks of sheep remaining about the country. They themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were destroyed by these *Schrellings*, whose remains still inhabit the western parts of Greenland. From tradition say, that the houses, whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by strangers, whom their ancestors had driven from East Greenland. Mr. Crantz says, "the colony was found to be still existing in 1540." One would imagine that there had been some considerable alteration in the country since the 15th century, so that the coast of Greenland is now become almost totally inaccessible, though formerly visited with very little. It is also natural to ask, by what means the people of the eastern colony surmounted the above mentioned obstacles when they sought the assistance of their western friends; how they returned to their own country; and how our historians learned the success of their mission? Concerning all this we have very little satisfactory information. All that can be gleaned from the most authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called *West* and *East*: that the western division contained 4 parishes and 100 villages; that the eastern district was still more flourishing, as being more fertile, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway. There are also accounts, though most of them romantic, which render it probable that the eastern colony still subsists, who, at one time or other, may have given the imperfect information above mentioned. This colony comprised extensive parishes, 190 villages, a bishopric, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of the eastern part, from which they are divided by high mountains and deserts, and still more

apprehensions: for they believe the easterners to be a cruel, barbarous people, who devour and eat all strangers who fall into their hands.

GREENLAND, ACCOUNTS OF OTHER ATTEMPTS TO COLONIZE. About 1570, several expeditions were sent successively by the kings of Denmark to discover the eastern district; but they all failed. Among these adventurers, Magnus, or Helmsen, after having surmounted many dangers, got sight of the land; which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he reported that the ship was arrested in the middle of the strait by rocks of loadstone at the bottom of the sea. In 1576, Capt. Martin Frobisher was sent on the same errand by Q. Elizabeth. He likewise discovered the land; but could not reach it, and returned to England; yet not before he had sailed sixty leagues in the strait which still bears his name, and landed on several islands, where he had some communication with the natives. He had likewise taken possession of the land in the name of Q. Elizabeth; and brought home several pieces of heavy black stone, from which the miners of London extracted a proportion of silver. In the ensuing spring, he undertook a second voyage, at the head of a small squadron, equipped at the public expence; entered the straits a second time, discovered upon an island a gold and silver mine, and named upon different bays, islands, and mountains; and brought away a lading of furs, and other commodities. He was accompanied by two natives, a male and a female, who were English kidnapped. Encouraged by this success, another armament was fitted out under the command of Martin Frobisher, consisting of 15 sail, with a considerable number of soldiers, miners, smelters, and bakers, to remain all the winter in the mines in a wooden fort, the difficulties of which they carried out in the summer. They met with boisterous weather, thick fogs, and violent currents upon the coast of Greenland, which retarded their operations until the season was far advanced. Part of the wooden fort was lost at sea; and they were short of provisions and fuel sufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to remove the large quantities out of a new mine, and to procure as much ore as he could procure; of this he gave the name of *the Countess of Suffolk*. He likewise built a house of stone and lime, and here, to conciliate the affections of the natives, they left a quantity of small morrises, knives, beads, looking-glasses, leaden and other toys, together with several barrels of bread. They buried the timber of the ship, so that it could be easily found next year; and sowed peas, and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken these precautions, they sailed in the beginning of September; and after a stormy passage, arrived in England: but Frobisher was never prosecuted. Christian IV. of Denmark, being desirous of discovering a Greenland settlement, sent three ships under Capt. Godske Lindenow; who in 1605 reached the E. coast of Greenland, and traded with the savage inhabitants, but found no signs of a civilized people. Had he actually landed in the eastern division, he must have perceived some remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the same cruel fraud was practised by other two ships which sailed into Davis's Straits, where they discovered divers fine harbours and delightful meadows covered with verdure. In some places they are said to have found a considerable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded 26 oz. of silver. Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to the coast of Greenland in 1606, directing his course to the W. of Cape Farewell. He coasted along Davis's Straits; and having made some observations on the face of the country, the harbours and islands, returned to Denmark. Carsten Richards, being detached with two ships on the same observation, discovered the high land on the E. side of Greenland; but was hindered by the ice from approaching the shore. Other expeditions have been planned and executed with the same bad success, by a Danish company of merchants. Two ships returned from W. Greenland, loaded with yellow sand, supposed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being assayed by the goldsmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as useless, and thrown overboard: but from a small quantity of this sand, which was reserved as a curiosity, an expert chemist afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain, who brought home this adventure, was so chagrined at his disappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the sand had been discovered. In 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a vessel under the command of David de Nelles, who sailed to the W. coast of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made, by order of the Danish king for the discovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland; but all of them miscarried, and people began to look upon such expeditions as chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway, transported a colony to the W. coast, about Lat. 64°, which sailed in 1712, accompanied by the Rev. Hans Egede, to whose ability and accuracy, we are indebted for the best and most authentic account of modern Greenland. He endeavoured to reach the eastern district, by coasting southwards, and advanced as far as the States Promontory; but the season of the year and the continual storms, obliged him to return. In 1724, a ship equipped by the company, sailed on this discovery, with a view to land on the East side opposite to Iceland; but the vast shoals of ice, which barricaded that part of the coast, rendered this scheme impracticable. In 1728, Christian VI. caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in hopes that the settlers might travel over land to the eastern district; but the icy mountains were impassable. Lieutenant Richards, in a ship, which had wintered near the new Danish colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eastern shore; but all his endeavours proved abortive. Mr Egede says, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coast north-about

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in small vessels, between the great flakes of ice and the shore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually rushing from the bays and inlets, and running SW. along the shore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; so that there is always a channel open, through which vessels of small burden might pass, especially if lodges were built at convenient distances on the shore, for the direction of the adventurers.

(4.) GREENLAND, CLIMATE AND GENERAL APPEARANCE OF. That part of the country which is now visited and settled by the Danes and Norwegians, lies between 64° and 68° lat. N.; and thus far it is said the climate is temperate. In summer, which continues from the end of May to the middle of Sept. the weather is warm and comfortable, while the wind blows easterly; though even at this time storms often rage with incredible violence; and in calm weather, the coasts are infested with fogs that are equally disagreeable and unhealthy. Near the shore, and in the bays and inlets, the low land is clothed with the most charming verdure: but the inland mountains are perpetually covered with ice and snow. To the N. of Lat. 68° , the cold is prodigiously intense; and towards the end of August, all the coast is covered with ice, which never thaws till April or May, and sometimes not till the end of June. Nothing can exhibit a more grand and dazzling appearance, than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the coast in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the sun beams, in calm weather; but when the wind blows, and the waves rise in vast billows, the violent shocks of these pieces of ice dashing against one another fill the mind with horror. Greenland is seldom visited with thunder and lightning, but the *Aurora Borealis* is very frequent and bright. At the time of new and full moon, the tide rises and falls upon this coast about three fathoms; and it is remarkable, that the springs and fountains on shore rise and fall with the flux and reflux of the ocean.

(5.) GREENLAND, INHABITANTS AND DISEASES OF. This country is but thinly inhabited. The people who now inhabit the western coast of Greenland, and who, without doubt, are the descendants of the ancient *Schrellings*, who exterminated the first Iceland colony, (see § ii.) bear a near resemblance to the Samoiedes and Laplanders in their persons, complexions and way of life. They are stout, brawny, and inclined to corpulency; with broad faces, flat noses, and thick lips, black hair and eyes, and a yellowish tawny complexion. They are for the most part vigorous and healthy, but short-lived; few of them reaching the grand climacteric; and many dying in infancy, and youth. They are subject to a weakness in the eyes, occasioned by the piercing winds and the glare of the snow. The leprosy is known among them, but is not contagious. Those that dwell in the northern parts are tormented with dysenteries, rheums, pulmonary disorders, boils, and epilepsies. The small-pox being imported from Copenhagen, in 1734, made terrible havoc among these poor people, who are utterly destitute of any knowledge of the medical art, and depend entirely for assistance upon their *angskuts* or conjurers.

(6.) GREENLAND, LANGUAGE AND MANNERS OF THE NATIVES OF. All the Greenlanders hitherto discovered speak the same language, different dialects prevail in different parts of the country. It abounds with double consonants, is so guttural, that the pronunciation of words is not to be learned except by those who have been accustomed to it from their infancy. The letters C, D, F, Q, and X, are not in their alphabet. Like the North American inhabitants of Kamtschatka, they have a great number of long polysyllables. Their words, as well as verbs, are inflected at the end by the terminations, without the help of prepositions, but their language being defective, they adopted many words from the Norwegian, notwithstanding the endeavours of the missionaries, they have no great reason for their proselytes among the natives. They pay great respect to the Danes, whom they regard as their masters, and hear the truths of Christian religion expounded without doubt of the racy of their teachers, but at the same time without understanding them. They believe in the immortality of the soul; as well as in the evil spirit whom they call *Tornagarjuk*, but they have formed the most ridiculous notions of *Angskuts*, who are supposed to be his ministers, differ concerning the principles of his existence; some affirming that he is without shape; others, that he has the shape of a man; others, that he has a large human body, one arm; while others affirm that he is smaller than a man's finger, with many other absurdities. They have also a peculiar kind of magic by which they believe all the elements of spirits, from among which each of the phets is supplied with a familiar, named *Angskut*, who is always ready when summoned to his assistance.

(7.) GREENLAND, MANNERS, CHARACTER AND CUSTOMS OF THE NATIVES OF. In this country the people dwell in huts built of stone or turf, on one side are the windows, covered with seals or rein-deer. These huts are seldom more than two ells above the surface of the ground, the rest of them being sunk in the earth for defence against wind and cold. Several families dwell in one of these houses, possessing each a separate apartment, before which is a hearth with a lamp placed on a tripod, over which is a kettle: above is a rack or shelf on which clothes are dried. They burn train oil lamps; and instead of wick, they use moss, which fully answers the purpose. Their fires are not only sufficient to heat the house but likewise produce such a heat, that the house is like a bagnio. The door is so contrived, that as little cold air as possible may be admitted. The house within is lined with old skins rounded with benches for the convenience of the natives. In summer they dwell in tents made of poles fixed in a conical form, covered with deer's skins, and on the outside with skins, dressed so that the rain cannot penetrate. In their dispositions the Greenlanders are phlegmatic, indolent, and slow of spirit.

ry quiet, orderly, and good-natured. In affection, they seem to equal the natives warmest climates. Two of them were carried and brought to Denmark; but thought by the king and court, to the utmost, quite unhappy; and one of them always upon seeing an infant in its mother's arms, it was concluded, that he had left a wife young child in Greenland. They live peaceably together, and having every thing in common, without strife, envy, or animosity. They are hospitable, but slovenly to a degree almost beyond extent. They never wash themselves with water; but lick their paws like the cat, and then rub their faces with them. They eat after their manner without washing their dishes; devour the victuals as they devour them; and even lick the sweat, they scrape off from their faces with their hands. The women wash themselves with their urine, which they imagine makes their hair grow; and in winter, go out immediately after, the liquor freeze upon their skin. They strip their victuals off the ground, and devour the flesh with avidity. In times of scarcity they subsist on pieces of old skin, reeds, sea weeds, root called *tugloronet*, dressed with train oil. The intestines of rein deer, the entrails of birds, and all sorts of offals, are counted as among these savages; and of the scrapings of skins they make pan-cakes. At first, they did not taste the Danish provisions without abhorrence; but now they are become extremely fond of bread and butter, though they still retain their aversion to tobacco and spirituous liquors; in particular they differ from almost all savages in the face of the earth. The Greenlanders content themselves with one wife; who is valued, as among other savage nations, to do all the drudgery, and may be corrected, or even repulsed, by the husband at pleasure. Heroes, warriors, and extraordinary personages, are distinguished with a plurality of wives. Their young women are generally chaste and bashful; but at some of their feasts, in the midst of their jollity, a man will sit with his neighbour's wife behind a curtain of skins; and all the guests, thus coupled, sit in their turns. The women think themselves happy if an angelut or prophet will thus honour them with his caresses. These people marry within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity, nor is it counted decent in a couple to whom have been educated in the same family. They have a number of ridiculous superstitious customs. While a woman is in labour, they hold a chamber-pot over her head, as a charm to hasten the delivery. When the child is born, the mother licks and slabs it all over to render it, as she imagines, more strong and

GREENLAND, METHODS OF HUNTING AND FISHING. The Greenlanders are constantly employed either in fishing or hunting. At sea they catch the whales, morse, seals, fish for eating, and fowls. On shore they hunt the rein-deer in different parts of the country. They drive these animals, which feed in large herds, into a narrow strait, where they kill them with arrows. Their boats are made of fir tree, wound about with the

twisted sinews of animals: the string is of the same stuff, or of seal skin: the arrow is a full fathom in length, pointed with a bearded iron, or a sharp bone; but those with which they kill birds are blunt, that they may not tear the flesh. Sea fowls they kill with lances, which they throw to a great distance with surprising dexterity. Their manner of catching whales is quite different from that practised by the Europeans. About 50 persons, men and women, set out in one long boat, which is called a *kone boat*, from *kone* a woman, because it is rowed by females only. When they find a whale, they strike him with harpoons, to which are fastened with long lines some seals skins blown up like bladders. These, by floating on the surface, not only discover the back of the whale, but hinder him from diving under water for any length of time. They continue to pursue him until he loses strength, when they pierce him with spears and lances till he expires. On this occasion they are clad in their spring coats consisting of one piece, with gloves, boots, and caps of seal-skin so closely laced and sewed that they keep out water. Thus accoutred, they leap into the sea; and begin to slice off the fat, even under water, before the whale is dead.—They have many different ways of killing seals; namely, by striking them with a small harpoon equipped also with an air-bag; by watching them when they come to breathe at the air-holes in the ice, and striking them with spears; by approaching them in the disguise of their own species, that is, covered with a seal-skin, creeping upon the ice, and moving the head from side to side as the seals are accustomed to do. By this stratagem the Greenlander moves towards the unsuspecting seal, and kills him with a spear. The Greenlanders angle with lines made of whale-bone cut very small, by means of which they succeed wonderfully. The Greenland canoe, like that used in Nova Zembla and Hudson's bay, is about three fathoms in length, pointed at both ends, and three quarters of a yard in breadth. It is composed of thin rafts fastened together with the sinews of animals. It is covered with dressed seal-skins both below and above, in such a manner that only a circular hole is left in the middle, large enough to admit the body of one man. Into this the Greenlander thrusts himself up to the waist, and fastens the skin so tight about him that no water can enter. Thus secured, and armed with a paddle broad at both ends, he will venture out to sea in the most stormy weather to catch seals and sea fowl; and if he is overset, he can easily raise himself by means of his paddle. A Greenlander in one of these canoes, which was brought with him to Copenhagen, outstripped a pinnace of 16 oars, manned with choice mariners.—The *kone-boat* is made of the same materials, but more durable; and so large, that it will contain 50 persons with all their tackle, baggage, and provisions. She is fitted with a mast, which carries a triangular sail made of the membranes and entrails of seals, and is managed without the help of braces and bowlings. These *kones* are flat bottomed, and sometimes 60 feet in length. The men think it beneath them to take notice of them; and therefore they are left to the conduct of the women, who indeed are obliged to do all the drudgery.

drudgery, including even the building and repairing their houses, while the men employ themselves wholly in preparing their hunting implements and fishing tackle.

(9.) **GREENLAND, MINERALS OF.** Greenland is thought to contain many mines of metal, though none of them are wrought. To the southward of the Danish colony are some appearances of a mine of copper. Mr Egede received a lump of ore from one of the natives; and here he found calamine of a yellow colour. He sent a considerable quantity of sand of a yellow colour, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, to the Bergen company. They probably found their account in this present; for they desired him by a letter to procure as much of that sand as possible; but he was never able to find the place where he saw the first specimen. It was one of the smallest among a great number of small islands; and the mark he had set up was blown down by a violent storm. Possibly this might be the same mineral of which Captain Probissher brought so much to England. This country produces rock crystals both red and white, and whole mountains of the *asbestos* or *incombustible flax*. Around the colony, which is called *Good Hope*, they find a kind of bastard marble of various colours, which the natives form into bowls, lamps, pots, &c.

(10.) **GREENLAND, QUADRUPEDES, BIRDS, FISH, &c. OF.** The animals which abound most in Greenland are, rein-deer, foxes, hares, dogs, and white bears. The hares are white, and very fat; the foxes are white, greyish, and bluish; and smaller than those of Denmark and Norway. The natives keep a great number of dogs, which are large, white, or speckled, and rough, with upright ears. They are timorous and stupid; and neither bay, nor bark, but sometimes howl dimly. The natives yoke them in sledges; which, though heavy laden, they will draw on the ice at the rate of 70 miles in a short winter's day. These poor animals are very ill rewarded for their service: being left to provide for themselves, except when their masters happen to catch a great number of seals, when they are regaled with the blood and entrails. Greenland is frequented by great numbers of ravens, eagles of a prodigious size, falcons, and other birds of prey; besides a kind of linnets, which warble very melodiously. Whales, sword fish, porpoises, sea cows, sea wolves, &c. abound on the coasts; also holybuts, turbot, cod, haddocks, &c. The dubious animals also, called *mermaids*, *sea serpents*, and *krakens*, said to be found on the coast of Norway, are said likewise to dwell in these seas. Mr Egede assures us, that, in 1734, the sea serpent was seen off the new Danish colony, and raised its head mast high above the surface of the water. See **KRAKEN, MERMAID, and SERPENT.**

(11.) **GREENLAND, SOIL AND PRODUCE OF.** The soil varies like that of all other mountainous countries. The hills are barren, being frozen throughout the whole year; but the valleys and low grounds, especially near the sea, are rich and fruitful. The ancient Norwegian chronicles inform us, that Greenland formerly produced a great number of cattle; that considerable quantities of butter and cheese were exported to Nor-

way, and, on account of their peculiarity, set apart for the king's use; that of the country yielded excellent wheat, large oaks were found here, which grew as big as apples. Some of these oaks were in the southern parts, and in many marks of ploughed land are easily perceived. At present, however, the country is desolate, and cattle, though in many places it is excellent pasture; and, if properly cultivated, perhaps yield grain also. Mr Egede found barley near a bay adjoining to the sea. It sprang up so fast, that by the end of the summer it was in full ear; but being nipped by a frost, never arrived at maturity. Turneps are of an excellent taste and flavour are also here. The sides of the mountains are clothed with wild thyme, which is fragrant to a great distance. The beet is very common in this country, and others not described by botanists. The fruits of Greenland are juniper berries, rice, bil-berries, and bramble-berries. It has been said of the fertility of Greenland, that it must be understood of that part between lat. 60° and 65°. The more parts are totally destitute of herbs and even of grass.

(12.) **GREENLAND, TRADE TO, AND RESPECTING IT.** A joint stock of 40,000 £ statute to be raised by subscribers, was incorporated for 14 years from the first of 1693, under the name of the **GREENLAND COMPANY**. They were empowered to employ ships of catching whales, &c. into and from the Greenland seas; and to make laws for the government of the persons employed on their ships, &c. Stat. 4 and 5; Will. III. The Company was farther encouraged by an act in 1696; but partly by unskilful management, and partly by real losses, it was necessary of breaking up, before the end of the term assigned to it, ending in 1707. A person who will adventure to Greenland fishing, shall have all the privileges granted the Greenland company, by 1 Anne, cap. 16. thus the trade was again laid open. As may import whale-fins, oil, &c. of fish the Greenland seas, without paying any duty &c. stat. 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. And ship-owners in the Greenland fishery are to be licensed, provided with boats, so many fishing lines, harping irons, &c. and be allowed to proceed; and on their return shall be per ton bounty, for whale-fins, &c. 16 Geo. II. cap. 33. The bounty was increased, but has been lately diminished since this diminution the trade has increased. **WHALE-FISHERY.**

(II.) **GREENLAND**, a town of English county, and parish of Hambledon.

(III.) **GREENLAND**, a town of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county, near the coast, of Portsmouth, containing 634 citizens. **GREENLANDERS**, the natives of Greenland. See **GREENLAND**, N° I, § 5—7; also C III, § 11.

(1.) **GREENLAW**, [from *Green* and *law*]

cal hill.] a parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, it 7½ miles long from N. to S. and 2 broad on average. The surface on the N. is mountainous, on the W. mossy. The climate and soil very various. One half of the parish is inclosed, two thirds of it are arable. The air is healthy and except on the hills, mild. Agriculture, fowls, and the breed of cattle are much improved. Wheat, barley, oats, pease, turnips, clover, and rye-grass are produced in great quantities. The population in 1785, stated by the Rev. W. Simson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1,210, and had increased 315, within 30 years ending. The number of horses, in 1792, was 1,500, and of black cattle 850. Mr. Simson proposes to add to the improvement of the parish, by inclosing and cultivating the lower parts of the hills and planting trees on the higher.

GREENLAW, a town in the above parish, 20 miles WSW. of Berwick, 20 W. of Edinburgh, 36 SE. of Edinburgh, and 80 from Glasgow. The population in 1785, was about 1,200. Greenlaw has fairs on the 22d May and last day in Oct.

GREENLEIGHTON, a village of Northumberland, 10 W. of Morpeth.

GREENLY. *adv.* [from *green*.] 1. With a green colour. 2. Newly; freshly. 3. Immature. 4. Wanly; timidly. Not in use.—Kate, do not look *greenly*, nor gasp out my eloquence; have I cunning in protestation. *Shak.*

GREEN MOUNTAINS, a range of mountains, in the United States chiefly in that of Vermont, extending NNE. and SSW. and dividing the waters which run eastward into the Connecticut from those which flow W. into Lake Champlain, Lake Erie, and Hudson's River.

GREENNESS. *n. s.* [from *green*.] 1. The quality of being green; viridity; viridness.—A tree grew such a sort of trees, as either excellent for fruit, stateliness of growth, continual verdure, or poetical fancies have made at any time famous. *Sidney*.—In a meadow, though the green grass and greenness delights, yet the variety of flowers doth heighten and beautify. *Ben Jonson*.—By reason, which discourses on what it finds in phantasy, can consider greenness by itself, or coldness, or coldness, singly and alone by itself. 2. Immaturity; unripeness.—This prince, yet the errors in his nature were excused by the greenness of his youth, which took all the time upon itself, loved a private man's wife. 3. Freshness; vigour.—Take the picture of a man in the greenness and vivacity of his youth, and in the latter date and declension of his drooping years, and you will scarce know it to belong to the same person. *South*. 4. Newness.

GREENOCK, [from *Grianeg*, Gael. *i. e.* sunny bay.] a parish of Scotland, in the NW. of Renfrewshire, extending 4½ miles along the S. side of the Frith of Clyde, in the form of the letter D, but with the curvature more protracted. The surface is mostly hilly, rising in a gradual ascent from a level strip along the shore, to 800 feet above the sea level, 2 miles SE. of Greenock, and appearing like a sweep of a large circle. The coast is shelvy, rough and stony; and abounds with sea ware. The soil near the coast

is light and gravelly, on the ascent various; earth, clay, till, moss, &c. The hills afford beautiful and extensive prospects, which might be still farther embellished by plantations. The population, in 1755, was only 1886, but it has since increased greatly. See § 4.

(2.) **GREENOCK**, a sea-port town of Scotland, in Renfrewshire, and one of the ports of Glasgow, 22 miles W. of that city. It is the best built town on all the coast; the chief resort of the herring fishery, and otherwise a place of great trade. The harbour was made by Sir John Shaw of Greenock, whose ancestors built the church; and the family had here a castle. This town is a borough of barony, erected in 1757, and is governed by a council of 9 feuars, 2 of whom are bailies. Its trade increased rapidly between 1784 and 1791. In 1784, the tonnage of shipping, British and foreign, amounted only to 2,626 tons inwards, and 15,389 outwards. But in 1791, it had increased to 58,838 tons inwards, and 50,381 outwards. From 5th Jan. 1791, to 5th Jan. 1792, there were entered at this port, 45,054 barrels of herrings; besides large quantities sold for home consumption. The chief imports are rum, sugar, cotton, mahogany, grain, naval stores, pot-ash, oil, timber, fruits, wines, &c. The exports are all kinds of British goods, coals and herrings. The chief manufactures are corlage, sail-cloth, soap, candles, shoes, saddlery, and sugar. Ship-building is also carried on. One vessel of 1100 tons was launched in 1791. Greenock has fairs in July and Nov. Lon. 4. 29. W. Lat. 55. 54. N.

(3.) **GREENOCK, BAY OF**, a bay of Scotland, on the coast of Renfrewshire, formerly called the Bay of St Lawrence. The Frith of Clyde here expands into a fine basin 4 miles wide, and land-locked on all sides.

(4.) **GREENOCK, NEW PARISH OF**, a parish of Scotland, disjoined from the old parish (Nº 1) about 1740, and comprehending the town (Nº 2.) with its suburbs, and the village of *Crasfurd-dike* adjoining on the E.; altogether above a mile along the Frith of Clyde in length, but hardly ½ of a mile in breadth. The population in 1755 stated by Dr Webster, was 1972, and that of both old and new parishes only 3858. But in Jan. 1792, by the rev. Arch. Reid's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it amounted to 14,499, besides above 700 persons on board coasting vessels; whence the increase in both parishes, within 37 years, was not less than 11,142.

GREENOGH, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

GREENORE POINT, a cape of Ireland, on the coast of Wexford. Lon. 6. 13. W. Lat. 52. 16. N.

(1.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a post town of Georgia, capital of Greene county, 30 miles from Lexington, and 78 W. by S. of Augusta.

(2.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a town of Maryland, in Caroline county, 7 miles N. of Danton, and 22 SE. by E. of Chester.

(3.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a township of Vermont, in Orleans county, adjoining to Minden on the NW. and to Wheelock on the SE.

GREENSBURG, a post town of Pennsylvania, capital of Westmoreland county, containing about

about 600 citizens in 1795. It is 31 miles SE. by E. of Pittsburg, and 270 W. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 23. E. of that city. Lat. 40. 18 N.

(1.) * GREENSICKNESS. *n. f.* [*green* and *sickness*.] The disease of maids, so called from the paleness which it produces.—Sour eructations, and a craving appetite, especially of terrestrial and absorbent substances, are the case of girls in the *greensickness*. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) GREEN-SICKNESS. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

GREEN-SILVER, the name of an ancient custom within the manor of Writtel in the county of Essex in England, which is, that every tenant whose fore door opens to Greenbury, shall pay an half-penny yearly to the lord, by the name of GREEN-SILVER.

(1.) GREENSTED, a village of England, in Essex, near Chipping-Ongar, remarkable for its ancient church, built before the Norman conquest; the walls of which are formed of the solid trunks of trees placed in rows, which seem capable of still lasting for ages.

(2.) GREENSTED, a town in Northumberland.

(1.) GREENSVILLE, a county of Virginia, bounded on the W., N. and E. by Brunswick, Southampton, and Suffolk counties, and on the S. by N. Carolina. It is 24 miles long and 20 broad; and contained 2742 citizens and 3620 slaves, in 1795.

(2.) GREENSVILLE. See GREENVILLE.

* GREENSWARD. *n. f.* [*green* and *sward*].

* GREENSWORD. *n. f.* of the same original with *swarth*. The turf on which grass grows.—

This the prettiest low-born lass that ever

Ran on the *greensward*. *Shak.*

After break their fast

On *greensward* ground, a cool and grateful taste.

Dryden.

—In shallow soils all is gravel within a few inches; and sometimes in low ground a thin *greensward*, and sloughy underneath; which last turns all into a bog. *Swift.*

(1.) GREENVILLE, a county of S. Carolina, in Washington district, bounded on the E. by Spartanburg, and S. by Pendleton counties; W. by Georgia and N. by Carolina; and containing 5,897 citizens in 1795, and 606 slaves.

(2.) GREENVILLE, or GREENSVILLE, a town of S. Carolina, in Darlington county, and capital of Cheraws district, 135 miles N. by E. of Charleston, and 77½ SW. by S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 29. W. of that city. Lat. 34. 34. N.

(1.) GREENVILLE, a post town of N. Carolina, the capital of Pitt county; 27 miles from Washington, 53 SW. of Edenton, 444 of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 19. W. of that city. Lat. 35. 11 N.

(4.) GREENVILLE, a post town of Treuffe, in Gloucester county, 653 miles SW. of Philadelphia.

(5.) GREENVILLE, a fort and settlement of the United States, in the north western territory; 6 miles NW. of Fort Jefferson.

(6.) GREENVILLE BAY, a town and port of entry on the E. side of the island of Grenada.

GREEN WAX is used where estates are delivered to the sheriff out of the exchequer, under the seal of that court, made in green wax, to be levied in the several counties. It is mentioned in the 43d stat. Ed. III. c. 9. and 7 Hen. IV. c. 4.

(1.) * GREENWEED. *n. f.* [*green* and *weed*.]

(2.) GREENWEED. See GENISTA, *Index*.

(1.) GREENWICH, a town of England pleasantly situated on the bank of the river, 5 miles E. of London. It had formerly a palace, built by Humphry duke of Gloucester, enlarged by Henry VII. and completed in 1530. The latter often chose this town for his place of residence; as did also Q. Mary II. and Elizabeth, who were born in it. D. Howard built a tower on the top of the steep hill, which was finished by Henry VIII. afterwards demolished, and a royal observatory erected in its place by Charles II. furnished with mathematical instruments for astronomical observations, and a deep dry well for observing the stars in the day time. The palace afterwards neglected, king Charles II. (who had bought the park, walled it about and planted it down, and began another, of which he died to see the first wing magnificently finished) king William III. in 1694, granted 1000 acres of ground to be converted into a hospital for old and disabled seamen, the children of those who lost their lives in the service, and for the encouragement of navigation. The first wing, which cost king Charles 36,000 l. was the first wing of the hospital towards the river. The front to the Thames consists of 100 of stone buildings, with the ranger's house in the centre of the area, but detached from the hospital. These buildings connect each other, and have their tops crowned with balustrades. The buildings which correspond with them, though in a more elegant style; and have domes at the ends, which are 120 feet high, supported by columns. Under one of these is the library, which is finely painted by Sir James Thornhill, contains many royal portraits; and under the chapel, which was destroyed by fire broke out in the hospital on the 10th of 1785, and totally consumed the dome at the top of the building, with the chapel, is the most elegant in the world, the great hall, and 8 wards containing the lodges for 600 prisoners. The dome was rebuilt in 1785; but the reparation of the whole was not yet completed. On the side of the area which opens to these buildings from the river, is placed a large terrestrial and celestial globe, which the stars are gilt; and in the centre of the area is a statue of George II. About 1000 disabled seamen are maintained in this hospital. Besides private benefactions, to the value of near L. 60,000, the British parliament settled upon it the earl of Derwent's estate, to the value of L. 6000 per ann. for strangers who see it, pay 2d. each; and as come is applied to the support of the nautical school for the sons of sailors: For support of which, every seaman in the royal and in the merchant service, also pays 6d. which is stopped out of their pay, and in at the six penny receiver's office in 1797. On this account, a seaman, who can produce an authentic certificate of his being dis-

fit for service, by defending any ship, his Majesty's British subjects, or in ship from the enemy, may be admitted hospital, and receive the same benefit if he had been in his Majesty's service. Besides the seamen and widows pensioned, about 100 boys, the sons of bred up for the service of the royal here are no out-pensioners as at Chel- of the mariners has a weekly allowance weighing 16 oz. each; 3 lb. of beef, 1, a pint of pease, 1½ lb. of cheese, 2, 14 quarts of beer, and 1s. 2-week money: the tobacco money of the boat- 6d. a week each, that of their mates and that of the other officers in propor- rank: besides which, each common receives once in two years, a suit of blue at, 3 pair of stockings, 2 pair of shoes, 18, 3 shirts, and 2 night caps. Out is given for showing the hall, only 3d. ng is allowed to the person that shows rest makes an excellent fund for the maintenance of not less than 20 poor boys, siners that have been either slain or dis- service of their country. The park ked with deer, and affords as much va- portion to its size, as any in the king- the views from the Observatory and e hill are beautiful beyond imagination, r the former. The projection of these old, that one does not look down upon falling slope or flat inclosures, but at the tops of branching trees, which uts and clumps out of deep hollows wned dells. The cattle which feed on which appear in breaks among them, ng in a region of fairy land. A thou- d openings among the branches of the upon little picturesque views of the rf, which, when illumined by the sun, ect pleasing beyond the power of fancy This is the foreground of the landscape: her, the eye falls on that noble struc- spital, in the midst of an amphitheatre hen the two reaches of the river make ful serpentine which forms the Isle of l present the floating millions of the To the left appears a fine tract of rading to the capital, which there si- prospect. The parish church of Green- alk by the commissioners for erecting v churches, is a very handsome struc- ated to St Alphage, Abp. of Canterbury, to have been slain by the Danes in e spot where the church now stands. college at the end of the town, front- amee, for the maintenance of 20 decay- se-keepers, 12 out of Greenwich, and ly chosen from Snottisham and Castle- Norfolk. This is called *the duke of Nor-* ge, though it was founded and endow- g by Henry earl of Northampton the orfolk's brother, and by him committed e of the Mercers company. To this longs a chapel, in which the earl's d; which, as well as his monument, ved hither several years ago from the . PART II.

chapel of Dover castle. The pensioners, besides meat, drink, and lodging, are allowed 18d. a week, with a gown every year, linen once in two years, and hats once in 4. In 1560, Mr Lambard, author of *The Preambulation of Kent*, also built an hospital, called *Queen Elizabeth's College*, said to be the first erected by an English Protestant. There are likewise two charity schools in this pa- rish. The Thames is here very broad, and the channel deep; and at very high tides the water is salt. This is the chief harbour for the king's yachts. The town contains about 1500 houses; and a market on Wed. and Sat. was instituted in 1737; the direction of which is in the governors of the royal hospital, to which the profits arising from it were to be appropriated. The English astrono- mers reckon their longitude from Greenwich.

(2.) GREENWICH, a township of Connecticut, in Fairfield county, 40 miles E. of New York, and 50 W. of Newhaven.

(3.) GREENWICH, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, containing 1045 citizens in 1790; 20 miles E. of Northampton, and 75 W. of Boston.

(4—6.) GREENWICH, 3 towns of New Jersey: viz. 1. in Cumberland county, on the Cohanzy, 15 miles SE. of Salem, and 66 S. by W. of Philadelphia: 2. in Gloucester county, on the E. bank of the Delaware; 3 miles N. by E. of Woodbury, and 6 SE. of Philadelphia: and, 3. in Suffex coun- ty, on the Delaware, 31 miles SW. of Newton, containing 1971 citizens and 64 slaves.

(1.) * GREENWOOD. *n. s.* [*green* and *wood*.] A wood considered as it appears in the Spring or Summer. It is sometimes used as one word.— Among wild herbs under the *greenwood* shade. *Fairfax*.—

It happened on a Summer's holiday,

That to the *greenwood* shade he took his way;
For Cymon shunn'd the church. *Dryden*.

(2, 3.) GREENWOOD, two townships of Pennsyl- vania: 1. in Cumberland, and 2. in Mifflin coun- ties.

(4.) GREENWOOD, an extensive forest of Con- necticut, in Litchfield county.

(1.) * TO GREET. *v. a.* [*grator*, Lat. *gretari*, Saxon.] 1. To address at meeting.—

I think if men, which in these places live,
Durst look in themselves, and themselves retrieve,
They would like strangers greet themselves.

Donne.

I would gladly go,

To greet my Pallas with such news below. *Dryd.*

2. To address in whatever manner.—

My noble partner

You greet with present grace, and great predic- tion;

To me you speak not. *Shak. Macbeth*.

Now, Thomas Mowbray, do I turn to thee,
And mark my greeting well; for what I speak,
My body shall make good. *Shak. Richard II.*

3. To salute in kindness or respect.—

My lord, the Mayor of London comes to greet you,

—God bless your grace with health and happy days. *Shak.*

Now the herald lark

Left his gopund nest, high tow'ring to descry

L I I

T 6

The morn's approach, and greet her with his song. *Milton.*

Once had the early matrons run

To greet her of a lovely son. *Milton.*

The sea's our own; and now all nations greet;

With bounding sails, each vessel of our fleet. *Haller.*

Thus pale they meet, their eyes with fury burn;

None greets: for none the greeting will return;

But in dumb fury, each arm'd with care,

His toe profess, as brother of the war. *Dryd.*

4. To congratulate.—

His lady, loving all that channel from far,

Approacht in haste to greet his victorie. *Spenser.*

5. To pay compliments at a distance.—

The king's a-bed,

And sent great largess to your officers;

This diamond he greets your wife withal,

By the name of most kind hostess. *Shak. Macb.*

6. To meet, as those who go to pay congratulations. Not much in use.—

Your haste

Is now urg'd on you.

—We will greet the time. *Shak. K. Lear.*

(2.) * To GREET. *v. n.* To meet and salute.—

There greet in silence, as the dead are wont,

And sleep in peace. *Shak.*

Such was that face on which I dwelt with joy,

Ere Greece assembled stem'd the tides to Troy;

But parting then for that detested shore,

Our eyes, unhappy! never greeted in we. *Pope's Odyssey.*

* GREETER. *n. s.* [from the verb.] He who greets.

* GREETING. *n. s.* [from greet.] Salutation at meeting, or compliments at a distance.—

I from him

Give you all greetings, that a king, as friend,

Can send his brother. *Shak. Winter's Tale.*

* GREEZE. *n. s.* [Otherwise written *greece*.]

See GREECE, or GRIEZE, or GRICE; from *de-gree*. A flight of steps; a step.

GRIFFENSTAIN, a town of Austria, on the

Danube, 6 miles N.W. of Kloster-Newburg.

* GREGAL. *adj.* [from *gregus*, Lat.] Belonging to a flock. *Dich.*

* GREGARIOUS. *adj.* [from *gregarius*, Lat.] Going in flocks or herds, like sheep or partridges.—

No birds of prey are gregarious. *Ray on the Great.*

GREGOIE, an island of Africa, in the Ja-

quin, on the Gold Coast, where the Europeans

have factories; 3 miles from the sea.

GREGORIA, a town of New Mexico.

(1.) GREGORIAN CALENDAR, that which

shows the new and full moon, with the time of

Easter, and the moveable feasts depending there-

on, by means of epacts disposed through the fev-

eral months of the Gregorian year. See CHRO-

NOLOGY, Sect. V. and KALENDAR.

(2.) GREGORIAN STYLE, the New Style, now

used, which succeeded the Julian Style, in Britain

in 1752.

(3.) GREGORIAN TELESCOPE. See OPTICS,

Index.

(4.) GREGORIAN YEAR. See CHRONOLOGY,

§ 49.

(1.) GREGORIO, ST, an island of Maritime

Austria, in the prov. of Quararo, 3 miles long

half a mile broad. The natives deal in

sheep, of which there are 2,000 on the island.

(2.) GREGORIO, ST, a village of Maritima,

in the Padusano, near Padua.

GREGORIUS, Georgius Florentinus, or

GORY of Tours. See GREGORY, N° 10.

(1—10.) GREGORY, the name of 17

of Rome. See ITALY. Of these we

only mention 3 of the most eminent in letters.

GREGORY I, surnamed the GREAT,

Rome, was born at Rome, of a patrician

A. D. 540. He discovered such abilities

for the exercise of the senatorial employment, that

peron Justin the younger appointed him

Rome. Pope Pelagius II. sent him to

Constantinople, to demand succours against the

barbarians. When he thought of ensuring a

life, he was elected Pope by the clergy, the

and the people of Rome, A. D. 590. His

learning and diligence in instructing the

both by writing and preaching, he had a

happy talent in winning over princes in

temporal as well as spiritual interest of the

He undertook the conversion of the Eng-

sent over some monks of his order, under

rection of Augustin their abbot. With

the quality of churchmen, he was very

asserting that a man who had ever known

man ought not to be admitted to the

and he always caused the candidates for

examination on that point. He likewise

himself against such as were found guilty of

However, he flattered the emperor Phoca,

his hands were yet reeking with the blood

ritious, and of his three children, who had

butchered in his sight. He likewise

rehabilitated, a very wicked queen of France,

accused of destroying the noble monuments

of ancient Roman magnificence, that those who

the city might not attend more to the

arches than to holy things; and burnt a

of heathen books, Livy in particular. He

605. His *Dialogues*, a work stuffed with

incredible stories under the name of *miracles*

three of his *Letters to Phocas*, are extant.

GREGORY XIII, was a native of Bologna

succeeded Pius V, in 1572. He was the

deeply versed in the canon and civil law of

his time. He ornamented Rome with

buildings and several fountains. He

Gratian's Decretals, and wrote learned

them. But his chief merit lies in bringing

the reform of the Kalendar, which was

under his orders by Lewis Lilio, a Roman

cian. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*. A short

before he died he received ambassadors from

Spain, acknowledging the authority of the

He died in 1585, aged 83.

GREGORY XV, was also a native of Bologna

and descended of an ancient family. His

was *Alexander Ludovisio*. He was elected

in 1621, and was author of several works of

particularly one intitled, *Epistola ad Regem*

rum, SHAH ABBAS; published *cum notis*

sons, in 1627, 8vo.

(16.) GREGORY, K. of Scots. See SCOT

(17.)

GREGORY, Theodore, surnamed *Thaumaturgus*, on account of his miracles, was the scholar; and was elected bishop of Neocaesarea, his birth place, about A. D. 240, during the reign of the Emperor Diocletian. He assisted at the council of Antioch, against Paulus Samosatenus; and died in 258. He had the satisfaction of leaving only 17 years in his diocese, where there were but 17 years when he was ordained. Of his works till extant, A consolatory oration to Origen on his death; a consolatory epistle; and some other pieces.

GREGORY, Bishop of Nyssa, one of the fathers of the church, and author of the Nicene Creed, born in Cappadocia, about A. D. 331. He was chosen bishop of Nyssa in 372, and banished by Emperor Valens for adhering to the Nicene Creed. He was afterwards, however, recalled by the bishops in several important affairs, and died in 396. He wrote, Commentaries on the scriptures; Sermons on the mysteries; Mysteries; Dogmatical treatises; Parænetics; Letters on church discipline: &c. His style is very allegorical and

GREGORY, George Florentius, bishop of Eusebia, one of the most illustrious bishops and writers of the 6th century, was descended from a noble family in Auvergne. He was educated by his uncle Gallus, bp. of Clermont; and distinguished himself so much by his learning that in 573 he was chosen bp. of Tours. He went to Rome to visit the tombs of the apostles, where he contracted a friendship with Pope Gregory the Great, and died in 595. He was exuberant with regard to miracles. He wrote, The history of France. 2. The lives of the saints, and other works. The best edition is by F. Rumart, in 1699.

GREGORY, surnamed NAZIANZEN; from Nazianzus, a town of Cappadocia, of which his father was bishop, was born, A. D. 324, at Azianus near it, and was one of the most illustrious of the Greek church in the 4th century. He was made bishop of Constantinople; finding his election contested by Theophrastus, bp. of Alexandria, he voluntarily resigned about 382, in the general council of Constantinople. His works are extant, printed at Paris in 1609. His style is said to be to that of the most celebrated orators of Greece.

GREGORY, David, Esq. of Kinardie, in Aberdeenshire, was the son of the rev. John Gregory, minister of Drumoak, and elder brother of James Gregory (Nº 23.) the celebrated inventor of the reflecting telescope. He was born in 1627, and went into apprenticeship to a mercantile house in London, succeeding to the estate of Kinardie, and of an elder brother, he preferred science to commerce, and even studied medicine for some time. In this branch of science he acquired proficiency, that he not only indulged the poor by prescribing for them with no fee, but came to be consulted by the nobility and gentry, though even from a distance. He was the first person in Scotland who had a barometer; and having directed attention to the changes in it, he was

frequently able to prognosticate the changes in the weather. Hence he came to be suspected by the superstitious as a conjuror; and a deputation was actually sent him by the presbytery upon the subject; but he soon removed their suspicions, so that no trial for witchcraft took place. About 1700, he removed to Aberdeen, and during the war with France, in the reign of Q. Anne, invented an improvement in artillery, by which the shot of great guns could be rendered much more destructive to the enemy. By the assistance of a watchmaker, he made a model of this engine, which was submitted to the inspection of Sir Isaac Newton; but the philanthropic baronet disapproved of all inventions for the destruction of the human race, and the model was never more heard of. He was twice married, and had 32 children; of whom 3 sons became eminent in science; being all professors in universities; viz. David at Oxford, (Nº 22.) James at Edinburgh, and Charles at St Andrews. He died at Aberdeen, in 1720, aged 93.

(22.) GREGORY, David, F. R. S. Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, whom Dr Smith has termed *sublimissimi ingenii mathematicus*, was the eldest son of the above Mr Gregory. (Nº 21.) He was born at Aberdeen in 1661, and received the earlier parts of his education in that city. He completed his studies at Edinburgh; and, being possessed of the mathematical papers of his uncle, soon distinguished himself likewise as the heir of his genius. In the 23d year of his age, he was elected professor of mathematics in the university of Edinburgh; and published, in the same year, *Exercitatio Geometrica de dimensione figurarum, sive specimen methodi generalis determinandi quasvis figuras*, Edinburgh; 1684; 4to. He saw very early the excellence of the Newtonian philosophy; and had the merit of being the first who introduced it into the schools by his public lectures at Edinburgh. "He had (says Mr Whiston) already caused several of his scholars to keep acts, as we call them, upon several branches of the Newtonian philosophy; whilst we at Cambridge, poor wretches, were ignominiously studying the fictitious hypothesis of the Cartesians." In 1691, on the report of Dr Bernard's intention of resigning the Savilian professorship of astronomy at Oxford, David Gregory went to London; and being patronised by Sir Isaac Newton, and warmly befriended by Mr Flamsteed, he obtained the vacant professorship, for which Dr Halley was a competitor. This rivalry, however, instead of animosity, laid the foundation of friendship between these eminent men; and Halley soon after became the colleague of Gregory, by obtaining the professorship of geometry in the same university. Soon after his arrival in London, Mr Gregory had been elected F. R. S. and, previously to his election into the Savilian professorship, had the degree of M. D. conferred on him by the university of Oxford. In 1693, he published in the *Philos. Transf.* a resolution of the Florentine problem *de Testudine velifera mi quadrabili*; and he continued to communicate to the public, from time to time, many ingenious mathematical papers by the same channel. In 1695, he printed at Oxford *Catoptrica et Dioptrica Sphæricæ Elementa*; a work which contains

the substance of some of his public lectures at Edinburgh. This valuable treatise was republished first with additions by Dr William Brown, with the recommendation of Mr Jones and Dr Desaguliers; and afterwards by the latter, with an appendix containing an account of the Gregorian and Newtonian telescopes, together with Mr Hadley's tables for the construction of both those instruments. In the end of this treatise, there is an observation which shows, that what is generally believed to be a discovery of a much later date, the construction of achromatic telescopes, which has been carried to great perfection by Mr Dollond and Mr Ramsden, had occurred to the mind of David Gregory, from the reflection on the admirable contrivance of nature in combining the different humours of the eye. See *Catopt. et Dioptr. Sphæricæ*. Oxon. 1695, p. 98. In 1704, our author published at Oxford, *Astronomiæ Physicæ et Geometricæ Elementa*; a work which is accounted his master-piece. It is founded on the Newtonian doctrines, and was esteemed by Sir Isaac Newton himself as a most excellent explanation and defence of his philosophy. In 1703, he published a folio edition of Euclid in Greek and Latin. In this work, although it contains all the treatises attributed to Euclid, Dr Gregory has been careful to point out such as he found reason, from internal evidence, to be the productions of some inferior geometrician. Dr Gregory engaged, soon after, with his colleague Halley, in the publication of Apollonius's Conics, but he had not proceeded far in this undertaking when he died, in the 49th year of his age, at Maidenhead in Berkshire, A. D. 1710. To the genius and abilities of David Gregory, the most celebrated mathematicians of the age, Sir Isaac Newton, Dr Halley, and Dr Keill, have given ample testimonies. Besides those works published in his lifetime, he left in MS. *A Short Treatise of the Nature and Arithmetic of Logarithms*, which is printed at the end of Dr Keill's translation of Commandine's Euclid; and a *Treatise of Practical Geometry*, which was afterwards translated, and published in 1745, by Mr MacLaurin. He married, in 1695, Elizabeth, the daughter of Mr Ouphant of Langtown. By this lady he had four sons, of whom the eldest, David, was appointed regius professor of modern history at Oxford by king George I. and died in 1767, in an advanced age, after enjoying for many years the dignity of dean of Christ church in that university.

(21.) GREGORY, James, F. R. S. one of the most eminent mathematicians of the 17th century, was the 2d son of the rev. Mr Gregory, and brother to David (Nº 21.) and was born at Aberdeen in 1638. His mother was a daughter of Mr David Anderson of Finzaugh, a gentleman who possessed a singular turn for mathematics. This mathematical genius would seem to have been hereditary in the family. Alexander Anderson, cousin german of David, was professor of mathematics at Paris, and published there in 1612, *Supplementum Apollonii rearsæ*, &c. The mother of James Gregory inherited the genius of her family; and observing in herself, while yet a child, a strong propensity to mathematics, she instructed him herself in the elements of that science. He received his e-

ducation in the languages at Aberdeen, and through the usual course of academical studies the Marischal college. At the age of 24 he finished his treatise, entitled, *Optica promissa abditæ radiorum reflexorum et refractorum geometricæ enucleata; cui subnectitur appendix thymiorum astronomiæ problematum resolutiohibens*; London, 1663; a work of great value in which he gave the world an invention of his own, and one of the most valuable of the discoveries, the construction of the reflecting telescope. This discovery attracted the attention of the mathematicians, who were soon conscious of its great importance to the sciences of optics and astronomy. The manner of placing two specula upon the same axis appearing to Sir Isaac Newton to be attended with the disadvantage of losing the central rays of the larger speculum, proposed an improvement on the instrument, giving an oblique position to the smaller speculum, and placing the eye-glass in the focus of the tube. But the Newtonian construction of the reflecting instrument has been long abandoned for the al or Gregorian, which is now universally used where the instrument is of a moderate size, though Mr Herschel has preferred the Newtonian form for the construction of those immense telescopes, which of late years he has so frequently employed in observing the heavens. The University of Padua being then in high reputation for mathematical studies, James Gregory went there soon after the publication of his *Optica*, and fixing his residence there for some years, published in 1667, *Vera Circuli et Hyperbolæ quadratura*; in which he propounded another discovery of his own, the invention of an infinite verging series for the areas of the circle and hyperbole. To this treatise, when republished in 1668, he added a new work, intitled, *Compendium universalis, inserviens quantitationi curvarum transmutationi et mensuræ*; in which he is supposed to have shown, for the first time, a method of the transmutation of curves. These works attracted the notice, and the correspondence of the greatest mathematicians of the age, and of Huygens, Halley, and Wallis; and thus being soon after chosen F. R. S. of London, contributed to enrich the Philosophical Transactions by many valuable papers. Through this he carried on a dispute with Mr Huygens, terminated by his treatise on the quadrature of the circle and hyperbole, to which that able mathematician had started some objections. Of this controversy, it is sufficient to say, that, in the opinion of Leibnitz, (who however allows Mr Gregory the highest merit,) Mr Huygens has pointed out though not errors, some considerable defects in the treatise above mentioned, and has proposed a much simpler method of attaining the end. In 1668, Mr Gregory published at London *Exercitationes Geometricæ*, which contributed to extend his reputation. About this time he was elected professor of mathematics in the university of St Andrew's; an office which he held 16 years. During his residence there, he married in 1669, Mary, the daughter of George James, a celebrated painter, whom Mr Walpole has called the Van Dyke of Scotland. In 1674, he was

thematical chair in the university of
This place he had held for little more
when, in October 1675, being em-
owing the satellites of Jupiter through
b some of his pupils, he was sudden-
h total blindness, and died a few days
early age of 37. He was a man of
id penetrating genius. His temper
e been warm, as appears from his dis-
fr Huygens; and, conscious perhaps
merits as a discoverer, he seems to
alons of losing any portion of his re-
the improvements of others upon his

GREGORY, John, M. D. professor of me-
: university of Edinburgh, was the son
s Gregory, professor of medicine in
ge Aberdeen, and grandson of the a-
N° 23. His father was first married
: Forbes, daughter of Sir John Forbes
usk; by whom he had six children,
om died in infancy. He married after-
Chalmers, only daughter of the rev.
almers, principal of King's college, by
had two sons and a daughter. John,
k of the three, was born at Aberdeen,
4. Losing his father in the 7th year
the care of his education devolved on
ther, Principal Chalmers, and on his
r, Dr James Gregory, who, upon the
of their father, a short time before his
been appointed to succeed him in the
p of Medicine in King's college. He
ed much in his infant years, and du-
ole course of his studies, to the atten-
ousin, the celebrated Dr Reid, of the
f Glasgow. The rudiments of his clas-
ion he received at the grammar school
n; and, under the eye of his grandfa-
mpleted, in King's college, his studies
and Greek languages, and in the sci-
ies, mathematics, and natural philo-
s master in philosophy and in mathe-
Mr Thomas Gordon, professor of phi-
King's college. In 1742, Mr Gregory
inburgh, where the school of medicine
sing to that celebrity which has since
bly distinguished it. Here he attended
eal lectures of the elder Dr Monro, of
on the theory of medicine, and of Dr
on the practice. He heard likewise
ons of Dr Alston on the materia medica
y, and of Dr Plummer on chemistry.
cal Society of Edinburgh, instituted for
cussion of all questions relative to me-
philosophy, had begun to meet in 1737.
iety Mr Gregory was a member in 1742,
e when Dr Mark Akenfide, his fellow
id intimate companion, was a member
e institution. In 1745, our author went
and attended the lectures of those ce-
rofessors Gaubius, Albinus, and Van
hile at this place he had the honour of
om the King's college of Aberdeen, an
degree of M. D. and soon after, on his
a Holland, was elected professor of phi-
that university. In this capacity he
es in 1747, 1748, and 1749, on mathe-

matics, and on experimental and moral philoso-
phy. In the end of 1749, however, he resigned
his professorship of philosophy, his views being
turned chiefly to the practice of physic. Previ-
ously, however, to his settling as a physician at
Aberdeen, he went for a few months to the Con-
tinent. Some time after his return to Scotland,
Dr Gregory married, in 1752, Elisabeth, daughter
of William Lord Forbes; a young lady who, to
the exterior endowments of great beauty and en-
gaging manners, joined a very superior under-
standing. With her he received a handsome addi-
tion to his fortune; and during their union, which
was only 9 years, enjoyed the highest portion of
domestic happiness. Of her character it is enough
to say, that her husband, in that admired work,
A Father's Legacy to his daughters, the last proof
of his affection for them, declares, that, "while
he endeavours to point out what they should be,
he draws but a very faint and imperfect picture of
what their mother was." The field of medical
practice at Aberdeen being at that time in a great
measure pre-occupied by his elder brother, Dr
James Gregory, and others, our author went to
London in 1754; and being already known as a
man of genius, he found an easy introduction to
many persons of distinction, both in the literary
and polite world. The late George Lord Lyttle-
ton was his friend and patron. An attachment,
founded on a striking similarity of manners, taste,
and disposition, grew up into a firm and perma-
nent friendship; and to that nobleman, to whom
Dr Gregory was wont to communicate all his li-
terary productions, the world is indebted for the
publication of the *Comparative View of the State
and Faculties of Man*, which made him first known
as an author. He likewise enjoyed the friendship
of the late Edward Montague, Esq. and of his
lady, the celebrated champion of the Fame of
Shakespeare against the cavils and calumnies of
Voltaire. In 1754, Dr Gregory was chosen F. R. S.
of London. In that city his professional talents
would doubtless have procured him a very exten-
sive practice; but the death of his brother, Dr
James Gregory, in November, 1755, occasioning
a vacancy in King's college, Aberdeen, which he
was solicited to fill, he returned to his native
country in 1756. Here our author remained till
the end of 1764, when he changed his place of re-
sidence for Edinburgh, where, in 1766, on the re-
signation of Dr Rutherford, he succeeded as pro-
fessor of the practice of physic; and was appoint-
ed first physician to his majesty for Scotland, on
the death of Dr Whytt. On his first establish-
ment in the university of Edinburgh, Dr Gregory
gave lectures on the practice of physic, in 1767,
1768, and 1769. Afterwards, by agreement with
Dr Cullen, professor of the theory of physic, these
two eminent men gave alternate courses of the
theory and the practice. As a public speaker, Dr
Gregory's manner was simple, natural, and ani-
mated. As his subject in a great degree precluded
the graces of oratory, he expressed his ideas with
uncommon perspicuity, and in a style happily at-
tempered between the formality of studied com-
position and the ease of conversation. The only
lectures which he committed fully to writing,
were those introductory discourses which he read
at

at the beginning of his annual course, and which are published under the title of *Lectures on the Duties and Qualifications of a Physician*. Of these, which were written with no view to publication, many copies were taken by his pupils, and some from the original M. S., which he freely lent for their perusal. These lectures were first published in 1770, and afterwards in an enlarged and more perfect form in 1772; when he also published, *Elements of the Practice of Physic, for the use of Students*; a work intended solely for his own pupils, and to be used by himself as a text-book to be commented upon in his course of lectures. In his lectures, Dr Gregory never attempted to mislead the student by flattering views of the perfection of the science, but was rather anxious to point out its defects; wisely judging, that a sense of the imperfections of a science is the first step towards its improvement. With this view he exposed the fallaciousness of the several theories and hypotheses, which have had the most extensive currency, and perpetually inculcated the danger of systematizing with limited experience, or an imperfect knowledge of facts. Yet in the work last mentioned, he did not entirely neglect the systematic arrangements of other authors. These, however, he warned his pupils, that he had not adopted from any conviction of the rectitude of those theories to which they referred, but only as affording that degree of method, and regularity of plan, which is the best help to the study of any science. Considering a rational theory of physic to be as yet a desideratum, it was his object to communicate to his pupils the greatest portion of practical knowledge, as the only basis on which such a theory could ever be reared. Thus desirous of establishing the science of medicine upon the solid foundation of practice and experience; and knowing that many things asserted as facts by medical writers have been assumed on a very careless observation, while confirming a favourite theory; and that, on the other hand, many real and important facts have, from the same spirit of system, been explained away and discredited; he constantly endeavoured, both by his precept and example, to inculcate to his pupils the necessity of extreme caution either in admitting or in denying medical facts, or what are commonly given as such. To the desire of enforcing this necessary caution is owing that multitude of queries respecting matters of fact, as well as matters of opinion, which occurs in the *Elements of the Practice of Physic*. Dr Gregory, soon after the death of his wife, and, as he himself says, "for the amusement of his solitary hours," employed himself in the composition of that admirable tract, intitled, *A Father's Legacy to his Daughters*; a work which, though never intended by its author for the public eye, it would have been an unwarrantable diminution of his fame, and a capricious refusal of a general benefit to mankind, to have limited to the sole purpose for which it was originally designed. It was, therefore, with great propriety, published after the author's death by his eldest son. This work gives a most amiable display of the piety and goodness of his heart, and his consummate knowledge of human nature. It manifests such solicitude for their welfare, as strongly recommends the advice

which he gives. He speaks of the fame the most honourable terms, and labours in its estimation, whilst he plainly, yet gently, points out the errors into which ladies are apt to fall. It is particularly in what high and honourable terms he speaks of the Holy Scriptures, of Christian faithful ministers; how warmly he speaks to his daughters the serious and devoted of God in public and private. He dwells on that temper and behaviour, which is peculiarly suited to their education, and circumstances; and recommends that gentleness, and modesty, which adorn the character of the ladies, and do particular honour to the sex. His advices, with regard to love and marriage, are peculiarly wise and judicious. They show what careful obligation lies on female domestic conduct, and on the effects of possessing or wanting the qualities which he recommends. There is something peculiarly curious, animated, and interesting in his directions to them, how to judge of the truest and most honourable passion in, and in the other sex; and in the very accurate distinction which he makes between the delicacy. Nothing can be more striking, nothing more likely to give its full effect, than the affectionate manner in which he mentions their mother, and the irreparable loss, and they sustained by her early death, in this tract, the professor shines with as much lustre as a husband and father, and is adapted to promote domestic happiness. His letters were evidently written under the shadow of an early death, which Dr Gregory had to apprehend from a constitution subject to gout, which had begun to appear at intervals even from his 15th year. His mother, whom he inherited that disease, died in 1770, while sitting at table. Dr Gregory prognosticated for himself a similar event of which, among his friends, he was not without apprehension of the nearest approach. In the beginning of 1773, in conversation with his son, Dr James Gregory, remarking, that having for the 3 preceeding years had no return of a fit, he might make it with a pretty severe attack at that season, he received the observation with some degree as he felt himself then in his usual state. The prediction, however, was too true, and he was gone to bed on the 9th Feb. 1773, with an apparent disorder, he was found dead in bed. His death had been instantaneous, probably in his sleep; for there was not the least discomposure of limb or of feature,—a *paralytic*. Dr Gregory, in his person, was considerably above the middle size. His frame was compacted with symmetry, but not elegance. His limbs were not active; he was somewhat in his gait; and his countenance a fullness of feature and a bearing of no external indication of superior abilities, otherwise when he engaged in conversation, his features then became animated, and his voice expressive. He had a warmth of tone,

ve a pleasing interest to every thing
ered: But, united with this anima-
is a gentleness and simplicity of man-
with little attention to the exterior
l forms of politeness, was more en-
he most finished address. His con-
ved with ease; and, when in com-
erary men, without affecting a dis-
ledge, he was liberal of the stores of
e possessed a large share of the social
nt affections, which, in the exercise
on, appeared in many nameless, but
ttentions to those under his care;
eding from an extended principle of
ere not squared to the circumstances
e patient. To many of his pupils,
rom all who had an interest in their
ras of importance to enjoy the coun-
e so universally esteemed. Through-
nd an easy introduction to an enlar-
nt society; and they experienced in
who was ever ready to assist them
sel and patronage. The same spirit
opy endeared him to his intimate
g whom may be ranked most of the
ati of his time.—Some time after his
ofessorship of the Theory of Medicine
l upon his eldest son, Dr James Gre-
ias since succeeded to the practical
filled by that other eminent professor

's SOUND, a strait between the islands
e and Inismain, on the W. coast of

OWN, a town of New Jersey, in
nty, 6 miles NE. of Princeton.

ED, a ridiculous mode of spelling the
sand, adopted and persisted in by
lopædists, for which we cannot find
shadow of authority in any good au-
onary. See GRAY-HOUND.

FFENBERG, a town of Germany,
rg, 4 m. N. of New Angermund.

FENBERG, a town of Saxony, in Po-
iles NNW. of Plate.

NHAGEN, a town of Pomerania,
f Cultrin, and 12 S. of Old Stettin.

FFENSEE, a town of the Helvetic
Zurich; 6 miles E. of Zurich. It
1444.

FFEN-SEE, a lake of the Helvetic re-
urich, 5 miles E. of Zurich.

FFENSTEIN, a town of Germany,
of the Upper Rhine; 7 miles NNW.
and 34 N. of Mentz.

FENSTEIN, a town of Silesia.

FALD, a town of Swedish Pomera-
Rik. It has an university, founded
lies 15 miles SE. of Stralsund. Lon.
Ferro. Lat. 54. 4. N.

Samuel Carlowitz, a late eminent na-
the Russian service, born at Inver-
shire. The rev. Mr Andrew Ro-
ster of that parish, gives the following
of this Scoto-Russian admiral. "The
1. Greig was a native of this town,
d under the present School-master,
in early period of life into the British

service. While in the navy of Great Britain, he
distinguished himself at the defeat of Conflans by
Adm. Hawke, the taking of the Havannah, and
several other engagements in that successful war.
After the peace of 1763, he entered into the Rus-
sian service; and there at the battle of Chio, con-
tributed principally, by his advice and exertions
to the destruction of the whole Turkish fleet.
Sensible of his great professional merit, her imper-
ial majesty promoted him, (though a foreigner)
to the chief command of the Russian navy, which
he raised to a degree of respectability and import-
ance it never before had attained. In reward of
his great services, the empress bestowed on him
many honourable marks of distinction, and an
estate in Livonia, which his family now enjoy.
In the last war between the Russians and Turks,
which last were joined by the Swedes, he, in the
Baltic, defeated the Swedish fleet; and had not a
part of his squadron, through cowardice, refused
to come into action, he probably had captured or
sunk the whole of them. Soon after this, he was
seized with a fever, and died at Revel, on the
26th Oct. 1788. He was no less illustrious for
courage and naval skill, than for piety, benevo-
lence and every private virtue." *Sir J. Sinclair's*
Stat. Acc. IX. 510.

GREILLENSTAIN, a town of Germany in
Austria, a mile W. of Horn.

GREIN, a town of Austria, on the N. side of
the Danube, 24 m. W. of Ips, and 62 of Vienna.

GREITZ, or GREWITZ, a town of Upper
Saxony, in the Vogtland, 12 m. SW. of Zurikau.

GREKSAKER, a town of Sweden in West-
manland, 48 miles W. of Stroemsholm.

* GREMIAL. *adj.* [*gremium*, Latin.] Per-
taining to the lap. *Ditt.*

GREMSA. See GRÆMSAY.

(1.) GRENADA, one of the Caribbee islands.
It is the last of the Windward Caribbees; and lies
30 leagues N. of New Andalusia, on the continent.
According to some, it is 24 leagues in compass;
according to others, only 22. It is 28 m. long,
and in some places 15 broad. The chief port,
formerly called *Louis*, now *St George's*, stands on
the W. side of the island, in the middle of a large
bay, with a sandy bottom. It is said that 1000
barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride secure from
storms; and that 100 ships, of 1000 tons each,
may be moored in the harbour. A large round
basin, which is parted from it by a bank of sand,
would contain a considerable number of ships, if
the bank was cut through: but by reason of it,
the large ships are obliged to pass within 80 paces
of one of the mountains lying at the mouth of the
harbour; the other lying about half a mile distant.
The island abounds with game, fish, and very
fine timber. A lake on a high mountain, about
the middle of the island, supplies it with streams
of fresh water. Several bays and harbours lie
round the island, some of which might be fortified
to great advantage; so that it is very convenient
for shipping, not being subject to hurricanes. The
soil is capable of producing tobacco, sugar, indi-
go, pease, and millet. In 1638, M. Poincy, a
Frenchman, attempted to make a settlement in
Grenada; but was driven off by the Caribbeans,
who resorted to this island in greater numbers
than

than to the neighbouring ones. In 1650, M. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over from that island 200 men, furnished with presents to reconcile the savages, and with arms to subdue them, in case they should prove intractable. The savages are said to have been frightened into submission by the number of the Frenchmen; but, according to some French writers, the chief not only welcomed the new-comers, but, in consideration of some knives, hatchets, flintars, and other toys, yielded to Parquet the sovereignty of the island, reserving to themselves their own habitations. The Abbe Raynal informs us, that these first French colonists, *imagining* they had purchased the island by these trifles, assumed the sovereignty, and soon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by force, took their usual method of murdering all those whom they found in a defenceless state. This produced a war; and the French settlers having received a reinforcement of 300 men from Martinico, forced the savages to retire to a mountain; from whence, after exhausting all their arrows, they rolled down great logs of wood on their enemies. Here they were joined by other savages from the neighbouring islands, and again attacked the French, but were defeated anew; and were at last driven to such desperation, that 40 of them, who had escaped from the slaughter, jumped from a precipice into the sea, where they all perished, rather than fall into the hands of their enemies. From thence the rock was called *le Morn des Sautours*, or "the hill of the leapers;" which name it still retains. The French then destroyed the habitations and all the provisions of the savages; but fresh supplies of Caribbeans arriving, the war was renewed with great vigour, and great numbers of the French were killed. Upon this they resolved totally to exterminate the natives; and having accordingly attacked the savages unawares, they inhumanly put to death the women and children, as well as the men; burning all their boats and canoes, to cut off all communication between the few survivors and the neighbouring islands. Notwithstanding all these barbarous precautions, however, the Caribbeans proved the irreconcilable enemies of the French; and their frequent insurrections at last obliged Parquet to sell all his property in the island to the Count de Cerillac in 1653. The new proprietor, who purchased Parquet's property for 30,000 crowns, sent thither a person of brutal manners to govern the island. He behaved with such insupportable tyranny, that most of the colonists retired to Martinico; and the few who remained condemned him to death after a formal trial. In the whole court of justice that tried this miscreant, there was only one man (called *Archangel*) who could write. A farrier was the person who impeached: and he, instead of the signatures, sealed with a horse-shoe; and Archangel, who performed the office of clerk, wrote round in these words in French, "Mark of M. de la Brie, counsel for the court." It was apprehended that the court of France would not ratify a sentence, given with such unusual formalities; and therefore most of the judges of the governor's crimes, and witnesses of his execution, disappeared. Only those remained whose obscurity

screened them from the pursuit of an estimate, taken in 1700, there were no more than 251 white people, 55 or mulattoes, and 525 slaves. They were reduced to 64 horses and 569. The whole culture consisted of 300 sugar and 51 of indigo.—The island in 1664 to the French West India 100,000 livres. This unfavourable was changed in 1714, owing to the condition of Martinico. The rich that island were sent to the Spanish their way touched at Grenada to the ments. The privateering traders took this navigation, taught the island the value of their soil, which cultivation. Some traders furnished tants with slaves and utensils to plantations. An open account was between the two colonies. Grenada its debts gradually by its rich produce balance was on the point of being the war in 1744 interrupted the between the two islands, and progress of the sugar plantations. supplied by the culture of coffee, suffered during the hostilities with necessity. The peace of 1748 revived and opened all the former sources of 1753, the population of Grenada was white people, 175 free negroes, and The cattle amounted to 2968 horns, 2456 horned cattle, 3278 sheep, 331 hogs. The cultivation rose to plantations, 1,725,600 coffee trees, 171 trees, and 800 cotton plants. It consisted of 5,740,450 trenches of coffee banana trees, and 243 squares of yams. The colony made a rapid proportion to the excellence of its 1762 the island was taken by the British one of the mountains at the George's harbour was strongly fortified have made a good defence, but sent out firing a gun; and by the treaty 1763 the island was ceded to British cession, and the management of the that event, the Abbe Raynal has the marks.—"This long train of evils," on and mismanagement of his count thrown Grenada into the hands of who are in possession of this conquest of 1763.—England has not made a ginning. In the first enthusiasm of conquest, of which the highest opinion previously formed, every one was to chase estates there. They sold for than their real value. This caprice, old colonists who were injured to the sent about L. 1,553,000 out of the me This imprudence has been followed The new proprietors, misled, no national pride, have substituted new those of their predecessors. They to alter the mode of living among The negroes, who from their are more attached to their customs men, have revolted. It hath been so

and out troops, and to shed blood. The colony was filled with suspicions. The persons who had laid themselves under a necessity of using violent methods, were afraid of being massacred in their own plantations. They have declined, or been totally interrupted. Quietness has at length been restored. The number of slaves has been increased as far as possible, and the produce has been raised to the level of what it was under the French government. The plantations will still be improved by the neighbourhood of a dozen of islands, called *GRENADILLOES*, that are dependant on the island. (See that article.) In 1779, the conquest of this island was accomplished by D'Estaing, French admiral. Immediately after his conquest of St Lucia, being reinforced by a Squadron of M. de la Motte, he set sail for Grenada with a fleet of 26 sail of the line and 12 frigates, on board 10,000 land forces. Here he arrived on the 2d of July; and landed 3000 troops, Irish, being part of the brigade composed of Irish in the service of France. They were conducted by Count Dillon, who directed them in such a manner as to surround the fort and harbour. To oppose these, Lord M'Cartney, the governor, had only about 150 men, and 300 or 400 armed inhabitants; but all resistance was evidently vain, he determined nevertheless to make an honourable and brave defence. The preparations he made were such as induced D'Estaing himself to be present at the attack; and, even with his vast superiority of force, the first attack on the entrenchments was unsuccessful. The 2d continued two days, when the garrison were obliged to yield to the immense disparity of numbers who assaulted them, after having killed or wounded 300 of the antagonists. Having thus made themselves masters of the intrenchments on the hill, they then turned the cannon of them towards the town which lay under it; on which the governor offered a capitulation. The terms, however, were so extraordinary and unprecedented, that the governor and inhabitants agreed in rejecting them; and determined rather to surrender upon any conditions, than upon those which were offered so extravagant. On this occasion D'Estaing is said to have behaved in a very haughty and arrogant manner; indulging his soldiers also in the unwarrantable liberties, and in which they had proceeded much farther, had they not been restrained by the Irish troops in the French service. In the mean time admiral Byron, who had been convoying the homeward bound West India fleet, hastened to St Vincent, in hopes of recovering it; but being informed, by the way, that a descent had been made at Grenada, he changed his course, hoping that Lord M'Cartney would be able to hold out till his arrival. On the 6th of July he came in sight of the French fleet; without regarding D'Estaing's superiority of ships of the line and as many frigates, determined if possible to force him to a close engagement. The French commander, however, was not confident of his own prowess as to run the risk of an encounter of this kind; and having already

achieved his conquest, had no other view than to preserve it. His designs were facilitated by the good condition of his fleet; which, being more lately come out of port than that of the British, sailed faster, so that he was thus enabled to keep at what distance he pleased. The engagement began about eight in the morning, when admiral Barrington with his own and two other ships got up to the van of the enemy, which they attacked with the greatest spirit. As the other ships of his division, however, were not able to get up to his assistance, these three ships were necessarily obliged to encounter a vast superiority, and of consequence suffered exceedingly. The battle was carried on from beginning to end in the same unequal manner; nor were the British commanders, with their utmost efforts, able to bring the French to a close engagement. Thus captains Collingwood, Edwards, and Cornwallis, stood the fire of the whole French fleet for some time. Captain Farthaw of the Monmouth, a 64 gun ship, threw himself singly in the way of the enemy's van; and admiral Rowley and captain Butchart fought at the same disadvantage: so that finding it impossible to continue the engagement with any probability of success, a general cessation of firing took place about noon. It recommenced in the same manner about 3 P. M. and lasted, with different interruptions, till evening. During this action some of the British ships had forced their way into St George's harbour, not imagining that the enemy were already in possession of the island. They were soon undeceived, however, by perceiving the French colours flying ashore, and the guns and batteries firing at them. This discovery put an end to the design which had brought on the engagement; and as it was now high time to think of providing for the safety of the British transports, which were in danger from the number of the enemy's frigates, the engagement was finally discontinued. During this action some of admiral Byron's ships had suffered extremely. The *Lion* of 64 guns, captain Cornwallis, was found incapable of rejoining the fleet which were plying to windward; and was therefore obliged to bear away alone before the wind. Two other ships lay far astern in a very distressed situation; but no attempt was made to take them, nor did the French admiral show the least inclination to renew the engagement. Grenada was restored to Great Britain by the peace in 1783. George's town, or St George's, is the residence of the governor; and the governor, gen. Matthew, made a proclamation to the citizens of a clock and bells in 1780. The garrison then consisted of artillery, two regiments of Europeans, and one of blacks. As there are several small islands subject to the laws enacted in Grenada, they each elect a person to represent them in the general assembly, which is always held in St George's. As none of the Grenadines have a harbour fit for large vessels, the produce of them is conveyed in small vessels to St George's, from whence it is exported to the different parts of Europe, Africa, America, &c. From the number of vessels that arrive there yearly from different places, and from its being the seat of the Legislature, it has become so populous, that two news papers are published in it. Although the

the peace of 1763, all the French inhabitants who inclined to remain in the island, became invested with the privileges of British subjects; and although these privileges were confirmed in 1768, yet the treatment which they experienced from the British settlers, proved to be extremely oppressive, that they at last broke out into a formidable insurrection. On the 21 March 1795, the old French inhabitants, being joined by the mulattoes under Fedon, seized the towns of Grenville and Gouyave, plundered the former, murdered 11 of the English inhabitants, and took the rest prisoners. On the 31b. 150 troops were sent against the rebels, but were obliged to retreat. The most barbarous massacres now took place on both sides; and gen. Lindley, finding himself unable to quell the insurrection, put an end to his own life. On the 16th April, gen. N. Chiles, arriving from Martinico, assumed the command, and various engagements took place, wherein sometimes the insurgents and sometimes the British had the advantage. In this distracted state the island continued till Dec. 1795, when the British landed a body of troops, who joined the rebels, and reduced great part of the island, but on the 15th June 1796, the French commander, M. J. St. Y., surrendered all the French posts by agreement to the British under gen. Abercrombie; and Fedon and his associates escaped into the woods, after having murdered all their prisoners. The British obtained complete possession on the 17th June; since which tranquillity has been restored. Lon. 61 40. W. Lat. 12. 0. N.

(2.—3.) *GRANADA*. See *GRANADA*.

(1.) *GRÉNADE*, a town of France, in the dept. of Landes, 7 miles E. of St Sever.

(2.) *GRÉNADE*, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Garonne, 12 miles NNE. of Toulouse.

(3.) * *GRANADE*, *n. f.* [from *ponum granatum*, Lat.] A little hollow globe or ball of iron, or other metal, about two inches and a half in diameter, which, being filled with fine powder, is set on fire by means of a small fusée fastened to the touch-hole; as soon as it is kindled, the case flies into many shatters, much to the damage of all that stand near. *Horris*.

(4.) *GRÉNADES*, or *GRÉNADES*, are thrown by the grenadiers into those places where the men stand thick, particularly into trenches and other lodgements made by the enemy. They were invented about 1694. The author of *the Military Dictionary* has the following remark on the use of grenades: "Grenades have unaccountably sunk into disuse, but I am persuaded there is nothing more proper than to have grenades to throw among the enemy who have jumped into the ditch. During the siege of Cassel, under Count de La Lippe, in the campaign of 1762, a young engineer undertook to carry one of the outworks with a much smaller detachment than one which had been repulsed, and succeeded with ease from the use of grenades; which is a proof that they should not be neglected, either in the attack or defence of posts." The word *GRANADO* takes its rise from hence, that the shell is filled with grains of powder as a pomegranate is with kernels.

(1.) * *GRÉNADIER*, *n. f.* [grenadier, French, from *grenade*.] A tail foot soldier, of whom there

is one company in every regiment: each is employed to throw grenades—

Peace alays the shepherd's fear

Of wearing cap of *grenade* or.

(2.) *GRANADIER* are armed with firelock, a bayonet, and a pouldrussade. They wear a cap, are the tallest and bravest fellows, and are always upon all attacks. Every battalion has generally a company of them; and the grenadiers belong to each company, of which, on division, are drawn out a company of themselves. These are the right of the battalion.

GRÉNADILLA. See *BAON*, §

GRÉNADILLOES, or § See *GRAN*

GRÉNADINES. § These islands

3 to 8 leagues each in circumference, to be all destitute of water, except the *marou*, wherein one spring has been discovered, which is kept locked up by a stone. The capital of that island is *St. Peter*, which has a church. See *GRANADA*.

* *GRÉNADO*, *n. f.* See *GRÉNAD*

Yet to express a Scot, to play the

Not all those mouth *grenades* can

—You may as well try to quench a *grénado* with a shell of fair water as hope *Watts*.

GRÉNAILLE, a name given by writers to a preparation of copper, of Chinese use as a red colour in some china, particularly for that colour which is *oil-red* or *red in oil*. The china with this is very dear. The manner in which to procure the preparation is thus: The Chinese no such thing as silver coined, they use in commerce bars or masses; these they pay and receive in large bars among a nation so full of fraud as the Chinese is no wonder that these are often adulterated with too great an alloy of copper. They pay ever, in this state in common payments, some occasions, however, such as the taxes and contributions, on which they require their silver pure and fine: on such occasions they have recourse to people, whose business it is to refine the silver, and separate it from the lead it contains. Thus they do it in furnaces for the purpose, and with very convenience. While the copper is in fusion, they take a brush, and dip the end of it in water; then, with the handle of the brush, they sprinkle it by degrees upon the melted copper; a little scale forms itself by this means on the surface of the matter, which they take off while the pincers of iron, and immediately throw it into a large vessel of cold water, it forms a powder which is called the *grénaille*; and the operation every time they intend to separate the copper; and this furnishes them as much *grénaille* as they have occasion for.

GRÉNAN, Benignus, professor of law at Harcourt, was born at Noyers, in Burgundy, 1681. He was the intimate friend of Voltaire, but his rival in poetry and eloquence.

oems in a pure stile, and his sentiments are it. He died at Paris in 1723.

NANT, a town of France, in the dept. of Marne, 10 miles S.E. of Langres.

NCHEN, a town of the Helvetic republic, Valais, 25 miles E. of Sion.

NOBLE, a large, populous, and ancient France, in the dept. of Here, and ci-devant of Dauphiny, anciently called **ACCUSI COLONIA**. See that article. It contains number of handsome structures, particularly arches and ci-devant convents. The leather goods made here are highly esteemed. It is on the Here, over which there are 2 bridges into a large street on the other side of the Lon. 5. 49. E. Lat 45. 12. N.

NVILLE, the capital of the island of Gre. It was plundered, and putly burnt by the regents, on the 2d March 1795. See **GRE** N° 1.

PPIN, a town of Germany, in the electo-Saxony, 2 miles NNW of Bitterfeld.

S, CAPE AU, a promontory of N. America, the E. side of the Mississippi, in the North Territory.

SHAM, Sir Thomas, an opulent merchant of London, descended from an ancient family of Norfolk. He was born in 1519. His father's king's agent at Antwerp, for taking up of the merchants. Being appointed to the office, he, in 1551, removed to that city with his family. This employment was suspended on the accession of Q. Mary, but, on proper retraction, was restored to him again. Q. Elizabeth knighted him, and made him her agent in parts. About this time, he built a large house on the W. side of Bishopsgate Street, named **GRESHAM COLLEGE**. His father had intended building a house or exchange for the merchants to meet in, instead of walking in the open street, but Sir Thomas went beyond his father's intention, and if the citizens would provide a proper piece of ground, to build a house at his own expense, which being accepted, he fulfilled his proper the plan of the exchange at Antwerp. On the 29th of Jan. 1570, when the new edifice was finished, the queen came and dined with the merchants; and caused a herald with a trumpet to proclaim it by the name of the *Royal Exchange*. In consequence also of a promise to endow a college for the profession of the seven liberal sciences, he made a testamentary disposition of his house in part for that purpose. See **COLLEGE**, § II. He left several other benefactions, and died in 1579. He had a mind every way suited to fortune, generous and benign: ready to do good actions, and encourage them in others. He was a great friend and patron of the learned martyrologist, John Fox. He was well acquainted with the ancient and several modern languages; he had a very comprehensive knowledge of all affairs relating to commerce, foreign and domestic; and his success was equal to it, he seemed the highest commoner in England, in his time. He transacted queen Elizabeth's mercantile affairs so constantly, that he was called *merchant*; and his house was sometimes

appointed for the reception of foreign princes upon their first arrival in London.

GRESHAM COLLEGE. See **COLLEGE**, § II N° 1.

GRESHOLM, an isle of Denmark, in the Scagerrack, 4 miles N.W. of Lessor isle.

GRESSEN, a town of Poland, in Samogitia, 20 miles NNE. of Mednik.

GRESSET, John Baptist Lewis, one of the most lively of the French poets, born at Amiens, in 1709. His *Verte-pris* is reckoned the best of his productions. He died in 1777.

GRESTEN, a town of Austria, 9 miles NE. of Bavaria Waidhofen.

GRETTA, a river of Yorkshire, which runs into the Tees, near Morton.

GRETE, a river of Westmoreland, which runs into the Lune, 2 miles S. of Kirkby Lonsdale.

GRETNA GREEN. See **GRAFTON**, N° 2.

GRETSYIL, or **GROBEE**, a town of Westphalia, on the borders of L. Friesland, 10 miles NNW. of Emden.

GRETTELSBERG. See **GREVELSBERG**.

GREVE AU LANCHAN, a bay on the NW. coast of the island of Jersey.

GREVEN, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Munster, 8 miles N. of Munster.

GREVENBROICH, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers, 10 miles NNE. of Juliers.

GREVENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and duchy of Westphalia, 16 miles W. of Brilon.

GREVERAD, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and duchy of Berg, 1 mile N. W. of Solingen.

GREVILLE, Fulke, lord Brook, a poet and miscellaneous writer, born in 1554, and descended from the noble families of Beauchamps of Powick and Willoughby de Brook. In company with his cousin Sir Philip Sidney, he began his education at a school in Shrewsbury: thence he went to Oxford, and afterwards to Cambridge. He next visited foreign courts, and thus added to his knowledge of the ancient languages a perfect knowledge of the modern. On his return to England, he was introduced to Q. Elizabeth by his uncle Robert Greville; and by means of Sir Henry Sidney, lord president of Wales, was nominated to some lucrative employments in that principality. In 1581, when the French commissioners, who came to treat about the queen's marriage with the duke of Anjou, were entertained with tilts and tournaments, Mr Greville, who was one of the challengers, so signalized himself, as to "win the reputation of a most valiant knight." He continued a constant attendant at court, and a favourite with the queen to the end of her reign; during which he obtained the office of treasurer of marine causes, a grant of the manor of Wedgnoek, and the honour of knighthood. In her reign he was several times elected M. P. for Warwickshire, and from the journals seems to have been a man of business, as his name often appears in committees. On the accession of K. James I. he was installed knight of the Bath; and soon after obtained a grant of the ruinous castles of Warwick, which he repaired at a considerable expence. In

1624, he was made under-treasurer, chancellor of the exchequer, one of the privy council, and gentleman of the bed-chamber; and in 1620, he was raised to the dignity of baron. He was also privy counsellor to K. Charles I. in the beginning of whose reign, he founded a history lecture in Cambridge. Having thus attained the age of 74, thro' a life of continued prosperity, universally admired as a gentleman and a scholar, he fell by the hands of an assassin, one of his own domestics, who immediately stabbed himself with the same weapon with which he had murdered his master. This fellow's name was Haywood; and the cause is said to have been a severe reprimand, for his presumption in upbraiding his master for not providing for him after his death. He had been witness to lord Brook's will, and knew the contents. Some say he stabbed him with a knife in the back, others with a sword. This affair happened at Brook-house, in Holborne. Lord Brook was buried with great pomp in St Mary's church at Wewick, in his own vault, over which he had erected a monument of black and white marble, ordering at his death the following inscription to be engraven upon the tomb: "Fulke Greville, servant to Q. Elizabeth, counsellor to K. James, and friend to Sir Philip Sidney. *Trophæum Peccati.*" He wrote several works in verse and prose, among which are, 1. Two tragedies, *Alaham* and *Mulapha*. 2. A Treatise of Human Learning, &c. in verse, folio. 3. The Life of Sir Philip Sidney. 4. An Inquisition upon Fame and Honour, in 86 Sonnets. 5. *Serilia*, a collection of 109 songs. 6. His Remains, consisting of political and philosophical poems.

GREVILLERS, a town of France, in the dept. of the Straits of Calais, near 2 miles W. of Bapaume.

GREVILLUS. See GRÆVUS.

GREUSSN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Schwartzburg, 16 miles N. of Erfurt.

* GREUT. *n. f.* A kind of fossil body.—A sort of tin ore with its *greut*; that is, a congeries of crystals, or sparks of spar, of the bigness of hay salt, and of a brown shining colour immersed therein. *Grew's Museum.*

(1.) GREW, Nehemiah, a learned English writer, of the 17th century, who had a considerable practice as a physician in London, and succeeded Mr Oldenburgh in the office of secretary to the Royal Society. In this capacity, pursuant to an order of council, he drew up a catalogue of the natural and artificial rarities belonging to the society, under the title of *Museum Regalis Societatis*, &c. 1681. He also wrote, besides several pieces in the Philosophical Transactions, 1. The Comparative Anatomy of the Stomach and Guts, fol. 2. The Anatomy of Plants, fol. 3. *Traктатъ de falsi Cathartici natura et usu.* 4. *Cosmologia Sacra*, or a Discourse of the Universe as it is the Creature and Kingdom of God, folio. He died suddenly in 1721.

(2.) * GREW. The preterite of *grow*.—

The pleasant talk he fails not to renew;

Soft and more fresh ev'ry touch it *grew*. *Dryd.*

GREWFSMEHLN, or a town of Mecklenburg, 14 miles W. of Wismar.

GREWIA, in botany, a genus of the *dria* order, belonging to the *gynandria* plants; and in the natural method ranking the 17th order, *Columifera*. The calyx is taphyllous; there are 5 petals, each with a slender scale at the base; the berry is singular. There are two species, &c.

1. GREWIA AFRICANA, with oval serrated leaves, is a native of Senegal, from whence its seeds were brought by Mr. Linn. In this country it rises with a stem 5 or 6 feet high, sending out many lateral branches with a brown hairy bark, and lanceolate spear-shaped serrated leaves; but the plant does not flower in Britain. This species it must be kept constantly in a warm place. In summer, they require a large dose of air, and should have water three or four times a week in warm weather; but in winter they should be sparingly watered. The negroes highly value a decoction of the bark, and a never failing remedy against venereal disease.

2. GREWIA OCCIDENTALIS, with oval leaves. It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet. Its stem and branches greatly resemble the small leaved elm, the bark being smooth and of the same colour with that when young. The leaves are also very like those of the elm, and fall off in autumn. The flowers are produced along the young branches from the axils of the leaves, and are of a bright purple colour. This species, though a native of a warm climate, bears the open air in this country; only to be sheltered in a green-house during winter, and may be propagated by cuttings or layers in pots filled with soft loamy earth.

(1.) * GREY. *adj.* [grey, French. *gris*, properly written *gray*.] See GRAY.—The Russian, Sir, while life I spared at suit of beard *Shak. King Lear*—

Our green youth copies what grey is.

When venerable age commends the fo

(2.) GREY, Lady Jane, a most illustrious and unfortunate lady, descended of the blood of England by both parents, was the eldest daughter of Henry Grey marquis of Dorset, and the daughter of Charles Brandon lord St. Mary the dowager of Lewis XII. king of France, who was the youngest daughter of Henry VIII. king of England. She was born in 1537, at her father's seat in Leicester. She covered an early propensity to all kinds of literature; and having a fine genius, improved the tuition of Mr. Elmer, she made a wonderful progress in the languages, arts, and sciences. She understood perfectly both kinds of philosophy, and could express herself very properly in Latin and Greek; and Sir Thomas Chaloner (in *Memorials*, Vol. III. p. 93.) says, that she was well versed in Hebrew, Chaldean, Arabic, and Italian. He adds, that "she played on the lute, and was a curious hand at the needle;" and that she adorned her musical instruments with a variety of sweet, assisted by all the graces which could bestow. In 1553, the duke of

Northumberland, who were now, after the fall of Somerset, arrived at the height of power, began on the decline of king Edward's health, to think how to prevent that reverse of fortune which, as things then stood, they foresaw must happen upon his death. To obtain this end, no other remedy was judged sufficient but a change in the succession of the crown, and transferring it into their own families, by rendering Lady Jane Grey. Those most excellent and amiable qualities, which had rendered her dear to all who had the happiness to know her, joined to her near affinity to the king, subjected her to become the chief tool of an ambition not her own. With this view she was married to lord Guildford Dudley, 4th son of the duke of Northumberland, without discovering to her the real design of the match; which was celebrated with great pomp in the end of May; and was so much to the king's satisfaction, that he contributed bounteously to the expense of it from the royal wardrobe. Edward VI. died in July following; and Lady Jane, with infinite reluctance, overpowered by the solicitations of her ambitious friends, allowed herself to be proclaimed queen of England, on the strength of a deed extorted from that prince by her father-in-law the duke of Northumberland, which set aside the succession of queen Mary, queen Elizabeth, and Mary queen of Scots. Her regal pageantry continued but a few days. Queen Mary's hereditary right prevailed; and the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey and her husband were committed to the Tower, and on the 13th Nov. arraigned and found guilty of high treason. On the 12th February following they were both beheaded on Tower hill. Her magnanimity in this dreadful scene was astonishing. Immediately before her execution, she addressed herself to the weeping multitude with amazing composure and coherency; and died in charity with that wretched world which she had so much reason to execrate. Thus did the pious Mary begin her reign with the murder of an innocent young creature of 18; who for simplicity of manners, purity of heart, and extensive learning, was hardly ever equalled in any age or country. But, alas! Jane was an obstinate heretic! Fleckenham, Mary's chaplain, visited her in the tower and tried to convert her to the catholic faith, but found her by far his superior in argument. Her writings are, 1. Four Latin Epistles; three to Bullenger, and one to her sister lady Catharine. The last was written the night before her execution, in a blank leaf of a Greek Testament: a circumstance which seems to have led Dr Watkins, in his *Biog. Diſt.* to say, it was written "in the Greek language." These letters are printed in a work entitled *Epistolæ Helveticæ Reformatoribus, vel ad eos scriptæ*, &c. Tiguri, 1742, 8vo. 2. Her Conference with Fleckenham. *Ballard.* 3. A letter to Dr Harding, her father's chaplain. Printed in the *Phoenix*, vol. ii. p. 28. 4. A Prayer for her own use during her confinement. In Fox's *Acts and Monuments.* 5. Four Latin verses; written in prison with a pin. They are as follows:

*Non aliena putes, homini quæ obtingere possunt:
Sors hodierna mihi, tunc erit illa tibi.*

Jane Dudley.

Deo juvante, nil nocet livor malus:

Et non juvante, nil juvat labor gravis.

Post tenebras spero lucem.

6. Her Speech on the Scaffold. *Ballard.* It began thus: "My Lords, and you good Christians, people who come to see me die; I am under law, and by that law, as a never erring judge, am condemned to die: not for any thing I have offended the queen's majesty; for I will wash my hands guiltless thereof, and deliver to my God my soul as pure from such trespass as innocence from injustice; but only for that I consented to that thing I was enforced unto, constraint making the law believe I did that which I never understood. &c.—Hollinghed, Sir Richard Baker, Bale, and Fox, tell us that she wrote several other things, but do not mention where they are to be found."

(3.) GREY, Richard, D. D. a learned English divine, born in 1693, and educated at Oxford, where he took the degree of M. A. in 1719. He obtained the rectories of Kilncote in Leicestershire and Hindon in Northamptonshire, with other benefices. He published many sermons and religious tracts; besides the following: 1. *Memoria Technica*, or a New Method of Artificial Memory; which the first edition was printed in 1730, and the 4th in 1756: 2. *A System of English Ecclesiastical Law*, 8vo, 1741: 3. *The miserable and distracted State of Religion in England, upon the Downfall of the Church established*; 8vo, 1736: 4. *A new and easy Method of Learning Hebrew without points*; 1738: 5. *Historia Josephi*, and 6. *Paradoxmata Verborum*, 1739: 7. *Liber Jobi*, 1741: 8. *Answer to Warburton's Remarks*, 1744: 9. *Novæ Methodus Hebraicæ discendi*, &c. 1751: and 10. A Translation of Mr H. Browne's poem, *Animi immortalitate*. He was married; and died Feb. 28, 1771, aged 78, leaving several daughters.

(4.) GREY, Zachary, LL. D. an English divine, born in 1687. He studied and graduated at Cambridge. He was vicar of St Giles's and St Peter's in Cambridge, and was author of about 30 different works; particularly *An Answer to Neal's History of the Puritans*; 3 vols 8vo. His edition of *Hudibras*, 1744, was satirized by Warburton and Henry Fielding. He died in 1766, aged 79.

GREY FRIARS. See FRANCISCANS.

(1.) * GREY-HOUND. *n. f.* [*grigbund*, Saxon] A tall fleet dog that chafes in light.—First may trusty greyhound transform himself into a tyger. *Sidney.*—

So, on the downs we see, near Wilton fair
A haſt'ned hare from greedy greyhounds go.

Sidney.

Th' impatient greyhound, ſlipt from his
Bounds o'er the glebe to catch the fearful hare.

Dryden.

(2.) GREY-HOUND. See CANIS, § I, vi. N° 7; and (2.) 11, 23. Among a litter of grey-hound puppies, the best are always those which are lightest. These will make the nimblest dogs as they grow up. The grey-hound is best for open countries where there is little covert. In these places there will sometimes be a course after a hare two or three miles or more, and both the dog and the game in sight all the while. It is generally supposed that the grey-hound bitch will be

the dog in running: but this seems to be an error; for the dog is both longer made, and considerably stronger, than the bitch of the same kind. In breeding their dogs, the bitch is principally to be regarded; for it is found by experience, that the best dog and a bad bitch will not get so good puppies, as an indifferent dog with a good bitch. The dog and bitch should be as nearly as possible of the same age; and for breeding perfect dogs, they should not be more than 4 years old. An old bitch may be used with a young dog, but the puppies of a young bitch and an old dog will never be good for any thing. The general food for a grey-hound is chippings or raspings of bread, with soft bones and gristles; and those chippings ought always to be soaked in beef or mutton broth. The proper exercise is courting him 3 times a-week, and rewarding him with blood; which will animate him in the highest degree, and encourage him to prosecute his game. But the hare also should always have fair play. She should have the *down*, as it is called; that is, have leave to run about 12 score yards before the dog is slipped at her, that he may have some difficulty in the course, and not pick up the game too easily. If he kills the hare, he must never be suffered to tear her; but she must be taken from him, his mouth cleaned of the wool, and the liver and lights given him by way of encouragement. Then he is to be led home, and his feet washed with butter and beer, and about an hour after he is to be fed. When the dog is to be taken out to course, he should have nothing in the morning but a toast and butter, and then he is to be kennelled till taken out to the field. The kennelling these dogs is of great use, always giving them spirit and nimbleness when they are let loose. The best way of managing a fine grey-hound is, never to let him stir out of the kennel, except when feeding, walking, or courting.

GREYLACH, a town of Germany in Carniola, 8 miles N. of Radolfswert.

GREY LEAGUE. See GRISONS.

GREVS AU, a town of Silesia, in Nieße.

GREZ, or GREZ EN BOUSRE, a town of France, in the department of Maine, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles ENE. of Chateau Gontier.

GREZELS, a town of France in the dep. of Lot, 8 miles N. of Moncuq.

GREZZANA, or } a town of the Veronese, in

GREZZANO, { Maritime Austria, according to the division of that province between the emperor and the Cisalpine republic, made by the treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797: but by the late conquest of the Veronese, by the French and Cisalpines under Gen. Brune in Dec. 1800, and subsequent annexation of the whole province, it is now in the Cisalpine republic. This town is 12 miles N. of Verona, and 2 of Breonio; and is seated near the *Bridge of Beja*, a remarkable bridge formed by Nature, which connects two hills together. Its arch is 10 Veronese feet broad, and no less than 114 feet high.

GRIAS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those of which the order is doubtful. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx quadrifid; the stigma sessile and cruciform; the fruit is a plum with an eight-furrowed kernel. There is but one species, viz.

GRIAS CAULIFLORA, the anchovy-tree, a native of Jamaica. The leaves are nearly oval, and about three feet long. It has a stringy bark, upon the upper part of which come forth the canes. The fruit is large, and contains a stone with 8 furrows. These fruits are eaten by the inhabitants.

GRIAZNUCHA, a town of Russia in the gov. of Saratov, 40 miles SSW. of Saratov.

GRIAZOVE FZ, a town of Russia in the gov. of Vologda, Lon. 58. 10. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 28. N.

GRIBALDUS, Matthew, a learned man of Padua, who left Italy in the 16th century, in order to make a public profession of the Protestant religion. After having been for some time possessed of the civil law at Tubingen, he was obliged to it, having imbibed some doubts respecting the doctrine of the Trinity: but he was seized at Basel, where he would have met with very severe treatment, had he not pretended to renounce his opinions; but as he relapsed again, he would certainly have been put to death, had he not died of a plague in 1664. He wrote *De methodo a studenti in juri civili*; and several other works which are esteemed.

GRIBNER, Michael Henry, a learned man of Germany, born at Leipzig in 1681. After spending some time in the Journal of Leipzig, he made professor of law at Wittenberg, whence he passed to Dresden, and was at last recalled to Leipzig to succeed M. Mencke. He died in 1751. Besides several academical dissertations, he wrote 1. *Principia processus judicarii*; 2. *Principia juris prudentiae naturalis*, a small work much esteemed; 3. *Opuscula juris publici et privati*.

GRICANE, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, 20 miles N. of Jassi.

* GRICE. *n. f.* 1. A little pig. *Could mean* 2. A step or greze.—

No, not a *grice*!

This is a step to love. *Shak. Twelfth Night*

* To GRIDE. *v. n.* [*gridar*, Ital.] To cut to make way by cutting. A word elegant, but not in use.—

His poignant spear hath thrust with puissant force,
That through his thigh the mortal steel did *gride*.
Spenser

So fore

The *griding* sword, with discontinuous wound,
Pass'd through him! *Milton's Paradise Lost*

* GRIDELIN. *adj.* A colour mixed of white and red.—

The ladies dress'd in rich *symars* were set,
Of Florence satten, flower'd with white and green,
And for a shade betwixt the bloomy *gridelin*.

Dryden's Fables

* GRIDIRON. *n. f.* [*grind*, Mianick, a grate, and *iron*.] A portable grate on which meat is laid to be broiled upon the fire.—He had added two bars to the *gridiron*. *Spektator*.

(1.) * GRIEF. *n. f.* [from *grieve*; *griff*, Wel, probably from the English.] 1. Sorrow; trouble for something past.—

I will instruct my sorrows to be proud;
For *grief* is proud, and makes his owner stout.

Shak.

—Wringing of the hands, knocking the breast, *are* but

emonies of sorrow, the pomp and of an effeminate *grief*, which speak not the greatness of the misery as the small-mind. *South.*—The mother was so affected by the loss of a fine boy, who was her only child, that she died for *grief* of it. *Addison.* 2. *Grief*. [*Grief*, Fr.] Not in use.—*Shak.* anxious for redress of all these *griefs*, will set this foot of mine as far as goes farthest.

The king hath sent to know the nature of your *griefs*, and whereupon the injury from the breach of civil peace should hostility? *Shak. Henry IV.* disease. Obsolete.

IEP. The influence of this passion on the body is very great. Its effects resemble in some respects those of fear, with, however, some difference owing perhaps to its being in general of longer duration. Grief diminishes the bodily heat, and particularly the force of the pulse and circulation; as appears by the frequent sighs and deep respirations which attend it, and is not to be necessary exertions, in order to the passage of the blood through the vessels, it diminishes perspiration, obstructs the discharge, produces paleness of the skin, various complaints, and scirrhus of the parts. It aggravates the scurvy, and the variety of putrid and contagious distempers; as people more apt to receive the infection. When it comes on suddenly, and to a great degree, it causes a palpitation of the heart, and renders the pulse irregular. Blindness, and sudden death, have followed the violence of this sensation. Its effects of changing the colour of the hair are well known. Opiates, and warm liquors, are good cordials in this case.

GRAM. in botany; a genus of the pentamerous class, belonging to the decandria class of plants. The calyx is quinquefid; there are 5 perianth-filaments persisting; and 5 monospermous seeds.

GRAUENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Austria, NE. of Steyregg.

GRABACH, a town of Austria, 2 miles N. of Vienna.

GRABURG, a town of Germany in Stiria.

GRABACH, a town of Germany, in Austria, NE. of Waidhofen.

GRABHEL, a fort of Germany, in Stiria.

GRACE, Constantia, a native of the county of Kerry in Ireland, was one of the most famous women on record, though she was born poor, and died at the age of 27, in which she was an excellent Greek and Latin scholar, and understood history, divinity, philosophy and mathematics. She proved her skill in her dedication of the Dublin edition of the works of lord Carteret, and by that of Terence; to whom she also addressed a Greek epistle. She wrote many elegant English poems, which were inserted by Mrs Barber at her own request. When lord Carteret was lord of Ireland, he obtained a patent for Mr Grace to be the king's printer; and to reward the uncommon merit of his wife, caused her life to be published in it.

GRIESBACH, a town of Germany, in Lower Bavaria, 14 miles W. of Passau.

GRIESKIRCHEN, a town of Austria, 6 miles SW. of Efferding, and 104 W. of Vienna.

GRIET, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Cleves, 4 miles E. of Cleves.

* *GRIEVANCE*. *n. s.* [from *grief*.] 1. A state of uneasiness. Out of use. 2. The cause of uneasiness. Used of such causes as are the effects of human conduct.—What remedy can be found against *grievances*, but to bring religion into countenance, and encourage those who, from the hope of future reward, and dread of future punishment, will be moved to justice and integrity? *Swift.*

(1.) * *To GRIEVE*. *v. a.* [*greuer*, French; *griever*, Flemish; *gravis*, Latin.] 1. To afflict; to hurt.—For he doth not afflict willingly, nor *grieve* the children of men. *Luke* iii. 33.—Forty years long was I *grieved* with this generation. *Psalms*.—It repented the Lord that he had made man on the earth, and it *grieved* him at his heart. *Gen.* vi. 6.—

Griev'd at the thought, he vow'd his whole endeavour

Should be to close those breaches. *Rowe.*

2. To make sorrowful.—When one man kills another, thinking that he killeth a wild beast; if the same man remembreth afterwards what he hath done, and is not *grieved* for the fact, in this case he hath sinned; because his not grieving is offensive unto God, though the fact were merely besides his will. *Perkins.*

(2.) * *To GRIEVE*. *v. n.* To be in pain for something past; to mourn; to sorrow, as for the death of friends. It has sometimes *at* and sometimes *for* before the cause of grief: perhaps *at* is proper before our misfortunes, and *for* before our faults.—Do not you *grieve at* this. *Shak.*—

How didst thou *grieve* then, Adam, to behold The end of all thy offspring, end so sad? *Milton.*

With equal mind what happens let us bear; Nor joy nor *grieve* too much for things beyond our care. *Dryden.*

* *GRIEVINGLY*. *adv.* [from *grieve*.] In sorrow; sorrowfully.—

Grievingly, I think,

The peace between the French and us not values The cost that did conclude it. *Shak.*

* *GRIEVOUS*. *adj.* [*gravis*, Latin; or from *To grieve*.] 1. Afflictive; painful; hard to be born.—To the flesh, as the apostle himself granteth, all affliction is naturally *grievous*. *Hooker*—Correction is *grievous* unto him that forsaketh the way, and he that hateth reproof shall die. *Prov.* xv. 10. 2. Such as causes sorrow.—To own a great but *grievous* truth, though they quicken and sharpen the invention, they corrupt the temper. *Watts.* 3. Expressing a great degree of uneasiness.—He durst not disobey, but sent *grievous* complaints to the parliament of the usage he was forced to submit to. *Clarendon.* 4. Atrocious; heavy.—

It was a *grievous* fault,

And grievously hath Cæsar answer'd it. *Shak.*—Crying sins I call those, which are so heinous, and in their kind so *grievous*, that they hasten God's judgments and call down for speedy ven-

grance upon the sinner. *Perkins*. 5. Sometimes used adverbially in low language.—

He cannot come, my lord; he's grievous sick. *Shak.*

* **GRIEVOUSLY**, *adv.* [from *grievous*.] 1. Painfully; with pain.—

Wide was the wound, and a large lukewarm flood,

Red as the rose, thence gushed grievously. *Spens.*
2. With discontent; with ill-will.—Gritus perceiving how grievously the matter was taken, with the danger he was in, began to doubt. *Knolles*. 3. Calamitously; miserably.—I see how a number of souls are, for want of right information, oftentimes grievously vexed. *Hooker*. 4. Vexatiously; to a great degree of uneasiness.—Houses built in plains are apt to be grievously annoyed with mire and dirt. *Ray*.

* **GRIEVOUSNESS**, *n. f.* [from *grievous*.] Sorrow; pain; calamity.—They fled from the swords, from the drawn sword, and from the bent bow, and from the grievousness of war. *Isaiah* xxi. 25.

GRIFALCO, 2 towns of Naples; viz. 1. in Calabria Ultra, 4 miles N. of Squillace: 2. in Otranto, 17 miles SE. of Otranto.

GRIFFB, a fort of Maritime Austria, in Dalmatia, near Spalatro.

GRIFFEN, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, 4 miles N. of Wolckenmark.

GRIFFENHAKEN, a town of Prussian Pomerania, in the duchy of Stettin, on the Oder. Lon. 54. 42. E. Lat. 53. 25. N.

(1.) * **GRIFFIN**. *n. f.* [This should rather (1.) * **GRIFFON**.] *n. f.* [This should rather be written *gryphon*, or *gryphon*; *gryps*, *gryph*; but it is generally written *griffon*.] A fabled animal said to be generated between the lion and eagle, and to have the head and paws of the lion, and the wings of the eagle.—Of all bearings among these winged creatures, the griffin is the most ancient. *Prædium*—Arctæus, a poet of Proconesus, affirmed, that near the encircled nations griffins defended the mines of gold. *Brown*.

(2.) The GRIFFON, GRYPHUS, by the ancients, was supposed to have 4 legs, wings, and a beak; the upper part representing an eagle, and the lower a lion: and to watch over gold mines, hidden treasures, &c. This imaginary animal was consecrated to the sun; and the ancient painters represented the chariot of the sun as drawn by griffons. M. Spanheim observes the same of those of Jupiter and Nemesis. The griffin is commonly seen on ancient arms; and is born in coat-armour. Guiliam blazons it rampant; allegorically, that any very fierce animal may be blazoned as well as the lion. Sylvester, Morgan, and others, use the terms *segræant* instead of rampant. The griffin is also an ornament of architecture in constant use among the Greeks, and was copied from them, with the other elegancies of architectural enrichments, by the Romans. See *SPHYNX*.

(3.) The GRIFFON in Scripture is that species of the eagle called in Latin *offruga*, the osprey; and *grif*, of the verb *grif*, *paras* to break. See *FALCO*, N° 9, 13.

* **GRIG**, *n. f.* [*Aricke*, Bavarian, a little duck.] 1. It seems originally to have signified any thing below the natural size. 2. A small eel. 3. A

merry creature. [Supposed from the *Grigulus festivus*, Latin.]

Hard is her heart as flint or stone,
She laughs to see me pale;

And merry as a grig is grown,
And brisk as bottled ale

GRIGNAN, a town of France, in the ment of Drome, 10 miles SSE. of Mout

GRIGNOL, a town of France, in the ment of Dordogne; 10 miles SSW. of

GRIGNOLS, a town of France, in the ment of Gironde, 9 miles SE. of Bazas

* **TO GRILL**, *v. a.* [*grille*, a grate, broil on a grate or gridiron.

* **GRILLADE**, *n. f.* [from *grill*.] broiled on the gridiron.

* **TO GRILLY**, *v. a.* [from *grill*.] signifies, as it seems, to harass; to harrow

For while we wrangle here and jar,
We are griled all at Temple bar.

* **GRIM**, *adj.* [*grimma*, Saxon.] countenance of terror; horrible; hideous.

The innocent prey in haste he doth
Which quit from death, yet quakes in
With change of fear to see the lion look

Grim Saturn yet remains
Bound in those gloomy caves with
chains.

Thou hast a grim appearance, and
Bears a command in't.

Their dear causes
Would to the bleeding and the grim
Excite the mortified man.

What if the breath that kindled the
fires,

Awak'd should blow them into scintils

Expert to turn the sway
Of battle, open when and where to die
The ridges of grim war.

He that dares to die,
May laugh at the grim face of law,
The cruel wrinkle of a tyrant brow.

Their swarthy hosts would darken
plains,

Doubling the native horror of the war
And making death more grim.

2. Ugly; ill-looking.—

So it stood up to him
Divine Ulysses; who with looks exceed
and grim,

This better check gave.

Grim visag'd war hath smooth'd his
front.

—Venus was like her mother; for her
but grim. *Shak.*

* **GRIMACE**, *n. f.* [French, from *grim* distortion of the countenance from habit, tion, or insolence.—

He had not spar'd to show his pique
Against th' haranguer's politicks,

With smart remarks of lecting faces,
And annotations of grimaces!

—The favourable opinion and good word
comes oftentimes at a very easy rate;

re looks and affected whims, set off with devotional postures and *grimaces*, and a little arts of dissimulation, cunning to wonders. *South.*—The buffoon apes, *aces* and gambols, carried it from the 1. *L'Espr.*—The French nation is addicted to *grimaçes*. *Spectator.* 2. Air of affectation. in a vizzard, to avoid *grimace*, all freedom, but to see the face. *Granv.* **GRIMALDI**, Francis, an eminent painter, called *Bolognese*, was born at Bologna in 1601, where he became a disciple of Annibal Carracci, which proved an honour to that illustrious school. From the school of Annibal he went to his studies at Rome, and improved himself until his superior talents recommended him to Innocent X. who afforded him immediate facilities of exerting his genius in his palace of Cavallo, and in the Vatican. His merit attracted the attention of the public, and increased his number of his friends; among whom was the Count of Pamphilio, and the principal nobility of Rome. His reputation reached cardinal Mazarin, who sent for him, settled a large pension on him, and employed him for three years in painting his palace and the Louvre, by the order of Louis XIII. The troubles of the state, and the calumnies raised against the cardinal, whose warmly espoused, put him so much in debt, that his friends advised him to retire to his native country. He did so, and painted a description of the exposition of the sacrament during the reign of Sixtus V., according to the custom of Rome. This picture was highly relished at Paris, and the king ordered him to paint such another for the gallery at the Louvre. Grimaldi after that returned to Rome, and found his patron Innocent X. but his successors Alexander VII. and Clement X. honoured him equally with their patron, and found him variety of employment. He was amiable in his manners, generous of counsel, respectful to the great without being obsequious, and charitable to the poor. The solace of his benevolence may serve to comfort the man. A Sicilian gentleman, who came from Messina with his daughter during the troubles of that country, was reduced to the want of bread. As he lived over against Grimaldi, he was soon informed of it; and in the evening, knocking at the Sicilian's door, he found him making himself known, tossed in and retired. The thing happening more than once, raised the Sicilian's curiosity to know the painter. Discovering him at last, by hiding behind the door, he fell down on his knees, and the hand that had relieved him. Grimaldi, surprised, offered him his house, and continued his friendship till his death. He died of a dropsy in 1680, and left a considerable fortune to his children. The genius of Grimaldi directed to landscape. His colouring is strong; his light and delicate; his situations are unpleasant; and the leafing of his trees is sometimes, indeed, his colouring appears too green; but those landscapes, painted in the manner of the Caracci, are models for all those who admire the Venetian school; and he designed his figures in

PART II.

an elegant taste. The pictures of this master are very rare, especially those of his best time; and when they are to be purchased, they afford large prices. Of his children, the youngest, named *Alexander*, proved a good painter, in the same style and taste with his father, though very far inferior to him: some of the pictures of Alexander, however, are either artfully, or injudiciously, ascribed to Francis.

* **GRIMALKIN**. *n. f.* [*gris*, French, grey, and *malkin*, or little *Moll.*] Grey little woman; the name of an old cat.—

Grimalkin, to domestick vermin sworn
An everlasting foe, with watchful eye
Lies nightly brooding o'er a chinky gap,
Protending her fell claws, to thoughtless mice
Sure ruin. *Philips.*

GRIMAUD, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 12 miles S. of Frejus.

(1.) **GRIMBERG**, **GRIMBURG**, or **GRIMPERG**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Sarre and Moselle, and ci-devant electorate of Treves, 16 miles SE. of Trier.

(2.) **GRIMBERG**, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Marck, 12 miles W. of Dortmund.

GRIMBERGEN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant, with a castle and abbey; one mile from the canal between Brussels and Antwerp, and 6 miles N. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 50. 57. N.

GRIMBURG. See **GRIMBERG**, N° 1.

GRIMBUSTERHOLM, one of the **ORKNEY** islands, near the coast of Pomona.

* **GRIME**. *n. f.* [from *grim*.] Dirt deeply insinuated; sullyng blackness not easily cleansed.—Swart, like my face, but her face nothing so clean kept; for why? she sweats: a man may go over shoes in the *grime* of it. *Shak. Comedy of Errors.*—Collow is the word by which they denote black *grime* of burnt coals or wood. *Woodward on Foss.*

* **To GRIME**. *v. a.* [from the noun] To dirt; to sully deeply.—

My face I'll *grime* with filth,
Blanket my loins, elf all my hair in knots. *Shak.*

* **GRIMLY**. *adv.* [from *grim*.] 1. Horribly; hideously; terribly.—

We've landed in ill time: the skies look *grimly*,
And threaten present blusters. *Shak. Winter's T.*

So Pluto, seiz'd of Proserpine, convey'd
To hell's tremendous gloom th' affrighted maid;
There *grimly* smil'd, pleas'd with the beauteous
prize,

Nor envy'd Jove his sunshine and his skies.

Addison's Cato.

2. Sourly; sullenly.—

The augurs

Say they know not; they cannot tell; look *grimly*,
And dare not speak their knowledge. *Shak.*

GRIMM, or } a town of Upper Saxony, in
GRIMMA, } Leipnick. It has a castle, three churches and a college. Its chief trade is in linens, flannels, thread, beer, and wood. It is 15 miles ESE. of Leipnick, and 42 WNW. of Dresden.

GRIMMEN, or **GRIMN**, a town of Pomerania, 14 miles S. of Stralsund. Lon. 13. 27. E. Lat. 54. 12. N.

GRIMMING, a mountain of Germany, supposed

posed to be the highest in Stiria, 16 miles W. of Rottenmann.

* GRIMNESS, *n. f.* [from *grim*.] Horror; frightfulness of visage.

GRIMNITZ, a town of Brandenburg, 1 mile NW. of Joachimsthal.

GRIMOLOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia, 46 miles NNW. of Kaminiac.

GRIMPERG. See GRIMBERG, N° 1.

GRIMSAY. See GRAMESAY.

GRIMSBY, a large sea port town of England, in Lincolnshire, 169 miles from London; said to be the second, if not the first, corporation in England. It had anciently 3 convents and a castle. It is governed by a mayor, high steward, recorder, 12 aldermen, 12 common council men, 2 bailiffs, 2 coroners, and a town clerk. It has several streets of good houses, and a church that looks like a cathedral. It was a place of great trade before its harbour was choked up; yet the road before it is a good station for ships that wait for a wind to get out to sea. Its chief trade is in coal and salt brought by the Humber.

GRIMSKEL, one of the Helvetic Alps.

GRIMSTA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 18 miles NE. of U idevall.

(1.) * GRIN *n. f.* [from the verb.] The act of closing the teeth and shewing them.—

He laughs at him: so's face too.

—O you mistake him; 'twas an humble grin,

The fawning joy of courtiers and of dogs.

Dryden.

—The muscles were so drawn together on each side of his face, that he shewed twenty teeth at a grin. *Addison.*—Deists are effectually beaten in all the combats at the weapons of men, that is, reason and arguments; and they would now attack our religion with the talents of a vile animal, that is, grin and grimace. *Watts on the Mind.*—

What lords are those saluting with a grin?

One is just out, and one is lately in. *Young.*

(2.) * GRIN *n. f.* [*gryn*, *gryne*, Sax.] A snare; a trap.—

Like a bird that hasteth to his grin,

Not knowing the perils. *Chaucer.*

—The grin shall take him by the heel, and the robber shall prevail against him. *Job xviii. 9.*

* To GRIN, *v. n.* [*grynnan*, Sax. *grinnen*, *grinden*, Dutch, undoubtedly of the same origin with *To grind*, as we now say to *grind the teeth*; *grincer*, Fr.] 1. To set the teeth together and withdraw the lips either in anger or in mirth.—

Death, death! oh, amiable, lovely death!

Come grin on me, and I will think thou art.

Shakspeare.

What valour were it, when a cur doth grin,

For one to trust his hand between his teeth,

When he might spurn him with his foot away?

Shakspeare.

—It was no unpleasant entertainment to me to see the various methods with which they have attacked me; some with piteous moans and outcries, others *grinning*, and only shewing their teeth. *Stillingfleet.*—

A Non's hide he wears;

About his shoulders hangs the shaggy skin;

The teeth and gaping jaws severely grin.

Dryden's Æneid.

They neither could defend, nor can;
But grin'd their teeth, and cast a look.

Madness, we fancy, gave an ill turn
To grinning laughter, and to frantick.

Fools grin on fools, and Stoicks say
Without one fag, the pleasures of a day.

3. To fix the teeth as in anguish.—I like grinning honour as Sir Walter hath; which if I can save, so; if not, I'll look'd for, and there's an end. *Shakspeare.*

GRINADIL, one of the Hebrides.

(1.) GRIND, a town of the French in the department of Essai, and late du Jura, 20 miles NNE. of Coblenz.

(2.) GRIND, an island near the coast of 9 miles NNW. of Harungen. Lon. 21. Ferro. Lat. 42. 18. N.

(1.) * To GRIND, *v. a.* *preter.* I *grind* pass *ground*. [*grindan*, *grynnan*, *grout*.

1. To reduce any thing to powder by friction by attrition.—And who soever on this stone, shall be broken; but on which it shall fall, it will grind him to powder. He that will have a cake out of the wheat needs tarry the grinding. *Shakspeare.*—What relation or affinity is there between mute body and cogitation, any more or grater? Is a small drop of rain any wider ocean? Or do we grind inanimate corn and rational meal? *Bentley's Sermon.* 2. To smooth by rubbing on something.

Meeting with time, slack things,

Thy fithe is dull; whet it, for shame!

No marvel, sir, he did reply,

If it at length deserve some blame;

But where one man would have me grind

Twenty to one too sharp do find it.

Against a stump his task the monster

And in the sharpen'd edge new vigour

Dryden.

3. To rub one against another.—

So up he let him rise; who with grin

And count'nance stern, upstanding, gain

His grated teeth for great disdain.

—Harsh sounds, as of a saw when it is set and the grinding of one stone against another a shivering or horror in the body, and set on edge. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—That the animals grind the substances which it is evident from the dissection of animals, which swallowed metals, which have been found on the side next the stomach. *Arbuthnot.*

4. To harass; to oppress.—Some merchant trademen, under colour of furnishing with necessaries, may not grind them; always keep them in poverty. *Bacon's Villiers.*—Another way the Spaniards is to grind the Neapolitans, and yet to take odium from themselves. *Addison.* 5. In lowing lines, I know not whether it is properly used for grinding, cutting.—

Not knowing 'twas my labour, I set

Of sudden shootings and of grinding

My throw came thicker, and my cries!

GRIND. *v. n.* 1. To perform the act ; to move a mill.—

Fetter'd they send thee
common prison, there to grind
the slaves and asses. *Milton's Agonistes.*
loved as in the act of grinding.—

Shrinking fibres start,
airy foam works o'er my grinding jaws.

Roscoe.

AL, a town near Burlington, Yorksh.

ELVALD, a town of the Helvetic re-
publicanton of Bern, 3 miles SSE. of Thun.

DER. *n. f.* [from *grind*.] 1. One that
that works in a mill. 2. The instru-
ment —

part a solid rock, to fear unknown,
dearer than the grinder's nether stone.

Sandys.

Now exhort

us to exercise the pointed steel
on hard rock, and give a wheely form
to the corrected grinder.

Philips.

Jobas, Sax. The back teeth; the dou-

ble teeth are in men of three kinds:

the fore teeth; broad, as the back-teeth,

all the molar-teeth, or grinders; and

the canine, which are between both.

Natural History.—

the raging lioness confounds,

the king lion with his javelin wounds;

their whelps, their grinders break; so

the old hunter starve for want of prey.

Sandys.

teeth or grinders, in Latin *molares*, are

round and broad a-top, and withal somewhat

rough, that, by their knobs and little

teeth may the better retain, grind, and

the aliments. *Ray on the Creation.*—Na-

great deal of labour to transmute ve-

get animal substances; therefore herb-

ivorous, which don't ruminate, have strong

teeth to chew much. *Arbut.* 4. The teeth,

contempt.—

who at sight of supper, open'd wide

before, and whetted grinders try'd.

Dryden's Juv.

Both he brought;

he brought them, and betwix't his grinders

he brought them, and betwix't his grinders

Dryden.

GRINDING, *n. f.* or TRITURATION, the

act of grinding or comminuting a solid body, and

reducing it into powder. See LEVIGATION, and

TRITURATION. The painters colours are grind-

able or porphyry, either with oil or

GRINDING is also used for rubbing or wear-

ing irregular parts of the surface of a body,

to bring it to the destined figure, whether

convex, concave, or the like. The grinding

of glass is a considerable art; for

GLASS-MAKING, *See* XIII.; and, for

optical glasses, see OPTICS.

GRINDING, in cutlery, the operation of

grinding edge-tools. This operation, as usually

attended with no small inconvenience,

is attended with a production of heat by friction. The

heat produced is so great, that hard tools are of-

ten softened and spoiled by the steel becoming ig-
nited, during the grinding. To prevent this ef-
fect, the grind-stone is partly immersed in a trough
of water; but in this case the rotation of the stone
must be moderate, and the work of course, slow,
else the water will be thrown off by the centrifug-
al force. When the water is applied from above
by a cock, the quantity is too small to counteract
the heat and preserve the necessary low tempera-
ture. It has even been found, that the edge or
point of a hard tool ground under water will be
softened, if it be not held so as to meet the stream,
sparks being often produced even under water.
To remedy this inconvenience, Mr Nicholson
made the following experiments. He procured a
Newcastle grind-stone of a fine grit, 10 inches in
diameter, and a mahogany block, to be used with
emery on it; both mounted on an axis, to be ap-
plied between the centres of a strong lathe. Both
were of the same diameter, and turned truly cy-
lindrical. The face of the mahogany block was
grooved obliquely in opposite directions, to afford
a lodgement for the emery: The face of the stone
was smooth, and a trough with water was placed
below it. The wooden cylinder was faced with
oil and emery. The tool to be ground was a file,
from which it was intended to grind off all the
teeth. The velocity of the rotation produced
by the lathe was so great as to turn the ap-
paratus about five revolutions in a second. Yet
the stone operated but slowly, and the trough was
quickly exhausted; so that the workman was ob-
liged to slacken the velocity on account of the
heat. The emery cylinder cut rather faster. But
although the friction was made to operate succes-
sively and by frequent changes on the whole sur-
face of the file, it soon became too hot to be held;
and when a cloth was used to defend the work-
man's hand, the work not only went on awkward-
ly, but the heat increased to such a degree, that
the oil was decomposed and emitted an empyreu-
matic smell. The stone was then allowed to dry,
and the file tried upon its face. It almost instan-
tly became blue, and very soon after, red-hot.
Both the cylinders were then covered with tallow,
by holding the end of a candle to each while turn-
ing round, and emery was sprinkled on the wooden
one. The file was then applied to the grind-stone
while in rapid motion. At first the friction was
hardly observable, but very soon afterwards, the
zone of tallow pressed by the file became melted,
and the stone cut very rapidly. Yet the file was
for a long time hardly heated at all; and when at
last it began to feel warm, its temperature was in-
stantly lowered by removing it to another zone of
the cylinder. The same effects were produced on
the wooden cylinder. This is easily explained u-
pon the modern theory of heat. When oil was
used on the wooden cylinder, the heat produced
by the friction was employed in raising the tempe-
rature of the file and the oil; but when tallow
was used instead of the oil, the greatest part of the
heat was exhausted in melting this substance. From
the increased capacity of the tallow when fused,
the heat was absorbed and became latent, instead
of raising the temperature: and when the melted
tallow began to grow hot, together with the file,
the temperature was easily reduced by employing

the heat on another zone of tallow. Mr Nichol-son used these two cylinders in a considerable quantity of work with great satisfaction. This discovery bids fair to be of great utility.

* GRINDLESTONE. GRINDSTONE. *n. f.* [from *grind* and *stone*.] The stone on which edged instruments are sharpened.—

—Such a light and mettled dance
Saw you never yet in France;
—And by the lead men, for the nonce,
—That turn round like grindstones. *Ben Jonson*.
—Literature is the *grindstone* to sharpen the cog-
tters, and to whet their natural faculties. *Ham-
mon*.
—Smiths that make hinges brighten them, yet sel-
dom file them; but grind them on a *grindstone*
All bright. *Moxon*.

(1.) GRINDON, a river of Northumberland, which runs into the sea near Berwick.

(2.) GRINDON, a town in Staffordshire.

(3.) GRINDON, a village in Durham.

(4.) GRINDON RICE, a village in Northumber-land, 9 miles N. of Wooler, memorable for a bat-
tle fought near it in 1468, in which the Scots were
defeated by the English under the earl of North-
umberland and his brother.

* GRINDSTONE. See GRINDLESTONE.

* GRINNER. *n. f.* [from *grim*.] He that grins.
The frightful grin grinner

Be the winner. *Addison's Spect.*

* GRINNINGLY. *adv.* [from *grim*.] With a
grinning laugh.

(1.) GRINSTED, EAST, a town in Wiltshire
near Salisbury, 29 miles from London, seated on
a hill, near the borders of Surry, and Ashdown
forest. It has a handsome church, which was re-
built after having been burnt down in 1683. On
the 12th Nov. 1785, the beautiful tower having
fallen to decay, fell down, and part lighting on
the church very considerably damaged it. An
hospital in the reign of king James I. for 31 poor
people of this town was built and endowed with
310 l. a year. It is a borough by prescription, go-
vern'd by a bailiff and his brethren; has sent bur-
geesses to parliament ever since the first of Edward
II, who are elected by about 35 burgage holders;
had a charter for a monthly market from Henry
VII and is generally the place for the assizes.
The returning officer here is the bailiff, who is cho-
sen by a jury of burgage-holders. Its market is on
Thursday, and its fairs, which are well frequen-
ted, are on July 13 and Dec. 11; which last is a
great market for Welsh runts, that are bought
up here by the Kentish and Sussex farmers, and
for fat hogs and other cattle.

(2.) GRINSTED, WEST, a borough in Sussex,
above 10 miles SW. of EAST GRINSTED, (N° 1)
18 N. of Lewes, and 29 S. of London. The coun-
ty assizes are sometimes held in it. Lon. O. 2. E.
Lat. 51. 12. N.

* GRIP. *n. f.* A small ditch. *Answorth*.

(1.) * GRIP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Grasp;
hold: seizure of the hand or paw.—

Therefore still on high
He over him did hold his cruel claws,
Threatning with greedy gripe to colonnally. *Spens.*
They put a barren sceptre in my gripe,
Thence to be wrench'd with an unlineal hand.
Shakespeare's Macbeth.

Should I

Slaver with lips, as common as the flame
That mount the Capitol; join gripe with
Made hardy with hourly falsehood as with

He gave me his hand,

And, with a feeble gripe, says, dear, my
Command my service. *Shakespeare's Ham-
let*.
I fell; and with my weight the helm moon
Was drawn along, which yet my gripe

2. Squeeze; pressure.—

For'd with this thought, at once be-
the breast;

'Tis true, the harden'd breast resists the
And the cold lips return a kiss ungrate

3. Oppression; crushing power.—

I take my cause
Out of the gripe of cruel men, and give
To a most noble judge the king my master

4. Affliction; pinching distress.—

Adam, at the news
Heart struck with chilling gripe of sorrow
That all his senses bound! *Milton's Par.*

Can't thou bear cold and hunger? *Shakespeare's Ham-
let*.

Fram'd for the tender offices of love,
Endure the bitter gripe of smarting passion

5. [In the plural.] Belly-ach; colic.—In
duce the choler is wanting; and the cause
a great fourth and gripe, with wind

(2.) GRIPES, (3 s, det. s.) in medicine,
choleric or painful disorder of the lower
caused by some sharp pungent matter
tine the parts, or by wind pent up in
times. See MEDICINE. Index.

(1.) * TO GRIP. *v. a.* [*gripan*, Goth.
Saxon; *gripan*, Dutch; *gripp*, Scot sh.
hold with the fingers closed; to grasp; to
with the fingers.—

He that speaks doth gripe the heart's
Whilst he that hears makes fearful ad
With weak'd brows. *Shakespeare's Ham-
let*.

2. To hold hard.—

He seized the shining bough with gripe
And rent away with ease the ring-ring gold

3. [*Griper*, Fr.] To catch eagerly; to sei-
You took occasion to be quickly w
To gripe the general way into your hands

4. To close; to clutch.—

Unlucky Welford; thy unfeeling mal
The more thou tickled, griper his hand th

5. To pinch, to press; to squeeze.—

A wond'rous way is for this lady w
From hon's claws to pluck the griper's prey
And hilt the dame came rushing thro
wood;

And next the famish'd hounds that soup
food,

And grip'd her flanks, and oft essay'd th
in blood. *Dryden's*

6. To give a pain in the bowels.—

Thus full of counsel to the den the w
Grip'd all the way, and longing for a vent

(2.) * TO GRIP. *v. n.* 1. To feel the
to have the belly ach.—Many people wou
reason, prefer the gripping of an hungry

which are a feast to others. *Locke*.—
he bulk, figure, texture, and motion
as a power to produce the sensations
and sometimes of acute pains or *grip-
pocke*. 2. To pinch; to catch at mo-
—It is mean revenue, by being scat-
worst of times growing upon him,
that had great ones, by *gripping*, made
d grew stark beggars. *Fell*.

* *n. f.* [from *gripe*.] Oppressor; u-
ioner.—Others pretend zeal, and yet
usurers, *grippers*, monsters of men,
Burton on Melancholy.

LABEN, a town of Germany, in the
lower Rhine, 3 miles N. of Erfurt.

NGLY. *adv.* [from *gripping*.] With
uts.—Clysters help, lest the medicine
uts, and work *grippingly*. *Bacon's Na-*

E. *n. f.* A greedy snatcher; a gripping
r.

OLM, a town of Sweden, in the Su-
25 miles N. of Stockholm.

ALD. See GRIEFWALD.

MBER. *n. f.* Used by *Milton* for am-

sts of chase, or fowl of game,
sult, or from the spit, or boil'd,
steam'd. *Milton's Paradise Reg.*

n. f. [See GREECE, as it should be
step, or scale of steps.—

speak like ourself; and lay a sentence,
a *grise* or step, may help their lovers
favour. *Shakespeare's Othello*.

3, a superstition greatly in vogue a-
groes in the interior parts of Africa.

according to Le Mire, are certain
eters mixed with magical figures
e Marabuts or priests upon paper.

is, that they are nothing else than
alcoran in Arabic; but this is denied

who brought over one of these grisgris
and showed it to a number of per-
skilled in oriental learning. None

d find the least trace of any character
ood. Yet, after all, this might be

e badness of the hand writing; and
e probably of the Mandingo language,
characters are an attempt to imitate

The poorest negro never goes to war
grisgris, as a charm against wounds;

es inefficual, the priest transfers the
e immorality of his conduct. These

t'inggris against all kinds of dangers,
r of all desires and appetites; by vir-

the possessors may obtain or avoid
y like or dislike. They defend them

enemies, diseases, pains, and misfor-
preserve health, long life, wealth, ho-

erit, according to the Marabuts. No

world are more honoured and reve-
eople than these impostors are by the

r are any people in the world more
l by their priests than these negroes

is being frequently sold at 3 slaves
xen. The grisgris intended for the

in the form of a cross, reaching from
to the neck behind, and from ear to

ear; nor are the arms and shoulders neglected.
Sometimes they are planted in their bonnets in
the form of horns; at other times, they are made
cut like serpents, lizards, or some other animals,
out of a kind of pasteboard, &c. There are
not wanting Europeans, and otherwise intelligent
seamen and merchants, who are in some degree
infected with this weakness of the country, and
believe that the negro sorcerers have an actual
communication with the devil; and that they are
filled with the malignant influence of that evil spi-
rit, when they see them distort their features and
muscles, make horrid grimaces, and at last imi-
tate all the appearance of epileptics.

GRISIGNANO, or } a populous town and dis-
GRISIGNONA, } trict of Maritime Aus-
tria, in Istria, on the N. side of the Quieto, 9 m.
E. of Capo.

* GRISKIN. *n. f.* [*grifgin*, roast meat, Irish.]
The vertebrae of a hog broiled.

GRISLEA, in botany: A genus of the mono-
gynia order, belonging to the octandria class of
plants: and in the natural method ranking under
the 17th order, *Calycantbeme*. The calyx is qua-
drifid; and there are four petals, one from each
incisure of it. The filaments are very long, as-
cending or running upwards; the capsule is glo-
bose, superior, unilocular, and polyspermous.

GRISLEHAMN, or } NEW, a sea port of
(1.) GRISLEHAVEN, } Sweden, in the prov.
of Uppland 50 miles NNE. of Stockholm.

(2.) GRISLEHAVEN, old, a seaport of Sweden
in Uppland 45 miles NNE. of Stockholm.

* GRISLY. *adj.* [*griflu*, Sax.] Dreadful; hor-
rible; hideous; frightful; terrible.—

His *grisly* locks, long grown and unbound,
Disordered hung about his shoulders round. *Spens.*

Where I was wont to seek the honey bee,
The *grisly* toadstool grown there might I see. *Spens.*

My *grisly* countenance made others fly;
None durst come near, for fear of sudden death.

Shaksp. Henry VI.

Back step'd those two fair angels, half amaz'd
So sudden to behold the *grisly* king;

Yet thus, unmov'd with fear, accost him soon.

Milton.

For that damn'd magician, let him be girt
With all the *grisly* legions that troop

Under the sooty flag of Acheron. *Milton.*

The beauteous form of fight
Is chang'd, and war appears a *grisly* sight. *Dryd.*

In vision thou shalt see his *grisly* face,
The king of terrors, raging in thy race. *Dryd.*

Thus the *grisly* spectre spoke again. *Dryden.*

Close by each other laid, they press'd the
ground,

Their manly bosoms pierc'd, with many a *grif-*
ly wound. *Dryden.*

So rushes on his foe the *grisly* bear. *Addison.*

GRISON, one of the GRENADILLOPS.

(1.) GRISONS, a people situated among the
Alps, and long allies of the Swiss, but now united

with the Helvetic republic. Their country is
bounded on the N. by the ci-devant counties of
Sargans and Bludenz, the canton of Glaris, and
the principality of Lichtenstein; on the S. by that

part of the Cisalpine republic, which comprehends
the ci-devant Italian bailiwicks, Chiavenna, and the
Valeteline;

Valteline; on the E. by the late territories of Venice and Milan, now included in the Cisalpine departments; and on the W. by some of the Italian bailiwicks, and the canton of Uri. It was divided into three leagues, viz. the *Grison or Grey League*, the *League of the House of God*, and that of the *Ten Jurisdictions*; which united formed one republic. The two first lie toward the S. and the third towards the N. The length of the whole is about 70 miles, and the breadth about 60. The inhabitants are said to have been named *Grisons*, from the grey coats they wore in former times. This country, lying among the Alps, is very mountainous; but the mountains yield good pasture for the cattle, sheep, and goats, with some rye and barley: in the vallies there is plenty of grain, pulse, fruits, and wine. It abounds also with hogs and wild fowl; but there is a scarcity of fish and salt, and their horses are mostly purchased of foreigners. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Inn, and the Adda. It has also several lakes, most of which lie on the tops of the hills. The language of the Grisons is either a corrupt Italian or the German.

(2) **GRISONS, CONSTITUTION OF THE.** The present constitution of the Grisons is the same with that of the *HELVETIC REPUBLIC*, to which it is joined. But its late constitution was very democratic. Each of the leagues was subdivided into several lesser communities, which were so many democracies; every male above 16 having a share in the government of the community, and a vote in the election of magistrates. Deputies from the several communities constituted the general diet of the Grison leagues, which met annually, and alternately at the capital of each league; but they could conclude nothing without the consent of their constituents. Each of the Leagues was subdivided into a certain number of communities, which were a sort of republics, exercising every branch of sovereignty, except that of making peace or war, sending embassies, concluding alliances, and enacting laws relating to the whole country, which belonged to the provincial diets of the several leagues. The particular diets were composed of a deputy from each community; and both in them and the communities every thing was, and we suppose still is determined by a majority of votes. In the communities, every male above 16 had a vote. Besides the annual provincial diets for choosing the chiefs and other officers, and deliberating on the affairs of the respective leagues, there were general diets for what concerned all the three leagues or the whole body. In both these, the representatives could do nothing of themselves, but were tied down to the instructions of their principals. There was a general seal for all the three leagues; and each particular league had a separate seal. Besides the stated times of meeting, extraordinary diets were sometimes summoned, when either the domestic affairs of the state or any foreign minister required it. In the general diets, the Grey League had 28 votes; that of the House of God, 23; and that of the Ten Jurisdictions, 15. These leagues, at different times, have entered into close alliances with the neighbouring cantons and their associates. The bailiwicks belonging in common to the three leagues were those

of the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Sondrio, united to the Cisalpine republic; Meylan, and Jemina; the officers of which nominated successively by the several cantons every two years. The yearly revenue of the Grisons from their bailiwicks amounted about 11,500 florins. The public revenues there are but small, though there are many persons in the country that are rich. In extraordinary emergency, they tax their proportion to the necessity of the service people's abilities. They have no regular army, but a well disciplined militia; and upon occasion can bring a body of 30,000 fighting men into the field: but their chief security arises from narrow passes and high mountains by which they are surrounded.

(3.) **GRISONS, GENERAL HISTORY.** This country was anciently a part of the empire. After the extinction of the Roman empire in the west, it was some time subject to its successors, or those of Swabia. Then the bishop of Bâle, and other petty princes, dependent on the emperors of Germany, became masters of the country: at last, by the extinction of some of them, and by voluntary grants, and force, it got into the hands of the lords, and was erected into three distinct lordships. This country, as well as the whole of Switzerland, has suffered much during the late war, having been repeatedly and successively run by the French and Austrians. As the peace will be resumed under the articles Rastatt and Warr, it is only necessary here to say that the Austrians were driven out of the country in 1799, by the French under Gen. Masséna. In 5 days took 10,000 prisoners, 40 pieces of cannon, and 20 standards, with great quantities of ammunition and stores: that on the 10th of August following the Grison leagues were united to the *HELVETIC REPUBLIC*, except the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, which had been united to the *CISALPINE*, at their own desire. In that in Summer 1799, this country was again overrun by the Austrians; and that in June Feldkirch and Coire were taken, and the country recovered by the French under General Courbe.

(4.) **GRISONS, LAKE JURISPRUDENCE.** Of the jurisprudence, &c. of the Grisons the following account is given by Mr. Cook in *Travels in Switzerland*. "Throughout the leagues the Roman law prevails, modified by municipal customs. The courts of justice in each community are composed of the chief magistrate, who presides, and a certain number of judges chosen by the people: they have no regular salaries, but receive for their attendance a fee arising in some communities from the expenses of the process, which are defrayed by the parties; in others from a share of the fines. They have the power of pardoning or diminishing the penalty, and of receiving a composition in lieu of punishment. This mode of proceeding supposes what is absurd in theory as it is contrary to experience: judges will incline to mercy when it is the interest to convict; or will impartially inflict punishment, even when injurious to their own advantage.—The prisoners are examined

ently tortured for the purpose of forcing, when the judges either divide the merit the punishment for a composition. But a criminal trial is a kind of festivity, for whom a good repast is the expence of the prisoner if convicted; the following allusion, in Garth's *Displeased* with more wit than truth to our office, is literally fulfilled:—

"wretches die, that jurymen may *dine*." Punishments, however, are extremely sumptuous arising not from a want of the penal statutes, or from a propensity of the judges; but because the latter derive advantages from fining, than executing.

In a word, to use the expression of which is as true at present as it was in former times, "Many crimes go unpunished, if the offenders commit them have either great credit or money." It is remarkable, that torture is frequently applied, and for smaller degrees than in these independant republics, than in the provinces. The infliction of it depends upon the arbitrary will of the judges: of whom may order it for an offence of capital, nor even punishable by courts of law. Thus it is not uncommon, in the provinces where fines are divided among the judges, to torture women of loose conduct, or those of compelling them to confess with a view to have been connected; for as such offences are punishable by fines, the more perverted, the larger share of money is among the judges for the trouble of inflicting it. Even in the districts where the torture is not applied to the community, torture is often only inflicted, because, when the prisoner is found guilty, the expences of the prosecution are paid by the public, and the judges receive a salary. Even in the civil courts most decisions are made by bribing the judges; and in the ecclesiastical communities, wherein they are actually employed, they serve any other end than to enquire after the truth, or to prevent corruption; Coire, and a few other places, are excepted from this general remark. It is fortunate for the Grisons, that this iniquitous system has been abolished by the French revolution.

GRISONS, RELIGION AND CHURCH GOVERNMENT. "The religion of the Grisons (Mr Coxe) is divided into catholic and reformed. The doctrines of the reformation were introduced about 1524, and received at Fläsch first in the Ten Jurisdictions upon the Rhodaners; from thence they were extended to the Layenfeld and Malantz, and soon afterwards to the whole valley of Pretigau. The reformation spread with such celerity, that before the middle of the 16th century they were embraced by the league of the Ten Jurisdictions (except the community of Alvenew), the community of the House of God, and a few communities of the Grey League. The difference of religion excited a civil war between the two leagues at the first introduction of the reformation, as at the beginning of the troubles in France. In the latter instance, the two leagues were in arms; but the Catholics being over-

powered by the Protestants, matters were amicably adjusted. Since that period all religious concerns have been regulated with perfect cordiality. According to the general consent of the three leagues, each community being absolute within its little territory, has the power of appointing its own particular worship, and the inhabitants are free to follow either the Catholic or Reformed persuasion. In the administration of civil affairs religion has no interference: the deputies of the general diet may be members of either communion, as chosen by the communities which they represent. By this moderate and tolerating principle, all religious dissensions have been suppressed, and the most perfect amity subsists between the two sects. In spiritual concerns, the Catholics for the most part are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Coire. For the affairs of the Reformed churches, each league is divided into a certain number of districts, the ministers whereof assemble twice every year: these assemblies are called *colloquia*. Each colloquium has its president, and each league a superintendant called a *dean*. The supreme authority in spiritual concerns is vested in the synod, which is composed of three deans, and the clergy of each league; the synod assembles every year alternately in each of the three leagues. Candidates for holy orders are examined before the synod. The necessary qualifications for admission into the church ought to be the knowledge of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin; but this rule is not strictly adhered to; many being ordained without the least acquaintance with either of those languages. Formerly Latin was solely used, as well in the debates of the synod as for the purpose of examining the candidates; but at present that tongue grows more and more into disuse, and German is employed in its stead. The number of reformed parishes in the whole three leagues amounts to 135, in the following proportion:—In the Grey League 46, in that of God's House 53, and in the League of Ten Jurisdictions 36. The ministers of these churches enjoy but very small salaries. The richest benefices do not perhaps yield more than L. 20, or at most L. 25 *per annum*, and the poorest sometimes scarcely L. 6. This scanty income is attended with many inconveniences. It obliges the clergy who have families to follow some branch of traffic, to the neglect of their ecclesiastical studies, and to the degradation of their professional character. Another inconvenience is superadded to the narrowness of their income. In most communities the ministers, though confirmed by the synod, are chosen by the people of the parish, and are solely dependent on their bounty. For these reasons, the candidates for holy orders are generally extremely ignorant. They cannot support that expence which is requisite to pursue their studies; they are not animated with the expectation of a decent competence; and, from the dependent mode of their election, are not encouraged to deserve their promotion by a consistent dignity of character.

GRISSAUNT, William, an eminent English Physician, Astronomer, and Mathematician of the 14th century. Being, from the ignorance and superstition of the times, suspected of magic, he retired to France, gave up mathematics, and applied

plied solely to medicine. His son was elected pope, and took the name of Urban V.

* GRIST. *n. f.* [*grist*, Saxon.] 1. Corn to be ground —

Get *grist* to the mill to have plenty in store,
Lest miller lack water. *Tusser's Husb.*

A mighty trade this lusty miller drove;

Much *grist* from Cambridge to his lot did fall,

And all the corn they us'd at scholar's hall.

Miller of Trump.

2. Supply; provision.—

Matter, as wise logicians say,

Cannot without a form subsist;

And form, say I, as well as they,

Must fail, if matter brings no *grist*. *Swift.*

3. *Grist* to *Mill*, is profit; gain.—The computation of degrees, in all matrimonial causes, is wont to be made according to the rules of that law, because it brings *grist* to the mill. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

* GRISTLE. *n. f.* [*gristle*, Saxon.] A cartilage; a part of the body next in hardness to a bone.—No living creatures, that have shells very hard, as oysters, crabs, lobsters, and especially the tortoise, have bones within them, but only little *gristles*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Lest the asperity or hardness of cartilages should hurt the oesophagus or gullet, which is tender and of a skinny substance, or hinder the swallowing of our meat, therefore the annular *gristles* of the windpipe are not made round, or in true circles; but where the gullet touches the windpipe, there, to fill up the circle, is only a soft membrane, which may easily give way to the dilatation of the gullet.

Ray on the Creation.

* GRISTLY. *adj.* [from *gristle*.] Cartilaginous; made of gristle.—At last they spit out pieces of their lungs; it may be small *gristly* bits, that are eaten off from the lung pipes. *Harvey*—She has made the back bone of several vertebræ, as being more fit to bend, more tough, and less in danger of breaking, than if they were all one indurated bone without these *gristly* junctures. *Morse against Atheism*—Fins are made of *gristly* spokes, or rays connected by membranes; so that they may be contracted or extended like women's fans. *Ray on the Creation*—They have a louder and stronger note than other birds of the same bigness, which have only a *gristly* windpipe. *Grew*—

Each pipe, distinguish'd by its *gristly* rings,

To cherish life aerial pasture brings. *Blackmore.*

GRISTO, a town of Pomerania, one mile SSW. of Cammin.

GRISTOW, an island of Saxony, in the Dine-mow, between Cammin and the isle of Wollin.

GRISWOLD, PORT. See GRAYTON, N° 1.

(1.) * GRIT. *n. f.* [*gritta*, *grat*, Saxon.] 1. The coarse part of soil. 2. Ours husked, or coarsely ground. 3. Sand; rough hard particles, —Silenus bole, crackling a little betwixt the teeth, yet without the least particle of *grit*, feels as smooth as soap. *Grew*—

The sturdy pear tree here

Will rise luxuriant, and with toughest root

Pierce the obstructing *grit* and resistive marl.

Philips.

4. *Grits* are fusible found in minute masses, forming together a kind of powder; the several

particles of which are of no determin'd size, but seem the rudely broken fragments of maffes; not to be dissolved or diffused, but retaining their figure, and not coherent maffes. One sort is a fine, dull looking, which, if whetted with saw water, into a paste, dries almost immediately, and turns to a hard stony maff, such as is not afterwards diffused by water. This is the *petrolanus* of the ancients, mixed among ments used in buildings sunk into the soil in France and Italy an ingredient in the plasters, under the name of *porax*, common on the sides of hills in Italy. *Grit*, which is a coarse, beautifully species, is the *chrysolite* of the ancients, used in soldering gold, long supposed as it serves the purpose of soldering more than borax. The ferruginous black *grit*, is the black shining sand employed over writing, found on the shores of the *on Fossils*.

(2.) GRIT, ARGILLACEOUS, a genus of laccous earths. Its texture is more or less equable, and rough to the touch. It does not fire with steel, nor effervesce with acids, fresh broken and breathed upon, it has an earthy smell. Mr. Kirwan mentions one from Hollington near Uttoxeter, of a grey or whitish grey, and about the specific gravity of 2.388. Another, from Knepp, is of the specific gravity of 2.563, and is as to be used for fire stones. According to him the *grit* stone is of greater or less weight, mostly of a grey, and sometimes of a reddish colour, composed of a siliceous and argillaceous sand, but rarely of a sparry kind; with smaller particles closely compacted by a siliceous cement. It gives some sparks with indissoluble for the most part in acids, and is able to stand a strong fire. It is used for mill stones and whetstones; and sometimes for flint and for building.

* GRITTYNESS. *n. f.* [from *grit*.] The quality of abounding with *grit*.—I could find no sand by the sea nor any *grittiness*. *Mort. Husb.*

* GRITTY. *adj.* [from *grit*.] Full of *grit*; consisting of *grit*.—I could not do without the unevenness of the surface of the powder, little shadows let fall from the *grit* thereof. *Newton's Opt.*

GRITZGALLEN, a town of Courland, SSW. of Scelburg.

GRIVE, John De LA, an eminent Fregrapner, born at Sedan, in 1689. He was among other works, *The Topography*, which is reckoned very accurate. He died in 1750.

GRIVENSKOI, a town of Russia in the province of Novgorod.

* GRIZELIN. *adj.* more properly GRIZELIN.—The Burgundy, which is pale red, of all others, is the best for our climate. *Temple.*

GRIZOLLES, a town of France in the department of Sarthe, 15 miles SSE of Sarthe, and 10 miles of Toulouze.

GRIZY, a town of France in the department of Oise, 5 miles NW. of Pont Oise.

* GR

GRIZZLE. *n. f.* [from *gris*, gray; *grisaille*, a mixture of white and black; gray.—*Au dissembling cub! what wilt thou be, me has sow'd a grizzle on thy face?*

Shak.

GRIZZLED. *adj.* [from *grizzle*.] Interth gray.—To the boy Cæsar send this ad. *Shak*—

His beard was *grizzled*: no.

as I have seen it in his life.

Shak.

His hair just *grizzled*,
green old age.

Dryden.

grizzled locks, which nature did provide
ous growth, their asses ears to hide.

Dryden's Juv.

GRIZZLY. *adj.* [from *gris*, gray, French.] gray.—Living creatures generally do
ir hair with age, turned to be gray and
is seen in men, though some earlier,
; in horses that are dappled, and turn
d in old squirrels, that turn *grizzly*.

GROAT, an isle in the Atlantic, on the W.
ance, and in the dep. of Morbihan, 4

and 1½ broad; 18 miles NNW. of
Lon. 14. 9. E. Ferro. Lat. 74. 37. N.

GROAN. *n. f.* [from the verb] 1. Breath
h noise and difficulty, from pain, faint-
ness.—

las, poor country,

ghs and *groans*, and shrieks that rend
air,

e, not mark'd!

Shak Macbeth.

o slaughter, and to slaughter leave;

from hence their dying *groans* receive.

Dryden.

aching bosoms wear a visage gay,

ed *groans* frequent the ball and play.

Young.

rse dead sound.—

hects of fire, such bursts of horrid
der,

ans of roaring wind and rain, I never

er to have heard. *Shak. King Lear.*

GROAN. *v. n.* [*granan*, Saxon; *gronen*,
To breathe with a hoarse noise, as in
ny.—

Many an heir

fair edifices, for my wars,

ard *groan* and drop. *Shak. Coriol.*

n from out of the city, and the soul

ded crieth out. *Joh xxiv. 12.*—Repent-

ining for anguish of spirit. *Wisd. v. 3.*

shall the world go on,

malignant, to bad men benign,

own weight *groaning*. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

can so peculiarly gratify the noble dis-

humanity, as for one man to see ano-

ch himself as to sigh his griefs and

ins. *South.*—

he blazing pile his parent lay,

l brother *groan'd* his life away. *Pope.*

GROANFUL. *adj.* [*groan* and *full*.] Sad;

Not used.—

he kest it with so puissant wrest,

again it did aloft rebound,

against his mother earth a *groanful*

l. *Spenser.*

PART II.

(1.) * **GROAT.** *n. f.* [*groot*, Dutch; *grosso*, Italian.] 1. A piece valued at four pence. 2. A proverbial name for a small sum.—

My mother was wont

To call them woollen vassals, things created

To buy and sell with *groats*.

Shak.

I dare lay a *groat*,

A tertian ague is at least your lot.

Dryden.

—Imagine a person of quality to marry a woman
much his inferior, and without a *groat* to her
fortune. *Swift.* 3. **GROATS.** Oats that have the
hulls taken off. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) **GROAT**, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) Other nations, as
the Dutch, Polanders, Saxons, Bohemians, French,
&c. have likewise their groats, groote, groches,
gros, &c. In the Saxon times, no silver coin
bigger than a penny was struck in England, nor
after the conquest, till Edward III. who, about
the year 1351, coined grosses, i. e. *groats*, or great
pieces, which went for 4d. a piece: and so the
matter stood till the reign of Henry VIII. who, in
1504, first coined shillings.

GROAT'S HOUSE. See **JOHN O' GROAT'S HOUSE.**

GROBBENDONCK, a town of the French
republic, in the dept. of Deux Nattes, and late
prov. of Austrian Brabant; 10 miles E. of Ant-
werp.

GROBINEN, a town in the duchy of Cour-
land, 28 miles SSW. of Goldingen.

GROBOVCPOLE, a town of Russia, in the
prov. of Ekaterinenburg; 40 miles W. of Ekateri-
nenburg.

(1.) * **GROCER.** *n. f.* [This should be written
grosser, from *gross*, a large quantity; a *grocer*
originally being one who dealt by wholesale; or
from *grossus*, a fig, which their present state seems
to favour.]—A *grocer* is a man who buys and sells
tea, sugar, and plumbs and spices for gain. *Watts's*
Logick.—

Bnt still the offspring of your brain shall prove

The *grocer's* care, and brave the rage of Jove.

Garth.

(2.) **GROCERS** anciently were such persons as
engrossed all merchandize that was vendible; but
now they are incorporated, and make one of the
companies of the city of London.

* **GROCERY.** *n. f.* [from *grocer*.] Grocers ware,
such as tea; sugar; raisins; spice.—His troops be-
ing now in a country where they were not expec-
ted, met with many cart loads of wine, *grocery*,
and tobacco. *Clarendon.*

GROCYN, William, a learned English divine,
of the 15th century, born at Bristol, in 1441. He
held a disputation at Oxford before K. Richard III,
who rewarded him liberally. In 1485, he was
made a prebendary of Lincoln. In 1488, he tra-
velled into Italy, and studied Greek under Politian
and Demetrius Chalcondylas, though he had ac-
quired that language before. Upon his return he
taught it, and introduced the true pronunciation
of it into England. He was the friend and patron
of Erasmus. He died at Maidstone, in 1522, of the
palsy, aged 80. His works are mentioned by Bayle.
His Latin Epistle to Aldus Manutius is prefixed
to Linacre's translation of Proclus de Sphæra.
Ven. 1494.

GRODECK, a town of Poland, in the palati-
nate of Bielsk; 40 miles SW. of Bielsk.

partly
it is an
merly
ish syna
Linen, w
factured
tuted. a

Lat. 49° 45' E. 2
GROEM, a l.

Cismar.

GROENDALE, a town of the French republic, in the department of Dyle, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant, on the lûche, 6 miles SE. of Brussels.

GROENLAND. See GREENLAND, N° 1, 1; § i.
* GROGERAM. } n. f. [gros gram, Fr. grolfo-
* GROGRAM. } granus, low Lat. Anyworth.
* GROGRAN. } Stuff woven with large wool
and a rough pile.—

Certes they're neatly cloth'd: I of this mind am,

Your only wearing is your grogeram. Donne.
—Natalia affords great store of chanelots and grograms. Sandys.—Some men will say this habit of John's was neither of camel's skin nor any coarse texture of its hair, but rather some finer weave of camelot, grogram, or the like. Brown.—The natural sweetness and innocence of her behaviour shot me through and through, and did more execution upon me in grogram, than the greatest beauty in town had ever done in brocade. Addison.
Plain goody would no longer down;

'Twas madam in her grogram gown. Swift.

GROHNDE, a town of Germany, in Calenberg, on the Weser; near which a bloody battle was fought in 1421. A monument is erected in memory of it. It lies 9 miles S. of Hameln.

(1.) * GROIN. n. f. [Of uncertain derivation.] The part next the thigh—

Antiplexus, a sonne of Priam, threw
His lance at Ajax thro' the preassie, which went
by him, and flew

On Leucus, wife Ulysses' friend: His groin it
smote. Chapman.

The fatal dart arrives,
And thro' the border of his buckler drives;
Pass'd thro' and pierc'd his groin; the deadly
wound

Cast from his chariot, roll'd him on the ground.
Dryden.

(2.) GROIN. In the *Philos. Transf.* vol. lxxvii. p. 459. we have an account of a remarkable case, where a peg of wood was extracted from the groin of a young woman of 21, after it had remained 16 years in the stomach and intestines, having been accidentally swallowed when she was about five years of age.

(3.) GROIN, among builders, is the angular curve made by the intersection of two semi-cylinders or arches; and is either regular or irregular. A regular groin is when the intersecting arches, whether semicircular or semieliptical, are of the same diameters and heights. An irregular groin is where

of Silesia, in Nicke.
town of Lithuania, in the
sed partly on an eminence,
surrounded with hills. Near
ch the diets of Poland for-
as 21 churches and a Jew-
about 7000 inhabitants.
cotton goods are manu-
re king Augustus III. mili-
ny in it; but the town is
is seated on the Niemen, 64
a, and 140 NE. of Warsaw.

Lat. 54° 15' E. 2
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one of the arches is semicircular, and the semieliptical.

GROINARD, an isle of Scotland, on coast of Ross-shire; 6 miles SE. of Udrigil.
GROLL, a town of the Batavian rep. the dep. of the Rhine, late county of Zutphen and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Guelderland seated on the Shingbe, and is strongly fortified. The French took it in 1672, and destroyed the fortifications. It lies 19 miles E. of Zutphen 19 SSW. of Oldenzael. Lou. 24. 10. E. 9. Lat. 51. 8. N.

GROMI, a town of Russia, in the gov. of Irkutsk, 112 miles N. of Balagansk.

GROMING, a town of Germany, in the (1.) * GROMWELL. n. f. [from German]

Gromm or graymull. A plant. Miller.

(2.) GROMWELL. See LITHOSPERMUM

GRONAW, a town of Germany, in the c. of Munster, 25 miles NW. of Munster

GRONENBACH, or GRUNENBACH, of Germany in Suabia, belonging to the c. of Kempten; 13 miles NNW. of Kempten.

GRONES, a cape on the NW. coast of GRONESSE, a fort in the island of Jersey 11 miles NW. of St. Helier.

GRONEY, a river of Wales, which runs the UK, in Brecknockshire.

(1.) GRONINGEN, the most northerly ci-devant Seven United Provinces, was on the N. by the German ocean; on the E. late county of Drenthe; on the E. by the ric of Munster, and the principality of Eastland; and on the W. by the province of land, from which it was separated by the E. Its greatest length from SE. to NW. was 47 miles; its breadth was very unequal, the east being about 12 miles. It has rich pastures, large herds of cattle, plenty of sea and river fish, and of turf, with some forests and corn. There are several rivers in it; the principal the Hunte, the Eems, and the Fivel; and a great number of canals and dykes. The consisted of the deputies of the town of Groningen, and the Ommeland, or circumjacent country; and held their assemblies always in the town. The province had anciently governors, who bore the title of burg-graves; but their power being taken away, the people enjoyed great privileges. After it became subject to the Bp. of Utrecht; but off his yoke at last, and recovered its liberty 1536, it submitted to Charles V. and in 1568, it submitted to Charles V. and in 1568, it submitted to the union of Utrecht. The college much the same here as in the other provinces, the provincial states, council of state, provincial tribunal, and chamber of accounts. Six deputies were sent to the states general. Of the clergy there were 160 ministers, who formed 16 classes, whose annual synod was held, by the Groningen and Appingedam. It is now in the Batavian republic, and department of Eems. See EEMS, N° 1.

(2.) GRONINGEN, a strong city of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Eems, and late ci-devant province, (N° 1.) is situated 12 miles from the German ocean, at the confluence of several rivulets, which form the Hunte. As Ships of considerable burden can get up to

ence of which it enjoys a good trade in
ice. Its university was founded in 1615,
and endowed out of the revenues of the
monasteries. The city, which was for-
merly of the Hanse towns, is large and popu-
lar; the seat of the high colleges, and con-
spicuous market-places, and 27 streets;
there are many fine houses, besides churches
and public structures. By the Fivel and the
Rhine was a communication with Westphalia.
It made such a gallant resistance against
the army of Munster, that he is said to have lost
more before it. Rodolphus Agricola and
two of the most learned men of their
age were born here. Under the jurisdiction of
a considerable district, called the *Gorecht*.
E. Lat. 53. 11. N.

UNINGEN MARK, a town of Germany,
in the circle of Wurtemberg, on the Rhine, 36
miles E. of Rastadt, and 7 N.W. of Stuttgard.

URBIA, in botany: A genus of the mor-
der, belonging to the pentandria class
and in the natural method ranking un-
der the order, *Cucurbitaceæ*. There are five
stamina inserted into a campanulated
calyx; the berry is dry, monospermous, and in-

NOVIUS, John Frederic, a very learn-
ed man, was born at Hamburg in 1613; and
travelled through Germany, Italy, and
France, made professor of polite learning at
Leiden, and afterwards at Leyden, where he
died in 1681. He published, 1. *Diatriba in Statii,
et Sestertiis*. 3. Correct editions of Se-
nus, Livy, Pliny's Natural History, Ta-
citus, Gellius, Phædrus, &c. with notes;
and several other works.

NOVIUS, James, son of the preceding,
a learned man, was educated first at Ley-
den, and then at England, where he visited
various libraries, consulted the curious MSS. and
made acquaintance with several learned men.
He was chosen by the grand duke to be professor
of Greek at a considerable salary. He returned
to Leyden, after he had resided two years in
England, and consulted the MSS. in the Medicean
Library. In 1679, he was invited by the curators
of the University to a professorship; and his inau-
guration was so highly approved of, that
they added 400 florins to his stipend, and
continued it to his death in 1716. His principal
works are, *The treasure of Greek antiquities*, in 13
volumes, and a great number of dissertations,
on the lives of ancient authors. He was com-
pared to Hippocrates for the virulence of his style;
and his severity, with which he treated other great
writers, differed from him, exposed him to just

FELD, a town and ci-devant county
seat, in the circle of Westphalia, now an-
nexed to the French republic, and included in the
department of the Lower Meuse. The town is 4
miles E. of Maëstricht.

ROOM. *n. s.* [*grom*, Dutch.] 1. A boy;
or a servant.—

He called the a groom, that forth him led
To his lonely lodge. *Spenser.*

From Egypt's kings ambassadours they come;
Them many a squire attends, and many a groom.

Fairfax.

Think then, my soul! that death is but a groom
Which brings a taper to the outward room.

Donne.

—In the time of Edward VI. lived Sternhold, whom
king Henry his father had made groom of his cham-
ber, for turning of certain of David's psalms into
verse. *Peacham.*—

Would'st thou be touch'd

By the presuming hands of saucy grooms? *Dryd.*

Am I? the fold he rages, nor the sheep

Their shepherds, nor the grooms their bulls can
keep. *Dryden.*

2. A young man.—

I presume for to intreat this groom,

And filly maid, from danger to redeem. *Fairf.*

3. A man newly married.—

By this the brides are wak'd, their grooms are
dress'd;

All Rhodes is summon'd to the nuptial feast. *Dryd.*

(2.) GROOM is also applied to several superior
officers belonging to the king's household, as
groom of the chamber, groom of the stole. See
STOLE, and WARDROBE.

(3.) GROOM is more particularly used for a ser-
vant appointed to attend on horses in the stable.

GROOMSPORT BAY, a bay of Ireland, on
the coast of the county of Down.

GROOSENROT, a town of Germany, in
Holstein, 32 miles NNE. of Oldenburg.

(1.) * GROOVE. *n. s.* [from *grave*.] 1. A deep
cavern, or hollow in mines.—He might, to avoid
idleness, work in a groove or mine-pit thereabouts,
which at that time was little esteemed. *Boyle.* 2.
A channel or hollow cut with a tool.—The screw-
plate is a kind of steel well temper'd, with several
holes in it, each less than the other; and in those
holes are threads grooved inwards, which grooves
fit the respective taps that belong to them. *Moxon.*

(2.) GROOVE, among miners, is the shaft or pit
sunk into the earth, sometimes in the vein, and
sometimes not.

(3.) GROOVES, among joiners, the channel made
by their plough in the edge of a moulding, style,
or rail, to put their pannels in, in wainscotting.

* TO GROOVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cut
a hollow.—Of the box every joint was well grooved.
Swift.

(1.) * TO GROPE. *v. n.* [*grapan*, Sax.] To feel
about where one cannot see.—

My sea-gown scarf about me, in the dark

Grop'd I, to find out them. *Shak. Hamlet.*

—We grope for the wall like the blind, and we
grope as if we had no eyes. *Is. lix. 10.*—

They meet with darkness in the clearest light;
And grope at noon, as if involv'd with night.

Sandys.

—A boy was groping for cells, and laid his hand
upon a snake. *L'Estr.*—This, no doubt, is better
for men than that they should in the dark grope
after knowledge; as St Paul tells us all nations
did after God. *Locke.*—

He heard us in our course,

And with his out-stretch'd arms around him
grop'd. *Addison.*

O' truth divine! enlighten'd by thy ray,
I grope and guess no more, but see my way.

Arbushnot.

(1.) * *To GROPE*, *v. n.* To search by feeling in the dark; to feel without being able to see.—How vigilant to *grope* mens thoughts, and to pick out somewhat whereof they might complain. *Hayward*.—They have left our endeavours to *grope* them out by twilight, and by darkness almost to discover that, whose existence is evidenced by light. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.—

But Strephon, cautious, never meant

The bottom of the pan to *grope*.

Savist.

GROPENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, one mile N. of Welach.

* GROPER, *n. s.* [from *grope*.] One that searches in the dark.

GROPPER, John, an able polemical writer, born in Westphalia. He published *Enchiridion Christianæ Religions*, and several other works. He died in 1559.

(1.) GROS, a liquid measure, used by the French Chemists, equal to 59.0703 grains.

(2.) GROS. See GROSS, N° 3.

GROSCA, an island in the Baltic Sea. Lon. 47. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 39. N.

GROSE, Francis, Esq. F. A. S. an eminent English antiquary, the son of Francis Grose, Esq. jeweller, of Richmond, who fitted up the coronation crown of king George II. He was born in 1731, and was left an independent fortune; but had not a disposition to preserve it. He wrote, 1. *The Antiquities of England and Wales*, in 8 vols. 4to. and 8vo, which he began in 1773, and completed in 1787; containing 589 views, besides 40 plans, &c. 2. *The Antiquities of Scotland*, 2 vols. 4to. and 8vo, containing 190 views with a map; 3. *The Antiquities of Ireland*, 2 vols. 4to. and 8vo; 4. *A Treatise on Ancient Armour and Weapons*, 4to. 1785; with a supplement in 1789; 5. *A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue*; 8vo. 1785; 6. *Military Antiquities*; 2 vols. 4to. 1786—88; 7. *The History of Dover Castle*; 4to. 1786; 8. *A Provincial Glossary, with a collection of Local Proverbs and Popular Superstitions*; 8vo. 1788; 9. *A Guide to Health, Beauty, Honour, and Riches*; 8vo. 10. *Rules for Drawing Caricatures*; 8vo. 1788; 11. *The Ohio; a collection of Essays*; 8vo. In summer, 1789, he set out on a tour in Scotland, and began to communicate his observations in folio numbers, with 4 plates each, in 1790. Before he had completed this work, he went to Dublin, with the intention of executing a similar work, with views and descriptions of the antiquities of Ireland, executed in the same elegant manner with those of Great Britain: but being seized with an apoplectic fit, at the house of Mr Hone in Dublin, he died on the 12th May, 1791, aged about 60. He had a great talent for drawing, which peculiarly qualified him for executing the works in which he engaged; and, being of an agreeable, humorous, and communicative disposition, he was much esteemed in the extensive circle of his friends. He visited almost every part of the three kingdoms, and was every where well received. His lamour was of that genuine kind, which exhilarates without offending either against virtue or good manners.

Yet a case of distress never failed to draw from his heart, and, where it was needed, from his purse. He married a lady at *Canterbury* by whom he had several children; of whom Daniel Grose, after serving several campaigns in America, was appointed Deputy Governor's settlement at Botany Bay, in 1790.

GROSEN, a town of Coupland, 28 miles Goldingen.

GROSLEY, Peter John, a French author, compiler, born at Troyes in 1718. He wrote the French *Encyclopedie*, and in the *Dictionnaire Historique*. He died at Troyes in 1783.

GROSON, a town of France, in the Jura, 3 miles SW. of Arbois, and 3 N. of

GROSONE, a town of Corsica, 3 miles Bastia.

(1.) * GROSS, *adj.* [*gross*, French; *gross* *lijan*; *crassus*, Latin.] 1. Thick; bulky.

The crows and choughs that wing the way air,

Shew scarce so gross as beetles. *Shakspeare*.

—There are two *gross* volumes concerning power of popes. *Baker on Learning*. 2. *Stupid*; *unskilful*; *enormous*—He *grossly* can how *gross* a thing it were for men of his wife and grave men, to live with such a man and to be tenants at will under them. *Hooker*. They can say that in doctrine, in church prayers, and in sacraments, the church hath very foul and *gross* corruptions. *Hooker* hath the natural understanding, even dry whole nations, been darkened, that they not discerned, no, not *gross* inquiry to *Hooker*.—There is a vain and imprudent their estates, which, though it does not like *gross* sins, yet disorders the heart, supports it with sensuality and dulness. *Law*. Intellectually coarse; palpable; impure; un-

To all sense 'tis *gross*,

You love my son; invention is aham'd,

Against the proclamation of thy passion,

To say thou do'st not. *Shakspeare*

Examples *gross* as earth exhort me.

Behold came last, than whom a spirit lewd

Fell not from heaven, or more *gross* to kick Vice for itself. *Milton*

—Is not religion so perfectly good in itself, all, in its Antheur, that, without the *gross* quality, we cannot but admire it? *Spenser* a *gross* mistake of some men, to think it wants only and imperfections do naturally us to be benignant. *Smarteridge*.—

But she dares never boast the present

So *gross* the cheat, it is beyond her power

4. Inelegant; disproportionate in bulk—

The sun's oppressive ray the mole at h

Of beauty blinding, gives the gloomy hue And feature *gross*. *Thomson*

5. Dense; not refined; not attenuated; 6.

—It is manifest, that when the eye fix the finer medium, and the object is in the things less greater, but contrariwise, the eye is placed in the *gross* medium, and just in the finer. *Bacon's Not. Hist.*—

Of elements,
 Or feeds the purer ; earth the sea,
 And the sea feed air. *Milt. Par. Lost.*
 Fumes are merry, *grosser* fumes are sad ;
 The reasonable soul run mad. *Dryden.*
 Look the mists in *grosser* air below,
 Their pinions in the painted bow. *Pope.*
 Dull.—

Both then the subtle sense excel,
 Are they that drown her in the blood ?

Davies.

A clear dream and solemn vision,
 Of things that no *gross* ear can hear.

Milton.

Can give more delight and knowledge by
 Tying of the question with perspicuity,
 Than others by talking of it in *gross*
 For whole hours together. *Watts.* 7.
 Rough ; opposite to delicate.—Fine and
 Captures are helped with nearness, and
 Distance. *Wotton's Architect.* 8. Thick ;
 —His stature was of just height and all
 The dimensions, avoiding the extremes
 Of meager. *Fell.*

GROSS. n. s. [from the adjective.] 1. The
 ; the main force.—

Belgians hop'd, that with disorder'd haste
 Per cut keels upon the sands might run ;
 With caution leisurely were past,
 Numerous *gross* might charge us one by one.

Dryd.

Asquists are of opinion, that, in a battle,
 Discharge upon the *gross* of the enemy,
 Veiling your piece at any particular per-
 . *Freeb.*—The *gross* of the people can
 Their prospect in the changes and revo-
 n of publick blessings. *Addis.* 2. The
 whole not divided into its several parts.
 General inducements are used to make
 Our cause in *gross*. *Hooker.*—There was
 In *gross*, that the soul was immortal.
Descrip. of the World.—There is confess-
 ion, the acknowledging our sins to God ;
 May be either general or particular : The
 When we only confess in *gross* that we
 The particular, when we mention the
 Sins and acts of our sins. *Duty of Man.*—

Remember, son,

A general : other wars require you ;
 The Saxon *gross* begins to move. *Dryd.*
 Standing the decay and loss of sundry
 Manufactures, yet, in the *gross*, we ship
 A third part more of the manufactures,
 Lead and tin, than we did twenty years past.
Trade. 3. Not individual ; but a body
 —He hath ribbons of all the colours i' th'
 They come to him by the *gross*. *Shak.*—
 Not instantly raise up the *gross*
 Three thousand ducats.

Shak.

Of the united design of many persons to
 One figure : after they have separated
 In many petty divisions, they rejoin
 Into a *gross*. *Dryd.* 4. The chief part ;
 Mass.—Comets, out of question, have
 Power and effect over the *gross* and mass
Bacon's Essay.—The articulate sounds
 Confused, though the *gross* of the sound
Bacon's Nat. Hist. 5. The number of

twelve dozen. [*Grosse*, French.]—It is made up
 Only of that simple idea of an unite repeated ; and
 Repetitions of this kind, joined together, make
 Those distinct simple modes of a dozen, a *gross*,
 And a million. *Locke.*

(3.) *GROSS*, a foreign money, in divers coun-
 tries, answering to our groat.

(4.) *GROSS*, [*Grossus*,] in our ancient law wri-
 ters, denotes a thing absolute, and not depending
 On another. Thus, *villain in gross*, *villanus in*
grosso, was a servant, who did not belong to the
 land, but immediately to the person of the lord ;
 Or a servile person not appendant or annexed to
 the land or manor, and to go along with the te-
 nures as appurtenant to it ; but like other personal
 goods and chattels of his lord, at his lord's plea-
 sure and disposal.

(5.) *GROSS*, *ADVOWSON IN*. See *ADVOWSON*.

(6.) *GROSS WEIGHT*, the weight of merchan-
 dizes and goods, with their dust and dross, as also
 of the bag, cask, chest, &c. wherein they are con-
 tained ; out of which *gross* weight, allowance is
 to be made of tare and tret.

(1.) *GROSSA*, a town of Germany, in Austria,
 3 miles S. of Baden.

(2.) *GROSSA*, an island of Maritime Austria, in
 the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia, 6 miles
 long and 1 broad, according to Mr Cruttwell ;
 but Dr Oppenheim says, it is no less than 30 miles
 in length, 4 in breadth, and 60 in circumference,
 and comprehends 13 villages.

GROSS-BEAK. See *LOXIA*.

GROSSBOROUGH, a town of Ireland, in the coun-
 ty of Monaghan, and province of Ulster.

GROSS-BOTWAR, a town of Suabia, in the
 duchy of Wurtemberg, 10 miles SSE. Heilbronn,
 and 13 NNE. of Stuttgart.

GROSSEL-FINGEN, a town of Suabia, in
 the county of Hohen-zollern, 7 miles E. of Hohen-
 zollern.

GROSSETA, or *GROSSETO*, a town of Tus-
 cany, 14 miles ESE. of Piombino.

GROSSETESTE, Robert, Bp. of Lincoln, a
 learned English divine of the 12th century, born
 about A. A. 1175. He was the author of many
 works, was a good Greek scholar, and esteemed a
 man of a clear intellect.

GROSSEUVRE, a town of France, in the dept.
 of Eure, 6 miles S. of Evreux.

* *GROSSLY. adv.* [from *gross*.] 1. Bulkily ;
 in bulky parts ; coarsely : as, *this matter is grossly*
pulverized. 2. Without subtilty ; without art ;
 without delicacy ; without refinement ; coarsely ;
 palpably.—Such kind of ceremonies as have been
 so *grossly* and shamefully abused in the church of
 Rome, where they remain, are scandalous. *Hooker.*

Treason and murder ever keep together,
 As two yoke devils sworn to others purpose ;
 Working so *grossly* in a natural cause,
 That admiration did not whoop at them. *Shak.*

And thine eyes

See it so *grossly* shown in thy behaviour,
 That in their kind they speak it. *Shak.*

What ! are we cuckolds ere we have deserv'd
 it ?

—Speak not *grossly*. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*
 —What I have said has been forced from me, by
 seeing a noble sort of poetry so happily restored
 by

by one man, and so *grossly* copied by almost all the rest. *Dryden*.—If I speak of light and rays as endued with colours, I would be understood to speak not philosophically and properly, but *grossly*, and according to such conceptions as vulgar people would be apt to frame. *Newton's Opticks*.—While it is so difficult to learn the springs and motives of some facts, it is no wonder they should be so *grossly* misrepresented to the public by curious inquisitive heads. *Swift*.

* **GROSSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *gross*.] 1. Coarseness; not subtilty; thickness; spissitude; density; greatness of parts.—

The purpose is perspicuous even as substance,
Whose *grossness* little characters sum up. *Shak.*

And I will purge that mortal *grossness* so,

That thou shalt like an airy spirit go. *Shak.*

—The cause of the epilepsy from the stomach is the *grossness* of the vapours which rise and enter into the cells of the brain. *Buron's Nat. Hist.*

Then all this earthy *grossness* quit;

Attir'd with stars we shall for ever sit,

Triumphing over death.

Milton.

—This being the first colour which vapours begin to reflect, it ought to be the colour of the finest and most transparent skies, in which vapours are not arrived at that *grossness* requisite to reflect other colours. *Newton's Opt.*—

For envy'd wit, like Sol eclips'd, was known
Th' opposing body's *grossness*, not its own.

Pope.
2. Inelegant fatness; unwieldy corpulence.—Wise men, that be over fat and fleshy, go to sojourn abroad at the temperate diet of some sober man; and so, by little and little, eat away the *grossness* that is in them. *Ajcham*. 3. Want of refinement; want of delicacy; intellectual coarseness.—I was three or four times in the thought they were not faeries; and yet the gulliness of my mind drove the *grossness* of the toppers into a received belief that they were faeries. *Shak.*—Whatever beauties it may want, 'tis free at least from the *grossness* of those faults I mention'd. *Dryd.*—What a *grossness* is there in the mind of that man, who thinks to reach a lady's heart by wounding her ears! *Clarissa*.

GROSSALZE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Magdeburg, famous for its salt works, 12 miles S. of Magdeburg.

GROSSTESTE, Claude, a French protestant divine, who came to London, on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He was minister of the Savoy. He wrote a treatise on the Inspiration of the Sacred Books, and several sermons. He died in 1713.

GROSSULARIA. See **RIBES**.

GROSSWIG, a town of Saxony, 4 miles SW. of Schmiedelburg. Amber is found near it.

GROSSZIG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Deßau, 19 miles SW. of Deßau.

* **GROT**. *n. f.* [*grotte*, French; *grotta*, Ital.] A cave; a cavern for coolness and pleasure.—

In the remotest wood and lonely *grot*,
Certain to meet that world of evils, thought.

Prior.

Awful see the Egerian *grot*.

Pope.

(1.) * **GROTESQUE**. *adj.* [*grotesque*, French;

grotesco, Italian.] Distorted of figure; wildly formed.—

The champaign head

Of a steep wilderness, whose hairy skin

With thicket overgrown, *grotesque* and

Accels deny'd. *Milton's*

—There is yet a lower sort of poetry and which is out of nature; for a farce is the try which *grotesque* is in a picture: the manners false, that is, not confining with the actions of a farce are all unnatural characters of mankind: *grotesque* is the balance of this. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*.

An hideous figure of their toes they
Nor lines, nor looks, nor shades, nor true,

And this *grotesque* design expos'd to view.

Palladian walls, Venetian doors,
Grotesco roofs, and stucco floors.

(2.) **GROTESQUE**, or **GROTESCA**, mixed painting, something whimsical, extremely monstrous; consisting either of things that are imaginary or so distorted, as to raise by ridicule. The word owes its derivation to the figures of this kind, being anciently used to adorn the *grottos* wherein the tombs of persons were inclosed. Such was that whose grotto was discovered near Rome years ago.

(1.) **GROTIUS**, Hugo, or more properly **DE GROOT**, one of the greatest men of his age was born at Delft in 1583. He made some progress in his studies, that at 15 he had some knowledge in philosophy, divinity, and a yet greater proficiency in polite letters as appeared by the commentary he had that age on Martianus Capella. In 1597 he accompanied the Dutch ambassador into England and was honoured with several marks of favour by Henry IV. He took his degree of LL. D. at that kingdom; and at his return to his country, pleaded at the bar before he was of age. He was not 24 when he was attorney general. In 1613 he settled at Amsterdam, and was nominated syndic of that city; he did not accept of the office, till a promise made him that he should not be removed. This prudent precaution he took from his knowledge, that the quarrels of the divines on the subject of grace, which had already given rise to factions in the state, would occasion trouble in the chief cities. The same year he was in England, on account of the divisions between the traders of the two nations with respect to the right of fishing in the northern seas; but he obtained no satisfaction. He was afterwards in England, to persuade the king and the divines to favour the Arminians; and he was several conferences with K. James I. on that subject. On his return to Holland, his attachment to Barneveldt involved him in great troubles; he was seized, and sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in 1619, and to forfeit all his goods and tithes. But after having been treated with favour for above a year and a half in his confinement, he was delivered by the advice and artifice

having observed that his keepers had tied themselves with searching and exact trunk full of foul linen, which used to be at Gorkum, but now let it pass without it, she advised him to bore holes in it, his being stifled, and then to get into compliance with this advice, and was carried to his friend's house in Gorkum; where dressed like a mason, and taking a rule and passed through the market-place, and on a boat went to Valvet in Brabant. He made himself known to some Arminians, and took a carriage to Antwerp. At first there was an intention of prosecuting his wife, who staid in Holland, and some judges were of opinion that she should be kept there in her husband's stead: but she was released by a plurality of voices, and was publicly applauded for her behaviour. He fled into France, where he met with a reception from that court, and Lewis granted a pension upon him. Having resided several years, he returned to Holland, on his receiving a very kind letter from Frederic Henry of Orange; but his enemies renewing their persecutions, he went to Hamburgh; where, in the court of Christina of Sweden made him her counsellor, and sent him ambassador into France. After he had discharged the duties of this office several years, he returned to give an account to the king of his embassy; when he took Holway, and received many honours at the king's court. He was introduced to her at Stockholm, where he begged that she would grant him that he might return to Holland. This he obtained with difficulty; and the queen gave him several marks of her esteem, though he had several enemies at her court too. As he was returning in the ship in which he embarked was cast on the coast of Pomerania; and being sick, he continued his journey by land; but he was forced to stop at Rostock, where he died on the 28th of November.

His body was carried to Delft, to be interred in the sepulchre of his ancestors. Notwithstanding the embassies in which he was employed, he composed a great number of excellent works, the principal of which are, 1. *De jure bellico*, which is esteemed a master-piece: 2. *De veritate* on the truth of the Christian religion: 3. *De prophetiis* on the holy scriptures: 4. The *annals of Holland*: and 5. A great number of *letters*: All written in Latin.

RIJUS, Peter, the 2d son of Hugh, (Noble) a famous lawyer and an acute philologist. He died in 1678.

RIJUS, William, brother to Hugh, was a famous lawyer, and wrote several books on law. He died in 1662.

ROTON, a township of Connecticut in Windham county, bounded on the W. by the town of New London. It contains 3,946 citizens in 1795. It contains **FORT GRISWOLD**, which defends the mouth of the Connecticut of New London.

ROTON, a town in the above township of New London city. It was burnt by the British, on the 6th Sept. 1781, and suffered a great amount of 23,217 l.

ROTON, a town and township of Mas-

sachusetts in Middlesex county, containing 1840 citizens, in 1795. The town is 35 miles NW. by W. of Boston, and 341 from Philadelphia. Lon. 71. 31. E. of that city. Lat. 42. 38. N.

(5.) **GROTON**, a small town of England, in Suffolk, between Sudbury and Hadley.

GROTSCAW, or **GROTSKAW**, a town of European Tur-

(1.) **GROTSKAW**, a key in the province of Servia, where a battle was fought between the Germans and Turks, in 1739, in which the Germans were forced to retreat with loss. Lon. 21. 0. E. Lat. 45. 0. N.

(2.) **GROTSKAW**, a province of Silesia.

(3.) **GROTSKAW**, a strong town, capital of the above province, seated in a fruitful plain. Lon. 17. 35. E. Lat. 50. 42. N.

(1.) **GROTTA**, a trading town of the Cisalpine republic, on the Adda, in the dep. of the Upper Po, abounding in honey and flax.

(2.) **GROTTA**. See **GROTTO**, § 2, 6.

(3.) **GROTTA FERRATA**. See **FRESCATI**.

(4.) **GROTTA MENARDA**, a town of Naples in Principato Ultra, 12 miles ESE. of Benevento.

(5.) **GROTTA ST LORIA**, a town of Naples in the prov. of Capitanata, 12 miles W. of Manfredonia.

GROTTAGLI, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Otranto, 9 miles of Tarento.

GROTTGAU, or **GROTTKAU**, a town and territory of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse, seated on the river Neisse, 14 miles N. of Neisse. Lon. 35. 19. E. of Ferro. Lat. 53. 41. N.

(1.) * **GROTTO**. *n. f.* [*grotte*, French; *grotta*, Italian.] A cavern or cave made for coolness. It is not used properly of a dark horrid cavern.—

Their carelets chiefs to the cool *grotto*s run,
The bow'rs of kings, to shade them from the sun. *Dryden*.

—This was found at the entry of the *grotto* in the Peak. *Woodward*.

(2.) **GROTTO**, or **GROTTA**, in natural history, a large deep cavern or den in a mountain or rock. The word is formed, according to Menage, &c. from the Latin *crypta*. Du Cange observes, that *grotta* was used in the same sense in the corrupt Latin. The ancient anchorites retired into dens and grottoes, to apply themselves the more attentively to meditation. **ELDEN HOLE**, **OKEY-HOLE**, **PEAKE'S HOLE**, and **POOL'S HOLE**, are famous among the natural caverns or grottoes of England. See these articles. In grottoes are frequently found crystals of the rock, stalactites, and other natural congelations, and those of an amazing beauty. M. Homberg conjectures, from several circumstances, that the marble pillars in the grotto of Antiparos vegetate or grow. That author looks on this grotto as a garden, whereof the pieces of marble are the plants; and endeavours to show, that they could only be produced by some vegetative principle. See **ANTIPAROS**. At Foligno in Italy is another grotto, consisting of pillars and orders of architecture of marble, with their ornaments, &c. scarcely inferior to those of art; but they all grow downwards: so that if this too be a garden, the plants are turned upside down.

(3.) **GROTTO**, (§ 1.) is also used for a little artificial edifice made in a garden, in imitation of a natural grotto. The outides of these grottoes are usually

ing, dissolve it in a glass-pan, to every ounce of which add two drams of the finest vermilion: when you have stirred them well together, and have chosen your twigs and branches, peeled and dried, take a pencil and paint the branches all over whilst the composition is warm; afterwards shape them in imitation of natural coral. This done, hold the branches over a gentle coal fire, till all is smooth and even as if polished. In the same manner white coral may be prepared with white lead, and black coral with lamp black. A grotto may be built with little expence, of glass, cinders, pebbles, pieces of large flint, shells, moss, stones, counterfeit coral, pieces of chalk, &c. all bound or cemented together with the above described cement.

(4.) GROTTTO, in geography, a district of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, in the territory of Carnia, on the Julian Alps.

(5.) GROTTTO DEL CANI, a little cavern near Pozzuoli, 12 miles from Naples, the steams whereof are of a mephitical or noxious quality; whence also it is called *bocca venenosa*, the poisonous mouth. See MEPHITIS. "Two miles from Naples (says Dr Mead), just by the Lago de Agnanno, is a celebrated mofeta, commonly called *la Grotta del Cani*, and equally destructive to all within the reach of its vapours. It is a small grotto about 8 feet high, 12 long, and 6 broad; from the ground arises a thin, subtil, warm fume, visible enough to a discerning eye, which does not spring up in little parcels here and there, but in one continued stream, covering the whole surface of the bottom of the cave; having this remarkable difference from common vapours, that it does not like smoke disperse into the air, but quickly after its rise falls back again, and returns to the earth; the colour of the sides of the grotto being the measure of its ascent: for so far it is of a darkish green, but higher only common earth. A dog I myself found no inconvenience by standing in it, so long as it did not rise above his head, and he was not at all affected by it."

owing to the columns of the mofeta, it promotes the contraction of the vessels, and the retarded circulation; the steam which remains in the vesicles of the lungs, may be sufficient to destroy the fluid. After the same manner it produces a *deliquium animi*: the lake of Agnanno has a greater virtue in it than others, and the person lying in this grotto was for a long time of a poisonous nature, and the same animals which breathed it, died. It is said that it destroyed the elasticity of the vessels of the lungs to such a degree as occasioned sudden death. It is also said that this steam is nothing else but the same which from time immemorial hath been known in that place in very great quantities, which cannot yet be investigated. Modern discoveries concerning it prove it to be pernicious when breathed in great quantity, by rarefying the blood, and hence the best method of recovery is to be apparently killed by fixed air, and then the degree of cold all over the body is to be condensed the blood as much as possible. The reason why the dogs recede from the lake Agnanno as above is because of the BLOOD, § 3, and DAMPS.

(6.) GROTTTO, or GROTTTO TERRENEA, a cavern near the village of Braccano in Italy, is thus described: "The *grotta del serpente* is large enough for two persons. It is perforated with several apertures, somewhat in the manner of which, at the beginning of the spring, issues a numerous brood of young serpents of various colours, but all free from any poisonous quality. In this cavern lie many persons, paralytics, arthritics, &c. quite naked; where the serpents remain for some time, and then the serpents are sold for the use of the people."

an elm growing hard by laden with them. discovery of this cave was by the cure of a going from Rome to some baths near this. Losing his way, and being benighted, he rested upon this cave. Finding it very warm, pulled off his clothes; and being weary and dry, had the good fortune not to feel the serpents about him till they had wrought his cure.

.) GROTO, MILKY, *Crypta Lactea*, a mile distant from the ancient village of Bethlehem, is so to have been thus denominated on occasion of the blessed Virgin, who let fall some drops of milk in giving suck to Jesus in this grotto. And as it has been commonly supposed, that the floor of this cavern has the virtue of restoring milk to women that are grown dry, and even of curing the same. Accordingly, they are always digging in the earth is sold at a good rate to such as have faith enough to give credit to the fable. An house has been built on the place, and a church erected by it.

ROTTOLA, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata, 4 miles SW. of Matera.

ROVA, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coast, 4 miles NW. of Cape Palmas.

.) GROVE, Henry, a learned and ingenious Presbyterian divine, born at Taunton in Somerset, in 1683. Having obtained a sufficient knowledge of classical literature, he went through a course of academical learning, under the rev. Mr. Allen of Taunton, who had a flourishing academy. He then removed to London, and studied under the rev. Mr. Rowe, to whom he was nearly attached. Here he contracted a friendship with several persons of merit, and particularly with Dr. Hoadly, which continued till his death, though they were of different opinions in several points of doctrine, and were often controverted among divines. After two years spent under Mr. Rowe, he returned into the country, and began to preach with great reputation. He had a sound judgment, a lively imagination, and a rational and amiable representation of Christianity, delivered in a sweet and well governed voice, which rendered him generally admired; and the spirit of piety which prevailed in his sermons procured him the esteem and friendship of Mrs. Singer, afterwards Mrs. Rowe, which she expressed in a fine letter on her death, addressed to Mr. Grove. Soon after beginning to preach, he married; and on the death of Mr. Warren, succeeded him in the academy of Taunton. This obliging him to reside there, he preached for 18 years to two small congregations in the neighbourhood; and though his salary both was less than 20l. a-year, and he had a large family, he went through it cheerfully. In 1708, he published a piece, intitled, *The Regimen of Diversions*, drawn up for the use of his scholars. About the same time, he entered into a dispute by letter with Dr. Samuel Clarke: they not being able to convince each other, the dispute was dropped with expressions of great mutual esteem. He next wrote several papers printed in the *Spectator*, viz. Numbers 588. 601. 626. 635. This last was republished, by the direction of Dr. Burnet bishop of London, in the *Evidences of the Christian Religion*, by Joseph Addison, Esq. In 1711 Mr. James, his partner in the academy, dying, he succeeded him in his pastoral charge at Taunton.

Fulwood, near Taunton, and engaged his nephew to undertake the other parts of Mr. James's work as tutor; and in this situation Mr. Grove continued till his death, which happened in 1738. His great concern with his pupils, was to inspire and cherish in them a prevailing love of truth, virtue, liberty, and genuine religion, without violent attachments or prejudices in favour of any party of Christians. He represented truth and virtue in a most engaging light; and though his income, both as a tutor and a minister, was insufficient to support his family, without breaking into his paternal estate, he knew not how to refuse the call of charity. Besides the above pieces, he wrote, 1. An Essay towards a Demonstration of the Soul's Immortality. 2. An Essay on the Terms of Christian Communion. 3. The Evidence of our Saviour's Resurrection considered. 4. Some Thoughts concerning the Proof of a Future State from Reason. 5. A Discourse concerning the Nature and Design of the Lord's Supper. 6. Wisdom the first spring of Action in the Deity. 7. A Discourse on Saving Faith. 8. Miscellanies in prose and verse. 9. Many Sermons, &c. After his decease, his posthumous works were published by subscription, in 4 vols 8vo, with the names of near 700 subscribers, among whom were some of the best judges of merit in the established church.

(2.) * GROVE. *n. f.* [from *grave*.] A walk covered by trees meeting above.—

I look'd toward Birnam, and anon methought
The wood began to move!

Within this three mile may you see it coming;
I say, a moving *grove*. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

Fortunate fields, and *groves*, and flow'ry vales;
Thrice happy isles! *Milton.*

She left the flow'ry field, and waving *grove*.
Blackmore,

Barish'd from courts and love,
Abandon'd truth seeks shelter in the *grove*.
Granville.

Can fierce passions vex his breast,
While every gale is peace, and every *grove*
Is melody? *Thomson's Spring.*

(3.) GROVE, in gardening, a small wood impervious to the rays of the sun. Groves are not only great ornaments to gardens; but also afford great relief against the violent heats of the sun, affording shade to walk under in the hottest parts of the day, when the other parts of the garden are useless; so that every garden is defective which has not shade. Groves are of two sorts, viz. either open or close. Open groves are such as have large shady trees, which stand at such distances, as that their branches approach so near each other as to prevent the rays of the sun from penetrating through them. Close groves have frequently large trees standing in them; but the ground under these are filled with shrubs or underwood: so that the walks which are in them are private, and screened from winds; by which means they are rendered agreeable for walking, at those times when the air is either too hot or too cold in other parts of the garden. These are often contrived so as to bound the open groves, and frequently to hide the walls or other inclosures of the garden; and when they are properly laid out, with dry

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walks

walks winding through them, and on the sides of these sweet smelling shrubs and flowers irregularly planted, they have a charming effect.

(4.) GROVES have been in all ages held in great veneration. The *proseuche*, &c. and high-places of the Jews, whither they resorted for the purposes of devotion, were probably situated in groves: See Joshua xxiv. 26. The *proseuche* in Alexandria, mentioned by Plutarch, had groves about them because he complains that the Alexandrians, in a tumult against the Jews, cut down the trees of their *proseuche*. The ancient Romans had a sort of groves near several of their temples, which were consecrated to some god, and called *lucus*, by An- tiphrasis, a *non lucendo*, as being shady and dark. The veneration which the ancient Druids had for groves is well known.

* To GROVEL. *v. n.* [*grifile*, Islandick. flat on the face. It may perhaps come by gradual corruption from *ground fill*.] 1. To lie prone; to creep low on the ground.

The steel head passage wrought,
And through his shoulder pierc'd; wherewith
to ground

He groveling tell, all gored in his gushing wound.

What let's it on there? King Henry's diadem,
Tach'd with all the honours of the world?

If so, gaze on, and grovel on thy face,
Until thy head be circled with the same.

Okemast and coeh, and corned fruit they eat,
Groveling like swine on earth, in lowest sort.

Now they lie
Groveling and prostrate on yon lake of fire.

Upon thy belly groveling thou shalt go.
—Let us conclude that all painters ought to re-
quire this part of excellence: not to do it, is to
want courage, and not dare to shew themselves;
to creep and grovel on the ground.

I must distinguish what's in his express;
His groveling sense will shew my passion less.

Several thoughts may be natural which are low
and groveling.

(1.) * GROUND. *n. f.* *'grund*, Sax. *grondt*,
Danish.} 1. The earth, considered as superficial-
ly extended, and therefore related to tillage, tra-
vel, habitation, or almost any action. The main
mass of terrene matter is never called the *ground*.
We never distinguish the terraqueous globe into
ground and water, but into *earth*, or land, and wa-
ter; again, we never say under *earth*, but under
ground.—Israel shall go on dry *ground* through the
sea. *Exodus. xiv. 26*—

Man to till the *ground*
None was, and from the earth a dewy mist
Went up, and water'd all the *ground*.

From the other hill
To their fix'd station, all in bright array,
The cherubim descend'd, on the *ground*
Gliding meteorous.

A black bituminous gurge
Boils up from under *ground*.

And yet so nimble he would bound.

As if he scorn'd to touch the *ground*.
2. The earth as distinguished from air or
—I have made man and beast upon the
Jeremiah—There was a Jew upon all the
Judges vi. 20—

They sum'd their wings, and for
an instant,

With clang despis'd the *ground*.

Too late young Turnus the delusion
Far on the sea, still making from the

3. Land; country.—

The water breaks its bounds,
And overflows the level *grounds*.

4. Region; territory.—

On heavenly *ground* they stood, and
shore

They view'd the vast immeasurable abode
With that same they, who from

Of old Euphrates to the brook that
Egypt from Syria *ground*, had general

Of Baalam's Affiaroth. *Milton's*

5. Estate; possession.—

Upright still within these narrow bounds
Thy next design is on thy neighbour's

His crop may test, to full perfection *ground*
Thy own seems thin, because it is

6. Land occupied.—

The sea overflow'd my *ground*.
And my best Flanders mare was drawn

7. The floor or level of the place.—We
should I smite thee to the *ground*.

—Dagon was fallen on his face to the
1 Sam. v. 4 —A multi-tude sit on the *ground*

8. Dregs; lees; tars; that which settles
bottom of liquors.—Set by them casks

four drink, or *grounds*. *Art*—one will
having had particular success in stopping

from the use of the *grounds* of stone beer
up with bread or oatmeal.

first stratum of paint upon which the figure
afterwards painted.—We see the limner to

with a rude draught, and the painter to
grounds with darksome colours.

solid bodies, sensible to the feeling and dis-
played on light and transparent *grounds*.

ample, the heavens, the clouds and water
every other thing which is in motion, and

different objects; they ought to be more
and more distinguishable, than that with

they are encompassed. *Dryden's Divesion*

The fundamental substance; that by which
additional or accidental parts are supported

Over his head
A well-wrought heaven of silk and gold

spread,
Azure the *ground*, the sun in gold shone

—Indeed it was but just that this fixed li-
ture should be drawn upon the most durable

Pope.—

is wrought into the soul, let virtues shine, and eternal, as the work divine. Young. Plain song; the tune on which descants —

Get a prayer book in your hand,
And between two churchmen, good my
d;
That *ground* I'll build a holy descant.

Shak. Richard III.

hint; first traces of an invention; that
as occasion to the rest. —

ugh jealousy of state th' invention found,
e reliu'd upon the former *ground*;
ay the tyrant had reserv'd to fly,
g hate, now serv'd to bring two lovers
h.

Dryden.

first principles of knowledge. — The con-
easily be known, if the fore *grounds* be
y beaten in. *Preface to Accidence.* —

statesmen, or of them they which can
d,

their occupation find the *grounds*. *Donne.*
grounds are already laid whereby that is un-
ly resolv'd; for having granted that
sufficient grace, yet when he co-operates
ually, he doth it not irresistibly. *Ham-*
fter evening repasts, 'till bed time, their
will be best taken up in the easy *grounds*
i, and the story of scripture. *Milton on*

14. The fundamental cause; the true
iginal principle. — He desired the stew-
him particularly the *ground* and event
cident. *Sidney.* — Making happiness the
his unhappiness, and good news the ar-
his sorrow. *Sidney.* — The use and be-
od laws all that live under them may
delight and comfort, albiet the *grounds*
original causes from whence they have
unknown. *Hooker.* — In the solution of
izer's objection, my method shall be, to
in the first place, the main *grounds* and
upon which he buildeth. *White.* —

Thou could'st not have discern'd
the serpent, speaking as he spake,
and of enmity between us known. *Milt.*
either of them ever think fit to make
ular relation of the *grounds* of their pro-
or the causes of their misadventures.
—

I judgment is the *ground* of writing well.

Roscommon.

once giv'n from her, and plac'd in you,
leave no *ground* I ever would be true.

Dryden.

easy to imagine how any such tradition
so early, and spread so universally, if
not a real *ground* for it. *Wilkins.* — If it
ought we not to conclude that there
ground and reason for these fears, and that
h not planted them in us to no purpose.
Thus it appears, that suits at law are
in themselves, but may lawfully be used,
no unlawfulness in the *ground* and way
ment. *Kettlewell.* — Upon that prince's
hough the *grounds* of our quarrel with
d received no manner of addition, yet
bought fit to alter his sentiments. *Swift.*
raculous increase of the professors of

Christianity was without any visible *grounds* and
causes, and contrary to all human probability and
appearance. *Atterbury.* 15. The field or place of
action —

Here was thy end decreed, when these men
rose;

And ev'n with theirs this act thy death did bring.

Or hasten'd at the least upon this *ground*. *Daniel.*

16. The space occupied by an army as they fight,
advance, or retire. — At length the left wing of the
Arcadians began to lose *ground*. *Sidney.* —

Heartless they fought, and quitted soon their
ground,

While our's with easy victory were crown'd.

Dryden.

— He has lost *ground* at the latter end of the day,
by pursuing his point too far, like the prince of
Conde at the battle of Seneffe. *Dryden's Fables,*
Preface. 17. The intervening space between the
flyer and pursuer. —

Ev'ning mist,

Ris'n from a river, o'er the marish glides,

And gathers *ground* fast at the labourer's heels,

Homeward returning. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

— Superiors think it a detraction from their merit
to see another get *ground* upon them, and over-
take them in the pursuits of glory. *Spectator.* —

Even whilst we speak our conqueror comes on,
And gathers *ground* upon us every moment.

Addison.

18. The state in which one is with respect to op-
ponents or competitors. —

Had'st thou sway'd as kings should do,

Giving no *ground* unto the house of York,

They never then had sprung. *Shak. Henry VI.*

If they get *ground* and 'vantage of the king,

Then join you with them like a rib of steel,

To make them stronger. *Shak. Henry IV.*

— He will stand his *ground* against all the attacks
that can be made upon his probity. *Atterbury.* —

Whatever *ground* we may have gotten upon our
enemies, we have gotten none upon our vices, the
worst enemies of the two: but are even subdued
and led captive by the one, while we triumph so
gloriously over the others. *Atterbury.* 19. State

of progress or recession. — I have known so many
great examples of this cure, and heard of its being
so familiar in Austria, that I wonder it has gained
no more *ground* in other places. *Temple.* — The

squirrel is perpetually turning the wheel in her
cage: she runs apace, and wearies herself with
her continual motion, and gets no *ground*. *Dryden.*

20. The foil to set a thing off. —

Like bright metal on a sullen *ground*,

My reformation glittering o'er my fault,

Shall shew more goodly, and attract more eyes,

Than that which hath no foil to set it off. *Shak.*

(2.) GROUND, in etching, denotes a gummous
composition smeared over the surface of the metal
to be etched, to prevent the aquafortis from eat-
ing except in such places where this *ground* is cut
through with the point of a needle. See ETCHING.

(3.) GROUND, in painting, (§ 1. def. 9.) is pro-
perly understood of such parts of the piece, as have
nothing painted on them, but retain the original
colour upon which the other colours are applied
to make the representations. A building is said to
serve as a good *ground* to a figure when the figure is

painted on the building. The ground behind a picture in miniature, is commonly blue or crimson imitating a curtain of satin or velvet.

(4.) * **GROUND.** The preterite and part. pass. of *grind*—

How dull and rugged, ere 'tis *ground*

And polish'd, looks a diamond. *Hudibras.*

(5.) * **GROUND** is much used in composition for that which is next the ground, or near the ground.

* **To GROUND.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To fix on the ground. 2. To found, as upon cause, reason, or principle—*Wisdom groundeth her laws upon an infallible rule of comparison. Hooker.*—The church of England, walking in the good and old way of the orthodoxal primitive fathers, *groundeth* the religious observation of the Lord's-day, and of other Christian holidays, upon the natural equity, and not upon the letter of the fourth commandment. *White*—It may serve us to *ground* conjectures more approaching to the truth than we have hitherto met with. *Boyle.*—

If your own actions on your will you *ground*,

Mine shall hereafter know no other bound. *Dryd.*

—Some eminent spirit, having signalized his valour, becomes to have afluence to the people, to grow their leader in warlike expeditions; and this is *grounded* upon the principles of nature and common reason, which, where prudence and courage are required, rather incite us to fly to a single person than a multitude. *Swift.*—3. To settle in first principles or rudiments of knowledge.—Being rooted and *grounded* in love. *Eph. iii. 17.*

GROUND ANGLING, fishing under water without a float, only with a plumb of lead, or a bullet, placed about 9 inches from the hook; which is better, because it will not sink on the ground. This method of fishing is most proper in cold weather, when the fish swim very low. The morning and evening are the chief seasons for the ground-line in fishing for trout; but if the day prove cloudy, or the water muddy, you may fish at ground all day.

* **GROUND ASH.** *n. f.* A sapling of ash taken from the ground; not a branch cut from a tree.—

A lance of tough *ground ash* the Trojan threw,

Rough in the rind, and knotted as it grew. *Dryd.*—Some cut the young ashes off about an inch above the ground, which causes them to make very large straight shoots, which they call *ground-ash*. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

* **GROUND-BAIT.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *bait*.] A bait made of barley or malt boiled; which, being thrown into the place where you design to angle, sinks to the bottom, and draws the fish to it.—Take the depth of the place, where you mean after to cast your *ground bait*, and to fish. *Walton's Angler.*

* **GROUNDLEDLY.** *adv.* [from *grounded*.] Upon firm principles.—He hath given the first hint of speaking *groundedly*, and to the purpose, upon this subject. *Glanville.*

* **GROUND-FLOOR.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *floor*.] The lower story of a house.

(1.) * **GROUND IVY.** *n. f.* [*Aedera terrestris*, Lat.] A herb, or trailing plant.—*Alehouse* or *ground ivy* is, in my opinion, of the most excellent use and virtue of any plants among us. *Temple.*

(2.) **GROUND IVY**, in botany. See *GLAUC*

* **GROUNDLESS.** *adj.* [from *ground*.] Without reason; wanting ground.—

But when vain doubt and *groundless* fear
Do that dear foolish bosom tear.

—We have great reason to look upon the pretensions which the Roman church makes as *groundless*, and to reject her fabulous accounts of them. *Atterbury.*—A man who distinguishes himself by their zeal, present establishment, should be careful to pay such a reverence for religion, as not to be *groundless* that reproach is which not only them, of being averse to our national religion. *Freeholder.*

* **GROUNDLESSLY.** *adv.* [from *groundless*.] Without reason; without cause; without reason.—Divers persons have produced by spirit of vitriol, or juice of lemons, *groundlessly* ascribed the effect to some quality of those two liquors. *Boyle on Colours.*

* **GROUNDLESSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *groundless*.] Want of just reason.—He does not want words either of my book or sermons, lest he should have discovered the notoriety and *groundlessness* of his calumny. *Telegraph.*

* **GROUNDLING.** *n. f.* [from *ground*.] A fish which keeps at the bottom of the water, one of the low vulgar. *Hammer*—It offers the soul, to hear a robustious perjury, low tear a passion to tatters, to very rap, the ears of the *groundlings*. *Shakspeare.*

* **GROUNDLY.** *adv.* [from *ground*.] Principally; solidly; not superficially.—use—A man, *groundly* learned already, much profit himself, in using by epitome to other men's works, for his own memory to shorter room. *Shakspeare.*

GROUND NETS. See *ARACHIS.*

* **GROUND-OAK.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *oak*.] The planting of oaks were more in use for the making of hoops, either of stave or ring, one hoop made of the young shoots of *oak*, would outlast six of the best *ash*. *Boyle.*

(1.) * **GROUND-PINE.** *n. f.* [*Pinus terrestris*, L.] A plant.—The whole plant has a very strong smell, resembling that of resin; whence its *ground-pine*. It grows on dry and barren and in some places on the ditch banks by sides. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

(2.) **GROUND PINE**, in botany. See *TRIFOLIUM*

* **GROUND-PLATE.** *n. f.* [In architecture.] The outermost pieces of timber lying on or near the ground, and framed into one another with ties and tensions. In these also are mortises to receive the tensions of the joists, the sills and girders; and sometimes the trussing of the roof and chimney-way, and the binding of the roof. *Harris.*—In the orthographical schemes should be a true delineation, if it be a building, of the several sizes of the *ground-plate* summers, and beams. *Mortimer.*

* **GROUND-PLOT.** *n. f.* 1. The ground which any building is placed.—Wretched *plot*, where canst thou find any small ground for hope to dwell upon? *Sidney.*—

plot square five hives of bees contains; of industry and virtuous gains. *Harte.*
ography of a building.

D-RENT. *n. f.* Rent paid for the privilege of building on another man's ground.—A ground rent of five pounds. *Arbut.* was neither granted him, nor giv'n; nature's, and the ground rent due to 'n *Harte.*

D-ROOM. *n. f.* A room on the level ground.—I beseeched him, hereafter to a ground room; for that otherwise it impossible for an artist of any other kind him. *Tatler.*

GROUNDSEL. *n. f.* [*grund* and *file*, the, perhaps from *fella*, Lat.] The tim-d pavement next the ground.—The ne hath every one of its lights rabbit-tide about half an inch into the frame; e rabbits, but that on the *groundsel*, square; but the rabbit on the *ground*-l downwards; that rain or snow may all off. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises.*

GROUNDSEL. *n. f.* [*senecio*, Lat.] A plant.

GROUNDSEL. See *BACCHARIS*, & *SENECIO*.
TACKLE, a ship's anchors, cables, general whatever is necessary to make at anchor.

GROUNDWORK. *n. f.* [*ground* and *work*.] 1. the first stratum; the first part of that to which the rest is additional.—there is in heav'n's expanded plain, when the skies are clear, is seen below, tals by the name of milky know;

groundwork is of stars. *Dryden's Fables.*

part of an undertaking; the funda- The main skill and *groundwork* will be hem such lectures and explanations,

opportunity, as may lead and draw ling obedience. *Milton.* 3. First prin-

nal reason.—The *groundwork* thereof lets true and certain, however they orance disguise the same, or through *yer's State of Ireland.*—The morals is ives of the poet, as being the *ground*-instruction. *Dryden.*

GROUP. *n. f.* [*groupe*, French; *greppo*, crowd; a cluster; a hurdle; a number together.—In a picture, besides the prin- which compose it, and are placed in it, there are less *groups* or knots of osed at proper distances, which are piece, and seem to carry on the same ore inferior manner. *Dryden's Dufres.* doubt but the poet had here in view of Zetus, in the famous *group* of figures ents the two brothers binding Dirce s of a mad bull. *Addison.*—

ould try your graving tools.

icious *group* of fools. *Swift.*

GROUP, in painting and sculpture, is an of two or more figures of men, beasts, ie like, which have some apparent re- ch other. See *PAINTING*.

GROUP. *v. a.* [*groupper*, French.] To put d; to huddle together.—The difficulty ing and disposing, or as the painters

term it, in *grouping* such a multitude of different objects, preserving still the justice and conformity of style and colouring. *Prior.*

GROUP ISLANDS, or } a cluster of islands lately
The GROUPS, } discovered in the South-
Sea. They lie in about S. Lat. 18. 12. and W. Long. 142. 42. They are long narrow slips of land, ranging in all directions, some of them ten miles or upwards in length, but not more than a quarter of a mile broad. They abound in trees, particularly those of the cocoa nut. They are inhabited by well made people, of a brown complexion. Most of them carried in their hands a slender pole about 14 feet in length. pointed like a spear; they had likewise something shaped like a paddle, about four feet long. Their canoes were of different sizes, carrying from three to six or seven people, and some of them hoisted a sail.

(1.) * **GROUSE.** *n. f.* A kind of fowl; a heath-cock.—

The squires in scorn will fly the house

For better game, and look for grouse. *Swift.*

(2.) **GROUSE,** or **GROWSE.** See *TETRAO*.

* **GROUT.** *n. f.* [*grut*, Saxon. In Scotland they call it *grouts*.] 1. Coarse meal; pollard.—King Hardicute, 'midst Danes and Saxons stout, Carous'd in nut-brown ale, and din'd on *grout*: Which dish its pristine honour still retains.

And when each prince is crown'd in splendour reigns. *King.*

2. That which purges off.—

Sweet honey some condense, some purge the *grout*;

The rest, in cells apart, the liquid nectar shout. *Dryden.*

3. A kind of wild apple. [*Agriomelum*, Latin.]

GROUTHEAD, or **GREATHEAD,** Robert, a learned bishop of Lincoln, born at Stow in Lincolnshire, or Stradbrook in Suffolk, in the end of the 12th century. His parents were so poor, that when a boy he was obliged to do the meanest offices, and even to beg his bread; till the mayor of Lincoln, struck with his appearance and the quickness of his answers to certain questions, took him into his family, and put him to school. Here his ardent love of learning, and admirable capacity for acquiring it, soon appeared, and procured him many patrons, who enabled him to prosecute his studies, first at Cambridge, afterwards at Oxford, and at last at Paris. In these three famous seats of learning, he spent many years in the most indefatigable pursuit of knowledge, and became one of the best and most universal scholars of the age. He was master not only of the French and Latin, but also of the Greek and Hebrew languages, which was a very rare accomplishment in those times. Roger Bacon, who was intimately acquainted with him, says that he spent much of his time for almost 40 years in the study of geometry, astronomy, optics, and other branches of mathematical learning, in all which he very much excelled. Theology was his favourite study, in which he read lectures at Oxford with great applause. In the mean time, he obtained several preferments in the church, and was at length elected and consecrated Bp. of Lincoln, A. D. 1235. In this station he soon became very famous, by the purity of his manners, the popularity of his preaching,

preaching, the vigour of his discipline, and the boldness with which he reprov'd the vices and oppos'd the arbitrary mandates of the court of Rome; of this last we shall give one example. Pope Innocent IV. had granted to one of his own nephews, named *Frederick*, who was but a child, a provision to the first canon's place in the church of Lincoln that should become vacant; and sent a bull to the Abp. of Canterbury, and Innocent, then papal legate in England, commanding them to see the provision made effectual; which they transmitted to the Bp. of Lincoln. But this brave and virtuous prelate boldly refused to obey this unreasonable mandate, and sent an answer to the papal bull containing the following severe reproaches against his holiness for abusing his power: "If we except the sins of Lucifer and Antichrist, there neither is nor can be a greater crime, nor any thing more contrary to the doctrine of the gospel, or more odious and abominable in the sight of Jesus Christ, than to ruin and destroy the souls of men, by depriving them of the spiritual aid and ministry of their pastors. This crime is committed by those who command the benefices intended for the support of able pastors, to be bestowed on those who are incapable of performing the duties of the pastoral office. It is impossible therefore that the holy apostolic see, which received its authority from the Lord Jesus Christ, for edification, and not for destruction, can be guilty of such a crime, or any thing approaching to such a crime, so hateful to God and so hurtful to men. For this would be a most manifest corruption and abuse of its authority, which would forfeit all its glory, and plunge it into the pains of hell." Upon reading this letter, his holiness became frantic with rage, and threatened to make the bishop an object of terror and astonishment to the whole world. "How dare (said he) this old, deaf, dotting fool, disobey my commands? Is not his master the king of England my subject, or rather my slave? Cannot he cast him into prison, and crush him in a moment?" But the cardinals brought the pope to think more calmly, and to take no notice of this letter. "Let us not (said they) raise a tumult in the church without necessity, and precipitate that revolt and separation from us, which, we know, must one day take place." Remarkable words, when we reflect when and by whom they were spoken! The bishop did not long survive this noble stand against the gross corruptions and tyranny of the church of Rome. He fell sick at his castle of Bugden that same year; and sensible that his death was drawing near, he called his clergy into his apartment, and made a long discourse to them, to prove that the reigning pope Innocent IV. was *Antichrist*. With this exertion his strength was so much exhausted, that he expired soon after, Oct. 9. 1253. A contemporary historian says, "He was a free and bold reprimander of the pope and the king; an admonisher of the prelates; a corrector of the monks; an instructor of the clergy a supporter of the studious; a censurer of the incontinent; a scourge and terror to the court of Rome; a diligent teacher of the scriptures; and a frequent preacher to the people. At his table he was hospitable, polite, and cheerful. In the

church he was contrite, devout, and full in performing all the duties of his office venerable, active, and indefatigable." *Trious Roger Bacon*, who had the best of his learning, by perusing his works, frequently conversing with him, both gave honourable testimony in his favour. *Grouthead Bp. of Lincoln*, and his *Adam de Marisco*, are the two most in the world, and excel all the rest both in divine and human knowledge. Excellent prelate was a very voluminous and composed a prodigious number of a great variety of subjects in philosophy, a catalogue of which is given by

GROUVILLE, a small town in Jersey, 3 miles E. of St. Helier.

GROUWE, a town of the Batavia, in the department of the Meuse, and prov. of Dutch Flanders, 5 miles NE.

(1.) * To GROW. *v. n. pret. pass. grown.* [*growan*, Saxon; *grow*, 1. To vegetate; to have vegetable increase by vegetation.—It is not the fruit that nourisheth man; but it is which preserveth them. *Wisd.* xvi. 12. sith the grass to grow for the cattle, and the service of man. *Ps.* civ. 14. 3. To be increased by vegetation.—In this country growth of that wood, which since in Europe to die red colours. *Actw*—*groweth* in the fields, at the first is tennis-ball, and white; and after growth mushroom colour, and full of light dust.

But say, where *grows* the tree? how far?

In colder regions men compose

Poison with art; but here it *grows*.

Thosetow'rs of oak o'er fertile plains

And visit mountains where they *grow* &

3. To shoot in any particular form—

Children, like tender oiers, take
And as they first are fashion'd, always

Dryd.

4. To increase in stature.—

I long with all my heart to see the
I hope he is much *grown* since last I saw

Shak.

—The poor man had nothing, save one little lamb, which he had bought and reared it *grew* up together with him and with his ren. 2 *Sam.* xii. 3. 5. To come to maturity from infancy: commonly followed by *up* the prince *groweth up* fast to be a man, a sweet and excellent disposition. *Baron to Villiers*.—The main thing to be considered every action of a child, is how it will be when he is bigger, and whither it will when he is *grown up*. *Locke*.—We are but to the world children, ignorant and unand we *grow up* in vanity and folly. *Wal* issue, as plants from a soil, or as branches the main trunk.—They will seem not to him, but *growing* out of him. *Dryden's* *ration*. 7. To increase in bulk; to become, or more numerous.—Bones, after full

me at a stay : as for nails they grow continually. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Then their numbers swell,
and grow upon us. *Denham.*

visions grow upon us, by neglect of practice : as every age degenerated from primitive, they advanced in nice enquiries. *Decay of*

8. To improve ; to make progress — in grace, and in the knowledge of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ. *2 Pet. iii. 18.*—He then bequeathed his best of legacies, his blessings ; most heartily exhorting the young growing hopes of his family. *Fell.*—As he grew forward in years, he was trained up to learning, under one Pronau, who taught the Pelasgick letter invented by the Pelasgi. *Pope's Essay on Homer.* 9. To advance in state.—

Nature, as it grows again towards earth, is weary'd for the journey dull and heavy.

Shak.
I doubted whereunto this would grow.

10. 24.—The king, by this time, was grown to an height of reputation for cunning and craft, that every accident and event that went on was laid and imputed to his foresight. *Bacon.*—But when to ripen'd manhood he shall grow, the greedy sailor shall the seas forego. *Dryd.*

11. To come by degrees ; to reach any state gradually.—After they grew to rest upon number, they were competent than vast, they grew to advancement of place, cunning diversions, and the like ; they grew more skilful in the ordering of battles. *Bacon.*—Verse, or the other harmony of words, I have so long studied and practised, that it is grown into a habit, and become familiar to me. *Dryden's Fables, Preface.*—The trespasses of the people are grown up to heaven, and their sins are beyond all restraints of law and authority.

12. To come forward ; to gather ground. The people seeing the end of their government nigh, they began to practice growing up, which may be a trouble to the next governor, will not attend to redress. *Spenser on Ireland.*—It was now the month of October, and Winter began to grow in : great rain, with terrible thunder and lightning, and mighty tempests, then fell abundantly. *Knolles.* 12. To be changed from one state to another ; to become either better or worse ; to

A good man's fortune may grow out at heels.

Shak.
Scipio Nasica feared lest, if the dread of that law were taken away, the Romans would grow idle to idleness or civil dissension. *Abbot*—

Hence, hence, and to some barbarous climate fly,

which only brutes in human form does yield,
and man grows wild in nature's common field,

Dryden.
The nymph grew pale, and in a mortal fright,
sweat with the labour of so long a flight. *Dryd.*

Patient of command
time he grew ; and growing us'd to hand,
he waited at his master's board for food. *Dryd.*
He may trade and be busy, and grow poor by
unless we regulate our expences. *Locke.*—
He will grow a thing contemptible, unless you
supply the loss of beauty with more durable

qualities. *Swift.*—Delos, by being reckoned a sacred place, grew to be a free port, where nations warring traded, as in a neutral country. *Arbutnot on Coins.*—

By degrees the vain, deluded elf,
Grew out of humour with his former self. *Harte.*
13. To proceed as from a cause or reason.—What will grow out of such errors, as masked under the cloak of divine authority, impossible it is that ever the wit of man should imagine, 'till time have brought forth the fruits of them. *Hooker.*—Shall we let light by that custom of reading, from whence so precious a benefit hath grown? *Hooker.*—Take heed now that ye fail not to do this : why should damage grow to the hurt of the king. *Ez. iv. 22.*—Hence grows that necessary distinction of the saints on earth and the saints in heaven ; the first belonging to the militant, the second to the triumphant church. *Pearson.*—The want of trade in Ireland proceeds from the want of people ; and this is not grown from any ill qualities of the climate or air, but chiefly from so many wars. *Temple.* 14. To accrue ; to be forthcoming.—

Ev'n just the sum that I do owe to you,
Is growing to me by Antipholis. *Shak.*

15. To adhere ; to stick together.—
Honour and policy, like unsever'd friends,
I, th' war do grow together. *Shak.*

—The frog's mouth grows up, and he continues so for at least six months without eating. *Walton.*—In burnings and scaldings the fingers would many times grow to the breast, and the arms to the sides, were they not hindered. *Wise man's Surgery* 16. To swell : a sea-term.—Mariners are used to the tumbling and rolling of ships from side to side, when the sea is never so little grown. *Raleigh.* 17. The general idea given by this word is procession or passage from one state to another. It is always change, but not always increase ; for a thing may grow less, as well as grow greater.

(2. To GROW. *v. a.* To plant ; to raise. This verb seems not to have been in use as an *active* verb, when Dr Johnson compiled his dictionary ; nor does such use of it appear indeed to be sanctioned by any good classical authority ; though within these few years some of the best modern writers on agriculture use it in this sense ; *to grow corn* or *grain* being quite the current expression, for what former authors would have called *raising* it. This innovation on the English language, appears to have arisen, not from *affectation*, like most of our other modern corruptions of style, but from *ignorance* of the difference between an *active* or *transitive* verb, and a *neuter* or *intransitive* one.

* GROWER. *n. s.* [from *grow*.] An increaser. It will grow to a great bigness, being the quickest grower of any kind of elm. *Mort. Hulb.*

* To GROWL. *v. n.* [grown, *Flemish*.] 1. To snarl or murmur like an angry cur.—

They roam amid' the fury of their heart,
And growl their horrid loves. *Thomson's Spring.*
—Dogs in this country are of the size of common mastiffs, and by nature never bark, but growl when they are provoked. *Ellis's Voyage.* 2. To murmur ; to grumble.—Othello, neighbours—how he would roar about a foolish handkerchief ! and then he would growl so manfully. *Gay.*

* GROWN. The participle of *grow*. 1. Advanced

2. Product; production; thing produced; act of producing—

Forbidding every bleak unkindly fog

To touch the prosperous *growth* of this tall wood.

Milton.

Our little world, the image of the great,
Of her own *growth* hath all that nature craves,
And all that's rare, as tribute from the waves.

Waller.

—The trade of a country arises from the native *growths* of the soil or seas. *Temple* —I had thought, for the honour of our nation, that the knight's tale was of English *growth*, and Chaucer's own. *Dryd.*

3. Increase in number, bulk, or frequency.—What I have tried, or thought, or heard upon this subject, may go a great way in preventing the *growth* of this disease, where it is but new. *Temple.* 4. Increase of stature; advance to maturity.—

They say my son of York

Has almost overta'en him in his *growth*.

Shak. Rich. III.

The stag, now conscious of his fatal *growth*,
To some dark covert his retreat had made.

Denham.

—Though an animal arrives at its full *growth* at a certain age, perhaps it never comes to its full bulk 'till the last period of life. *Arbutn on Alim.*

—If parents should be daily calling upon God in a solemn deliberate manner, altering and extending their intercessions, as the state and *growth* of their children required, such devotion would have a mighty influence upon the rest of their lives.

Law. 5. Improvement; advancement.—It grieved David's religious mind to consider the *growth* of his own estate and dignity, the affairs of religion continuing still in the former manner. *Hooker.*

(2.) GROWTH, the gradual increase of bulk and stature that takes place in animals or vegetables, to a certain period. The increase of bulk in human bodies has no life, owing to the immutability of the human form.

ly; swimming on the breast, water; but his limbs soon became able, and his body beginning grew up in so extraordinary age of 5 years he measured 4 months after, he was four feet at six, 5 feet, and bulky in proportion was so rapid, that every measure required to be made longer and not preceded by any sickness with any pain in the groin or age of 5 years his voice changed to appear, and at six he had 30; in short all the unquested berty were visible in him. It was in a condition of begetting or induced the rector of the parish his mother to keep him from conversation with children of the his wit was riper than is common the age of 5 or 6, yet its proportion to that of his body. still retained something childish bulk and stature, he resembled which at first sight produced contrast. His voice was strong great strength rendered him a labourer of the country. At 5, good distance 3 measures of when turned of six, he could shoulders and carry loads of way off; and these exercises him as often as the curious to by some liberality. Some people think that he should giant. A mountebank was parents for him, and flattered of putting him in a way of money. But all manner of hopes were suddenly become crooked, and he died in a few days.

maturity. In some places of the East girls have children at 9 years of age. lar instances of extraordinary growth rought. It seems at first view astonish- children of such early and prodigious not become giants; but when we con- the signs of puberty appear so much they ought, it seems evident, that the ly a more than usually rapid expansion s, as in hot climates; and accordingly en, instead of becoming giants, always die apparently of old age, long before term of human life.

WTHEAD. } *n. f.* [from *grofs* or *great*
WTNOL. } *head: capito, Latin.* } 1.
fish. *Ainsw.* 2. An idle lazy fellow.

leeping one hour refresheth his song,
not Hob growthead for sleeping too

Tusser.

IE, a river of Spain, in Galicia, which ie Bay of Biscay, at Corunna.

DANSKY, a town of Croatia, 5 miles ovi.

NGEN, a town of Germany, in the urtemberg, 10 miles NE. of Tubingen, . of Stuttgard.

O. See PORTO GRUARO.

RUB. *n. f.* [from *grubbing*, or mining.] worm that eats holes in bodies.—There ce between a *grub* and a butterfly, and utterfly was a *grub*. *Shak. Coriolanus*.—

New creatures rise,
g mafs at first, and short of thighs;
oting out with legs, and imp'd with
s,
s proceed to bees with pointed stings.

Dryden.

The *grub*,
serv'd, invades the vital core;
s tenant! and her secret cave
hourly, preying on the pulp

Philips.

hick man; a dwarf. In contempt.— ne, a short clownish *grub*, would bear carcase of an ox, yet never tugged

arew.
s, in zoology, is the English name of le worms, produced from the eggs of and which at length are transformed insects of the same species with their
e ERUCA, § 1.

UB. *v. a.* [from *grahan*, preter. *grob* to dig, To dig up; to destroy by digging; to the ground; to eradicate by throwing he soil.—A foolish heir caused all the hedges about his vineyard to be *grub-*
s/r.—

Forest land,
ence the surly ploughman *grubs* the l.

Dryden.

bing up of woods and trees may dful, upon the account of their un- Mortimer.—As for the thick woods, nly Virgil but Homer mentions, they them *grubbed* up, since the promon- n cultivated and inhabited. *Addison.*

PART. II.

GRUBBING, in agriculture, the digging or pulling up the stubs and roots of trees. When the roots are large, this is a very troublesome and laborious task; but Mr Mortimer shows how it may be accomplished, in such a manner as to save great expence, by a very simple and easy method. He proposes a strong iron hook to be made about 2 feet 4 inches long, with a large iron ring fastened to the upper part of it. This hook must be put into a hole in the side of the root, to which it must be fastened; and a lever being put into the ring, 3 men, by means of this lever, may wring out the root, and twist the sap-roots asunder. Stubs of trees may also be taken up with the same hook, in which work it will save a great deal of labour, though not so much as in the other; because the stubs must be first cleft with wedges, before the hook can enter the sides of them, to wrench them out by pieces.

* To GRUBBLE. *v. n.* [from *grubben*, German; from *grub*.] To feel in the dark.—

Thou hast a colour;

Now let me rowl and *grub* thee:

Blind men say white feels smooth, and black feels rough:

Thou hast a rugged skin; I do not like thee.

Dryden.

GRUBE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Holstein, 12 miles NNE. of Cismar.

GRUBEN, a town of Silesia in Neisse.

(1.) GRUBENHAGEN, a principality of Brunswick, belonging to his majesty as elector of Hanover. It is partly fertile, but the greater part is mountainous, and, besides feeding a great number of sheep and black cattle, abounds with mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, sulphur, calamine, and zinc; quarries of marble, slates, lime-stone, alabaster, and jasper of different kinds. It has also some mines of gold, but these are not rich. The forests abound with oak, beech, firs, elms, &c. The inhabitants are Lutherans, and carry on lined manufactures. Eimbeck is the capital.

(2.) GRUBENHAGEN, a town and castle in the above principality, 6 miles NW. of Nordheim, 7 SSW. of Eimbeck, and 45 S. of Hanover. Lon. 9. 36. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

* GRUBSTREET. *n. f.* Originally the name of a street near Moorfields in London, much inhabited by writers of small histories, dictionaries, and temporary poems; whence any mean production is called *grubstreet*.—

Και ἰδὼν μὴ αἰδῶν, μὴ ἀλγία πικρὰ

Ἀσπασίως ἦεν ὕμνος ἱκανομαί.

—The first part, though calculated only for the meridian of *grubstreet*, was yet taken notice of by the better sort. *Arbutnot*.—

I'd sooner ballads write, and *grubstreet* lays.

Gay.

GRUCIUS, Nicolas, a French author, of the 16th century, born at Rouen, and nobly descended. He is said to have been the first who lectured on Aristotle in Greek. He wrote several works; the chief of which are 1. A treatise *De Comitibus Romanorum*: 2. Tracts against Sigonius: and, 3. A Translation of Castanedo's History of the Indies. He died at Rochelle, in 1572.

GRUCKFELDT, a town of Germany, in Carinthia,

Q q q q

rintbia,

guthia, with a fort on the Save. Lon. 15. 45. E. Lat. 46. 7. N.

GRUDICK, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lemberg, 28 mls SW. of Lemberg.

GRUDECK, three towns of Poland: viz. 1. in the palatinate of Bracław, 28 miles E. of Bracław; 2. in that of Kiow, 50 miles WNW of Bracław; 3. in that of Podolia, 32 miles W. of Kaminić.

GRUDEIANDS. See GRAUBENTZ.

* GRUDGE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Old quarrel; inveterate malevolence; fallen malice—Many countries about her were full of wars, which, for old grudges to Cinnth, were thought still would conclude there. *Sidney*—

Two household 3, both alike in dignity,
From ancient grudge break to new mutiny,
Where civil blood makes civil hands unclean.

Shakespeare.

Let me go in to see the general:
There is some grudge between 'em; 'tis not meet
They be alone.

Shak. Julius Cæsar.

Deep sefter'd hate;

A grudge in both, time out of mind, begun,
And mutually bequeath'd from fire to son.

Tate's Juvenal.

2. Anger; ill-will.—

The god of wit, to shew his grudge,
Clapt his ears upon the judge.

Swift.

3. Unwillingness to benefit.—

Those to whom you have

With grudge prefer'd me. *Ben Jon. Catiline.*

4. Envy; odium; invidious censure. 1. Remorse of conscience. *Ansforth.* 6. Some little commotion, or forerunner of a disease. *Ansforth.*

(1.) * *To GRUDOS v. n.* [from *gruger*, according to *Skinner*, which in French is to grind or eat. In this sense we say of one who resents any thing secretly, *he chaws it.* *Gruguel*, in Welsh, is to murmur; to grumble. *Grugh*, in Scotland, denotes a grumbling morose countenance.] 2. To envy; to see any advantage of another with discontent.—What means this baptizing me from your counsels? Do you love your sorrow so well, as to grudge me part of it? *Sidney.*—

'Tis not in thee

To grudge my pleasures, to cut off my train.

Shak. K. Lear.

He struggles into birth, and cries for aid;

Then helpless in his mother's lap is laid:

He creeps, he walks; and, issuing into man,

Grudges their life from whence his own began.

Dryden.

These clamours with disdain he heard,

Much grudge'd the praise, but more the rob'd reward.

Dryden.

—Do not, as some men, run upon the tilt, and taste of the sediments of a grudging uncommunicative disposition. *Specl.*—Let us consider the inexhausted treasures of the ocean; and though some have grudged the great share that it takes of the surface of the earth, yet we shall propose this too, as a conspicuous mark and character of the wisdom of God. *Bentley.*—I have often heard the Presbyterians say they did not grudge us our employments. *Swift.* 2. To give or take unwillingly. Let me at least a funeral marriage crave,
Not grudge my cold embraces in the grave. *Dryd.*

—They have grudged those contributions have let our country at the head of all the ments of Europe. *Adyson.*

(2.) * *To GRUDGE v. n.* 1. To murmur; to repine.—They knew the force of that curse, whereunto idolury maketh libel; there cause why the guilty should grudge or complain of injustice. We do not grudge or repine at our lot; we are contented with those circumstances of providence of God hath made to be ours. 2. To be unwilling; to be reluctant.—they go with as great grudging to Gravelly's ships, as if it were to be saved. *Res. Raleigh.*—

You steer betwixt the country and

Not satisfy what'er the great desire

Nor grudging give what publick need

Dryden.

3. To be envious.—Grudge not one

ther, brethren, lest ye be condemned.

4. To wish in secret. A low word.—

E'en in the most sincere advice he

He had a grudging still to be a knave.

5. To give or have any unealy remains; not whether the word in this sense be *grugens*, or remains; *grugens* being the corn that remains after the fine meat is the sieve.—

My Dolabella,

Hast thou not still some grudging?

* GRUDGINGLY. *adv.* [from *grudge*.] unwillingly; malignantly; reluctantly.

Like harpies they could scent a paction

Then to be sure they never fail'd their

The rest was firm, and bare attendance

Then drank and eat, grudgingly obey'd

GRUDOCZICZE, a town of Poland Russia, 24 miles WSW. of Hahlich.

GRUDOLO, a town of Naples, in the of Abruzzo Citra, 14 miles SE. of Solof.

GRUE, Thomas, a French writer, in his translations of English works into French among these were Roll's History of all and Rogers's Gate opened to the poor Paganini. He died about the end of century.

(1.) GRUEB, a town of Austria, 5 of Horn.

(2.) GRUEB, a town of Stiria, 6 mi Vottberg.

* GRUEL. *n. f.* [*gruan*, *gruelle*, from made by boiling oatmeal in water; as mixture made by boiling ingredients in

Finger of birth-strang'd babe,

Ditch-deliver'd by a drab;

Make the gruel thick and slab. *Shak.*

Was ever Tartar fierce or cruel

Upon the strength of water gruel?

—Gruel made of grain, broths, mak much hopped, posset-drinks, and in get ever relaxeth. *Arbushaot.*

* GRUFF. *adj.* [*gruff*, Dutch.] Sour harsh of manners.—

Around the fiend, in hideous order

Foul bawling infamy and bold debate

Gruff discontent, thro' ignorance mist

ellation of honour was such an one the
an one the stocky. *Addison.*

GRUFF. *adv.* [from *gruff*.] Harshly; rug-
gibly.—

orn of Mars high on a chariot stood,
h'd in arms, and *gruffly* look'd the god.

Dryden.

GRUFFNESS. *n. f.* [from *gruff*.] Ruggedness
arshness of look or voice.

GRUG, a river of Scotland, in Ross-shire,
over a precipice in the parish of Ed-
co yards in perpendicular height.

GRUS, [from *grus*, a crane.] the 14th
anus's Fragments of a Natural Method.

Y. Index.

GRUM, a town of Bohemia, in the circle
ratz, 10 miles E. of Geyersberg.

GRUMBERG, a town of Upper Saxony,
ia, 4 miles S. of Sangerhausen.

GRUMBLE. *adj.* [contracted from *grumble*.] Sour;
re. A low word.—Nie looked sour and
would not open his mouth. *Arbutnot.*

GRUMBACH, a river of Upper Saxony,
into the Saal, 4 m. NE. of Weissenfels.

GRUMBACH, a town of the French repub-
dep. of the Rhine and Nahe, and late
Chinegrave, 25 miles N. of Deux Ponts,
of Lutereck.

GRUMBACH, a town of Upper Saxony, in
viate of Meissen, 2 miles S. of Wilsdorf.

GRUMBACH, UNDER, } two towns of Ger-

GRUMBACH, UPPER, } many, in the circle
er Rhine, and bishopric of Spire, the
iles, and the latter 4, SW. of Bruchsal.

GRUMBLE. *v. n.* [from *grummelen*, *grommen*,
To murmur with discontent.—

A bridegroom,
ling groom, and that the girl shall find.

Shakesp.

grumblest and railest every hour on Achil-
ou art as full of envy at his greatness as

s at Proserpina's beauty. *Shakesp.*—

scurst Philistian stands on th' other side,
ng aloud, and smiles 'twixt rage and

le. *Cowley.*

all but one, will depart *grumbling*, be-
miss of what they think their due. *South.*

ice has allotted man a competency: all
s superfluous; and there will be *grum-*

out end, if we reckon that we want this,
have it not. *L'Esrange.*—

re, not using half his store,
mbles that he has no more. *Prior.*

wl; to gnarl.—

ion, though he sees the toils are set,
ch'd with raging hunger, scours away;

the face of danger all the day;
s, with sullen pleasure, *grumbles* o'er his

y. *Dryden.*

re a hoarse rattle.—

grumbling thunder join thy voice. *Motteux.*

Like a storm
thers black upon the frowning sky,
mbles in the wind. *Rowe's Royal Convert.*

Vapours foul
the mountains brow, and shake the woods
umbling wave below. *Thomson's Winter.*

* **GRUMBLER**. *n. f.* [from *grumble*.] One that
grumbles; a murmurer; a discontented man.—
The half-pence are good half-pence, and I will
stand by it: if I made them of silver, it would be
the same thing to the *grumbler*. *Swift.*

* **GRUMBLING**. *n. f.* [from *grumble*.] A mur-
muring through discontent; a grudge.—

I have sciv'd

Without or grudge or *grumbings*. *Shak. Temp.*

* **GRUME**. *n. f.* [from *grumeau*, Fr. *grumus*, Lat.]
A thick viscid consistence of a fluid; as the white
of an egg; or clot like cold blood. *Quincy.*

* **GRUMLY**. *adv.* [from *grum*.] Sullenly; mo-
rosely.

(1.) * **GRUMMEL**. *n. f.* [*lithospermum*, Latin.]
An herb.

(2.) **GRUMMEL**. See **LITHOSPERMUM**.

GRUMO, a town of Naples, in the province
of Bari, 3½ miles SSW. of Bidetto.

(1.) * **GRUMOUS**. *adj.* [from *grume*.] Thick;
clotted.—The blood, when let, was black, *gru-*
mous, the red part without a due consistence, the
serum saline, and of a yellowish green. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) **GRUMOUS BLOOD**, by its viscosity and stag-
nating in the capillary vessels, produces disorders.

* **GRUMOUSNESS**. *n. f.* [from *grumous*.]
Thickness of a coagulated liquor.—The cause may
be referred either to the coagulation of the serum,
or *grumousness* of the blood. *Wifeman.*

(1.) **GRUNAU**, a town of Lower Saxony, in
the duchy of Lauenburg, 18 m. NNE. of Mollen.

(2.) **GRUNAU**, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

(1.) **GRUNBERG**, a town of Germany, in Up-
per Hesse, 10 miles E. of Greiffen, and 28 W. of
Fulda. The French kings of the Merovingian
race, and Charlemagne, held their courts in it.

(2.) **GRUNBERG**, a town of Silesia, in Glogau,
surrounded with vineyards; 12 miles N. of Frey-
stadt, and 24 NW. of Great Glogau. It has a
manufacture of cloth.

GRUND, or } a town of Brunswick, in the
GRUNDE, } Hartz Forest, 12 miles SW. of
Goslar. Lon. 13. 35. E. Lat. 52. 10. N.

GRUNDEL SEE, a lake of Germany, in Stiria,

(1.) **GRUNDLBACH**, a river of Franconia,
which runs into the Rednitz, 3 miles S. of Erlang.

(2.) **GRUNDLBACH**, a town of Franconia, in Nu-
remberg, 4 m. S. of Erlang, and 6 N. of Nuremberg.

GRUNEBERG, a town of Brandenburg.

GRUNER, John Frederic, an eminent German
author, born at Cobourg, in 1723. He published
1. *Miscellanea Sacra*; 2. An introduction to Ro-
man Antiquities; 3. Critical Remarks on the Clas-
sics: and, 4. A new edition of Cœlius Sædulus,
with commentaries. He died in 1778.

GRUNFELD. See **GRUNSFELD**.

GRUNHAYN, a town of Saxony, in Erzge-
burg, 15 miles S. of Chemnitz, and 46 WSW. of
Dresden.

GRUNHOFF, a town of Courland.

(1.) **GRUNINGEN**, a town of the Helvetic re-
public, capital of a ci-devant bailiwick, in Zurich;
12 miles E. of Zurich. It has a castle on a rock,
which has an extensive prospect. Lon. 8. 43. E.
Lat. 47. 14. N.

(2.) **GRUNINGEN**, a town of Germany, in Hal-
berstadt, on the Boden, 15 miles E. of Halber-
stadt. Lon. 11. 41. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

GRUN-SEE, a lake of Bavaria.

* GRUNSEL. *n. f.* [More usually *groundfil*, unless Milton intended to preserve the Sax. *grund*.] The groundfil; the lower part of the building.—
Never came one

Who mourn'd in earnest, when the captive ark
Maim'd his brute image, head and hands lopp'd
off

In his own temple, on the *grundel* edge,
Where he fell flat, and sham'd his worshippers.

Milton.

GRUNSFELD, a town • Franconia, in the
bishopric of Würzburg, 6 miles NNW. of Mer-
genheim.

GRUNSTADT, a town of Germany, in the
late county of Leiningen, now included in the
French republic, and department of Mont Ton-
nerre; 28 miles S. of Mentz.

(1.) * GRUNT. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The noise
of a hog.—

Swine's snouts, swine's bodies, took they,
bristles, grunts. Chapman.

Ran cow and calf, and family of hogs,
In panick horror of pursuing dogs;
With many a deadly grunt and doleful squeak,
Poor swine, as if their pretty hearts would break.

Dryden.

From hence were heard
The grunts of bristled boars, and groans of bears,
And herds of howling wolves. Dryden's *En.*

(2.) GRUNT, in geography, a town of Austria,
near Gundersdorf.

* To GRUNT. To GRUNTLER. *v. n.* [*grunnie*,
Latin.] To murmur like a hog.—

And neigh, and bark, and grunt, and roar and
burn.

Like horse, hound, hog, bear, fire at every
turn. Shakespeare.

Lament, ye swine! in gruntings spend your
grief;

For you, like me, have lost your sole relief. Gay.

Thy brindled boars may slumber undisturb'd,
Or grunt secure beneath the chestnut shade. Tickel.

The stalling quean to louder notes doth rise,
To her full pipes the grunting hog replies;

The grunting hogs alarm the neighbours round.

Swift.

* GRUNTER. *n. f.* [from *grunt*.] 1. He that
grunts. 2. A kind of fish. [*grunter*.]

* GRUNTLING. *n. f.* [from *grunt*.] A young
hog.

GRUPPO, or TURNED SHAKE, a musical grace,
defined by Playford to consist in the alternate pro-
lation of two tones in juxtaposition to each other,
with a close on the note immediately beneath the
lower of them.

(1.) GRUS, in antiquity, a dance performed
yearly by the young Athenians around the temple
of Apollo, on the day of the Delia. The motions
and figures of this dance were very intricate, and
variously interwoven; some of them being intend-
ed to express the windings of the labyrinth where-
in the Minotaur was killed by Theseus.

(2.) GRUS, in astronomy, a southern constella-
tion, not visible in our latitude. The number of
stars in this constellation, according to Mr Sharp's
catalogue, is 53.

(3.) GRUS, in ornithology. See ARDEA, N° 3.

GRUSUE, a town of Norway, 6 m. N. of

* GRUTCH. *n. f.* [from the verb.] ill-will.—

In it he melted leaden bullets,
To shoot at foes, and sometimes pellets
To whom he bore so fell a grutch,
He ne'er gave quarter t' any such.

* To GRUTCH. *v. n.* [corrupted for the
rhyme from *grudge*.] To envy; to repine;
discontented. Not used.—

The poor at the enclosure doth grutch
Because of abuses that fall,

Lest some men should have but too
And some again nothing at all. T.

But what we're born for we must
Our frail condition it is such,

That what to all may happen here,
If't chance to me I must not grutch.

GRUTEN, a town of Germany, in
of Westphalia and duchy of Berg, 3 m.
of Medman.

GRUTER, James, a learned philo-
sophy, one of the most laborious writers of his
born at Antwerp in 1560. He was
when his father and mother, being per-
the Protestant religion by the danc-
governers of the Netherlands, carried
England. He imbibed the elements of
from his mother, who was one of the
ed women of the age, and besides French
and English, was a complete mistress
and well skilled in Greek. He studied
bridge, afterwards at Leyden, and
himself wholly to polite literature,
ling much he became professor in the
Heidelberg; near which city he died.
He wrote many works; the principal a
large collection of ancient inscriptions,
fastus crutius. 3. *Delectæ poetarum Gall-*
talorum, & Belgarum, &c.

GRUTLIN, a plain of the Helvetic
near the Lake of the Four Cantons, in
of Uri, famous for being the scene of the
ation of the 3 first Cantons, in defence
liberty. A. D. 1307.

GRUYERES, } a town, and ci-devant
GRUYERS, or } and bailwic, of the
GRUYIRES, } republic, in the c-
Friburg, famous for cheese; which a expe-
considerable amount to France, Germany
ly. A dangerous insurrection broke out
1781, which threatened the destruction o
of Friburg, before it was quelled by the
of troops from Bern. It lies 15 miles S. of
Lon. 7. 23. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

GRUYNINGEN, a town of the Bu-
public, in the dept. of the Meuse, and
prov. of Zealand, and in the isle of S. B.

GRUZINO, a town of Russia, in the
Novgorod, 40 miles N. of Novgorod.

(1.) * GRY. *n. f.* [*gry*.] Any thing of lit-
as, the paring of the nails. Dr.

(2.) GRY, a measure containing one
line. A line is one tenth of a digit, or
one tenth of a foot, and a philosophical
third of a pendulum, whose diadromes,
mons, in the latitude of 45 degrees, are
to one second of time, or one sixth of a
G



GRYLLUS.

Fig 1

Locust.



Mole Cricket

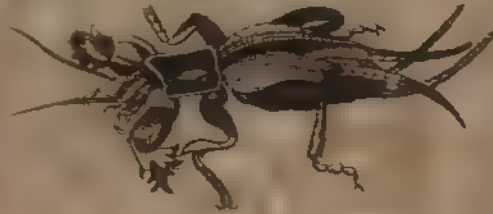


Fig 2

Gryllus



Fig 3

Gymnotus Electricus



GUILLOTINE.

Fig 4



Fig 5.



A, a river of New Spain, in Chiapa.
TE, a town of Sweden in Westman-
s WNW. of Stroemsholm.

NBERG, or } a town of Upper Sax-
NBURG, } ony, in Erzgeburg, 6
reyburg.

LUS, the son of Xenophon, who slew
d Theban general EPAMINONDAS,
d himself at the battle of Mantinea,
p. Xenophon, who was sacrificing
rd of his death, instantly threw off
out upon being farther informed, that
ain the enemy's general, immediate-

us, in entomology, a genus of insects,
the order of hemiptera, comprehend-
ets, locusts, and grass hoppers. The
sters are these: The head is inflected,
aws, and furnished with palpi: The
ome of the species are setaceous, in
n; The wings are deflected towards
l round the sides of the body; the
re folded up, so as to be concealed
tra. All the feet are armed with two
e hind ones are formed for leaping.
subdivided into five different sections,
viz. the *Acridæ*, *Bullæ*, *Achetæ*, *Tet-*
Locustæ. All the GRILLI, except
which devour other insects, live u-

The *Achetæ* feed chiefly upon the
stigoniæ and *Locustæ* upon the leaves.

ACHETÆ are distinguished by two
ted above the extremity of their ab-
aving 3 stemmata; and by the tarsi
ied of 3 articulations. This family
aces called *Cricket*, on account of the
the insect makes. There are 28 spe-
ted in the new edition of the *Systema*
which the most remarkable are the

LLUS ACHETA CAMPESTRIS, the
and the DOMESTICUS (Nº 2.) are
of the same species, differing only
d habits; the latter being paler co-
having more of a yellow cast, and
ore of a brown. The antennæ are
a thread, and nearly equal to the bo-

The head is large, and round, with
and 3 smaller ones of a light yellow
d higher on the edge of the depres-
ie centre of which originate the an-
thorax is broad and short. In the
ytra are longer than the body, vein-
rumped on the upper part, crossed
other, and enfoldng part of the ab-
a projecting angle on the sides: They
their base a pale coloured band. In
the elytra leave one third of the ab-
vered, and scarcely cross each other;
all over of one colour, veined and
nor do they wrap round so much
en underneath. The female, more-
at the extremity of its body a hard
as long as the abdomen, thicker at
posed of two sheaths, which encom-
inæ: This implement serves the in-
and deposit its eggs in the ground.
le and female have two pointed soft

appendices at the extremity of the abdomen,
Their hinder feet are much larger and longer than
the rest, and serve them for leaping. Towards
sunset is the time the *field gryllus*, or CRICKET,
likes best to appear out of his subterraneous habi-
tation. In White's *Natural History of Selbourne*,
(Letter 46.) a very pleasing account is given of the
manners and economy of these insects; which,
however, "are so shy and cautious, (he observes,)
that it is no easy matter to get a sight of them;
for, feeling a person's footsteps as he advances,
they stop short in the midst of their song, and re-
tire backward nimbly into their burrows, where
they lurk till all suspicion of danger is over. At
first it was attempted to dig them out with a spade,
but without any great success; for either the bot-
tom of the hole was inaccessible from its termina-
ting under a great stone; or else, in breaking up
the ground, the poor insect was inadvertently
squeezed to death. Out of one so bruised a mul-
titude of eggs were taken, which were long and
narrow, of a yellow colour, and covered with a
very tough skin. More gentle means were then
used, and proved successful: a pliant stalk of
grass, gently intimated into the caverns, will probe
their windings to the bottom, and quickly bring
out the inhabitant; and thus the humane inquirer
may gratify his curiosity without injuring the ob-
ject of it. It is remarkable, that though these in-
sects are furnished with long legs behind, and
brawny thighs for leaping, like grasshoppers; yet
when driven from their holes they show no activi-
ty, but crawl along in a shiftless manner, so as
easily to be taken: and again, though provided
with a curious apparatus of wings, yet they never
exert them when there seems to be the greatest
occasion. The males only make that shrilling
noise, perhaps out of rivalry and emulation, as is
the case with many animals which exert some
sprightly note during their breeding time: it is rai-
sed by a brisk friction of one wing against the o-
ther. They are solitary beings, living singly male
or female, but there must be a time when the sexes
have some intercourse, and then the wings may
be useful perhaps during night. When the males
meet they fight fiercely, as our author found by
some which he put into the crevices of a dry stone
wall, where he wanted to have made them settle.
For though they seemed distressed by being taken
out of their knowledge, yet the first that got pos-
session of the chinks would seize on any that were
obtruded upon them with a vast row of serrated
fangs. With their strong jaws, toothed like the
shears of a lobster's claws, they perforate and
round their curious regular cells, having no fore
claws to dig, like the mole cricket. When taken
in the hand, they never offered to defend them-
selves, though armed with such formidable wea-
pons. Of such herbs as grow before the mouths
of their burrows they eat indiscriminately; and
on a little platform, which they make just by,
they drop their dung; and never, in the day
time, seem to stir more than two or three inches
from home. Sitting in the entrance of their ca-
vern, they chirp all night as well as day from the
middle of May to the middle of July: in hot wea-
ther, when they are most vigorous, they make the
hills echo; and in the stiller hours of darkness,
may

may be heard at a considerable distance. In the beginning of the season their notes are more faint and inward; but become louder as the summer advances, and so die away again by degrees. The thrilling of the *field cricket*, though sharp and stridulous, yet delights some hearers, filling their minds with ideas of every thing that is rural, and joyous. About the 10th of March, the crickets appear at the mouths of their cells, which they then open and shape very elegantly. All that ever I have seen at that season were in their pupa state, and had only the rudiments of wings, lying under a skin or coat, which must be cast before the insect can arrive at its perfect state; from whence I should suppose that the old ones of last year do not always survive the winter. In August their holes begin to be obliterated, and the insects are seen no more till spring. Not many summers ago I endeavoured to transplant a colony to the terrace in my garden, by boring deep holes in the sloping turf. The new inhabitants staid some time, and fed and sung; but wandered away by degrees, and were heard at a farther distance every morning; so that it appears that on this emergency they made use of their wings in attempting to return to the spot from which they were taken. One of these crickets, when confined in a paper cage and set in the sun, and supplied with plants moistened with water, will feed and thrive, and become so merry and loud as to be irksome in the same room where a person is sitting: if the plants are not wetted, it will die."

i. *GRYLLUS ACHETA DOMESTICUS*, the *Domestic*, or *Hearth cricket*, does not require to be sought after abroad for examination, nor is shy like the other sort: it resides altogether within our dwellings, intruding itself upon our notice whether we incline or not. It delights in new built houses; being, like the spider, pleased with the moisture of the walls. The stiffness of the mortar enables them to burrow and mine between the joints of the bricks or stones, and to open communications from one room to another. They are particularly fond of kitchens and bakers ovens, on account of their perpetual warmth. "Tender insects, (says Mr Whyte) that live abroad, either enjoy only the short period of one summer, or else doze away the cold uncomfortable months in profound slumbers; but those, residing as it were in a torrid zone, are always alert and merry: a good Christmas fire is to them like the heat of the dog-days. Though they are frequently heard by day, yet is their natural time of motion only in the night. As soon as it grows dusk, the chirping increases, and they come running forth, and are from the size of a flea to that of their full stature. As one should suppose, from the burning atmosphere which they inhabit, they are a thirsty race, and show a great propensity for liquids, being found frequently crowned in pans of water, milk, broth, or the like. Whatever is moist they affect; and therefore often gnaw holes in wet woollen stockings and aprons that are hung to the fire. These crickets are not only very thirsty, but very voracious; for they will eat the scummings of pots, yeast, salt, and crumbs of bread, and any kitchen offal and sweepings. In the summer we have observed them to fly, when it became

dusk, out of the windows, and over the bounding roofs. This feat of activity is for the sudden manner in which they leave their haunts, as it does for the men which they come to houses where they are known before. It is remarkable, that out of insects seem never to use their wings but they have a mind to shift their quarters and new colonies. When in the air they move *lata undose*, in waves or curves, like woodpeckers, opening and shutting their wings at a stroke, and so are always rising or falling. When they increase to a great degree, and once in the house where I am now writing become noisome pests, flying into the candle, dashing into people's faces, but may be by gunpowder discharged into their crannies. In families, at such times, like Pharaoh's plague of frogs, in the chambers, and upon their beds, and in the vena, and in their kneading-troubles. The long noise is occasioned by a brisk rattling of wings. Cats catch hearth crickets, and with them as they do with mice, devour them. Crickets may be destroyed, like wasps, in a glass half filled with beer, or any liquid, at their haunts; for being always eager to get to the bottom, they will crowd in till the bottles are full. A popular prejudice, however, frequently prevents their being driven away and destroyed: people imagine that their presence brings good luck to the house while they are in it, and it would be hazardous to destroy them.

ii. *GRYLLUS ACHETA GRYLLOIDES*, the *mole cricket*, is of a very unpleasant size, head, in proportion to the size of its body, small and oblong, with 4 long thick palpi, and long antennae as slender as threads. Between the antennae are situated the eyes, and between the two eyes are seen three stemmata or light organs, mounting to five in all, set in one line transverse. The thorax forms a kind of oval, oblong, most cylindrical, which appears as it were flattened. The elytra, which are short, reach to the middle of the abdomen, are crossed on the other, and have large black or brown fibres. The wings terminate in a point, not only than the elytra, but even than the antennae. This latter is soft, and ends in two or three appendices of some length. But what tutes the chief singularity of this insect are its fore feet, that are very large and flat, with long legs, ending outwardly in a large serrated and inwardly in a only; between which is situated, and often concealed, the tarsus. The whole animal is of a brown dusky color, haunts moist meadows, and frequents the ponds and banks of streams, performs its functions in a swampy wet soil. With a fore feet curiously adapted to the purpose, it rows and works under ground like the mole, raising a ridge as it proceeds, but seldom to up hillocks. As mole crickets often infest the sides of canals, they are an annoyance to the gardener, raising up ridges in the subterraneous progress, and rendering it unsightly. If they take to the kitchen they occasion great damage among the

s, by destroying whole beds of cabbages, legumes and flowers. When dug out they are very slow and helpless, and make no use of wings by day; but at night they come abroad, and make long excursions. In fine weather, about the middle of April, at the close of day they begin to solace themselves with a low, jarring note, continued for a long time without interruption, and not unlike the chattering of fern-owl, or goat sucker, but more inward. At the beginning of May they lay their eggs, Mr White informs us, who was once an eye-witness: "for a gardener at an house where he was on a visit, happening to be mowing on the 1st of that month, by the side of a canal, his scythe struck too deep, pared off a large piece of turf, and laid open to view a curious scene of domestic economy. There were many caverns and winding passages leading to a kind of chamber, very smoothed and rounded, and about the size of a moderate snuff-box. Within this secret nursery were deposited near 100 eggs of a dirty yellow colour, and enveloped in a tough skin, but too hard to be excluded to contain any rudiments of young, being full of a viscous substance. The eggs lay in a shallow, and within the influence of the sun, just under a little heap of fresh mowed mould, that which is raised by ants.—When mole-crickets fly, the move "*curfu undulo*," rising and falling in curves, like the other species mentioned in the text. In different parts of this kingdom people call them PEN-CRICKETS, *churr-sworms* and *evening-crickets*, all very apposite names."

GRYLLI ACRIDÆ, *Truxalides* of Fabricius, CRICKET family properly so called; of which the characters are these. The head is of a conical form, and longer than the thorax; and the antennæ are ensiform, or sword shaped. Of this genus there are 8 species, none of them found in America.

GRYLLI BULLÆ, or *Acrydia* of Fabricius: these are distinguished by a kind of crest or elevation on the thorax; their antennæ are shorter than the thorax, and filiform; and their palpi are equal. The chief and most obvious distinction of this genus is the form of its thorax, which is prolonged, forming the whole body, and decreases to the extremity of the abdomen. This prolongation of the thorax stands instead of elytra, of which this genus is destitute. It has only wings under this section of the thorax. Linnæus mentions a species in the thorax; which, however, is often wanting. This species is every where to be met with, in the fields, in woods, &c. There are 11 species, inhabitants of Europe and America. Among these the **GRYLLUS BULLA BIPUNCTATUS** is of a dark brown colour; sometimes besprinkled with spots of a lighter hue.

GRYLLI LOCUSTÆ, (the *Grylli* of Fabricius) or LOCUSTS *unarmed at the tail*. This family is distinguished by having the tail purple, without the feet of the *Achetæ*, or the tube of *Tettigonia*; their antennæ are filiform, and shorter than the abdomen; they have 3 stemmata, and 3 joints to the tarsi. To part of this description, however, there is an exception in the

GRYLLUS LOCUSTA GROSSUS, the antennæ of which are of a cylindrical form. According to Mr Barbutt, "few species vary so much in size and colours. Some of these insects are twice as long as others; the antennæ in most are filiform, but in this particular species cylindrical, composed of about 24 articulations, and but one fourth of the length of the body. As to colour, the small individuals are nearly quite red, spotted with black, with the under part of the body only of a greenish yellow. The larger subjects are all over of a greenish hue, the under part being of a deeper yellow; only the inside of the hinder thighs is red. But what characterises this species is, the form of the thorax, which has, above, a longitudinal elevation, attended by one on each side, the middle whereof drawing nigh to the first, forms a kind of X. Moreover, between the claws that terminate the feet, there are small spines, but larger in this species than the rest. This species is to be met with every-where in the country. The larvæ or caterpillars very much resemble the perfect insects, and commonly dwell underground." Of this tribe 118 other species are enumerated in the *Systema Naturæ*, natives of different parts of the globe; besides a considerable number which it is not yet ascertained, whether they are distinct species, or only synonymes or varieties of some of the others. The distinction of *Locusts* into families, (as characterised in § IV, v.) is extremely proper; and the difference of organisation, on which it is founded, has been observed to be adapted to the mode and the places in which the insects lay their eggs. But by taking the wings into consideration, there might have been formed three tribes or divisions, instead of two, upon the same natural foundation. Thus, according to the observations of the Abbé Ponce, (in his *Journal de Physique* for 1787, p. 224.) those which have their abdomen furnished with the tube or dart above mentioned, lay their eggs in a stiff sort of earth which that instrument perforates. During the operation, the dart opens; and being hollow and grooved on each side within, the egg slides down along the grooves, and is deposited in the hole. Of those which have the tail simple, i. e. which have *no dart*, some have long wings, and some very short. The long winged sort lay their eggs on the bare ground, and have no use for a perforating instrument; but they cover them with a glutinous substance, which fixes them to the soil, and prevents their being injured either by wind or wetness. Those, again, which have short wings, deposit their eggs in the sand; and to make the holes for this purpose, they have the power of elongating and retracting their abdominal rings, and can turn their body as on a pivot; in which operation long wings would have been a material impediment. The annals of most warm countries are filled with accounts of the devastations produced by locusts, which sometimes appear in clouds of vast extent. They seldom visit Europe in such swarms as formerly; yet in the warmer parts of it they are still formidable. Those which have at uncertain intervals visited Europe are supposed to have come from Africa; they are a large species about three inches long. The head and horns are of a brownish

coldness of our climate, and the humidity of our soil, are very unfavourable to their production; so that, as they are only animals of a year's continuance, they all perished without leaving a young generation to succeed them. When the locusts take their flight, it is said they have a leader at their head, whose flight they observe, and pay a strict regard to all his motions. They appear at a distance like a black cloud, which, as it approaches, gathers upon the horizon, and almost hides the light of day. It often happens, that the husbandman sees this imminent calamity pass away without doing him any mischief; and the whole swarm proceeds onward to settle upon some less fortunate country. In those places, however, where they alight, they destroy every green thing, stripping the trees of their leaves, as well as devouring the corn and grass. In the tropical climates they are not so pernicious, as in the more southern parts of Europe. In the first, the power of vegetation is so strong, that an interval of three or four days repairs the damage; but in Europe this cannot be done till next year. Besides, in their long flights to this part of the world, they are famished by the length of their journey, and are therefore more voracious wherever they happen to settle. But as much damage is occasioned by what they destroy, as by what they devour. Their bite is thought to contaminate the plant, and either to destroy or greatly to weaken its vegetation. To use the expression of the husbandmen, they burn wherever they touch, and leave the marks of their devastation for 3 or 4 years thereafter. When dead, they infect the air in such a manner that the stench is insupportable. Orosius tells us, that in the year of the world 3800, Africa was infested with a multitude of locusts. After having eaten up every thing that was green,

and gardens, which they filled with their excrement, they placed large quantities of heat in the form of a like combustible matter, in rows, and set on fire on the approach of the locusts, to no purpose; for the trenches were soon filled up, and the fires put out by the locusts. The swarms that succeeded each other, after one of these was in motion, and the young just hatched came to glean after the remains of the off the young branches, and the leaves of the trees. Having lived near a month in their worm-like state, they arrived at their full growth, and changed their worm-like state by casting their skins, and prepare themselves for this new state, by turning their hinder part to some bush, or the corner of a stone, when immediately they begin their motion used on this occasion, and first appear, and soon after the whole swarm is seen. The whole transformation was completed in 8 minutes, after which they remained in a languishing condition for some time, while the sun and air had hardened the ground, and dried up the moisture that remained from their former sloughs, they began to shake off their former greediness, with an increase of strength and agility. But they continued in this state before they were able to lay their eggs. After laying their eggs, they turn their course northward, and probably towards the sea. In that country, however, the fertility of the soil and warmth of the sun generally render the depredations of the locusts of little consequence; besides that the coldness of the air concurs to diminish their voracity. As they are naturally herbivorous, they often devour the leaves of other, and the victor devours the prey. They are the prey, too, of serpents and carnivorous birds. They

on wild herbs, without preying upon d cultivated lands, or making their way. The peasants look on them with in- while they are frisking about in the field, any measure to destroy them till the dan- ediate, and the favourable moment to : evil is elapsed. Their yearly number considerable, as the males are far more than the females. If an equal propor- allowed only for ten years, their num- be so great as to destroy the whole ve- stem. Beasts and birds would starve f subsistence, and even mankind would prey to their ravenous appetites. In : increase was so great from the multi- males, that all La Mancha and Portugal red with them and totally ravaged. rs of famine were spread even farther, d the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, nd Valencia. The amours of these are objects of surprise and astonish- their union is such that it is diffi- arate them. When this separation is after having lasted some hours, they uled, that the male retires immediate- ater for refreshment, where, losing the limbs, he soon perishes, and becomes y to the fish; having given life to his : the expence of his own. The female, ed, though not without violent strug- s the remainder of her days in some so- e, busy in forming a retreat under here she can secure her eggs, of which ly lays about 40, screening them by her own the intemperature of the air, as more immediate danger of the plough e, one fatal blow of which would de- e hopes of a rising generation. The her building this cell is equally surpri- e hinder part of her body, nature has er with a round smooth instrument, 8 gth, which at its head is as big as a wri- diminishing to a hard point, hollow the tooth of a viper, but only to be lens. At the root of this vehicle there with a kind of bladder, containing a matter, of the same colour, but without icy or tenacity of that of the silk-worm, by an experiment, made for the pur- infusion in vinegar, for several days, y effect. The orifice of the bladder s exactly with the instrument which et the glutinous matter. It is hid un- of the belly, and its interior surface the moveable parts of the belly, and of its motions, forming the most ad- texture for every part of its operations, lipose of this ingredient at pleasure, e fluid, which has 3 very essential pro- fl, being indissoluble in water, it pre- ung from being drowned; next, it re- t of the sun, otherwise the structure way and destroy its inhabitants; last- f against the frost of winter, so as to ecessary warmth within. For greater is retreat is always contrived in a soli- for though a million of locusts were n a cultivated field, not one would de-

posit her eggs there; but wherever they meet a barren and lonesome situation, there they are sure to repair and lay their eggs. These locusts seem to devour, not so much from a ravenous appetite, as from a rage of destroying every thing that comes in their way. It is not surprising, that they should be fond of the most juicy plants and fruits, such as melons, and all manner of garden fruits and herbs, and feed also upon aromatic plants, such as lavender, thyme, rosemary, &c. which are so common in Spain, that they serve to heat ovens: but it is very singular, that they equally eat mustard seed, onions, and garlic; nay even hemlock, and the most rank and poisonous plants, such as the thorn apple and deadly night-shade. They even prey upon crowfoot, whose causticity burns the very hides of beasts; and such is their universal taste, that they do not prefer the innocent mallow to the bitter surze, or rue to wormwood, consuming all alike, without predilection or favour, with this remarkable circumstance, that during the four years they committed such havoc in Estremadura, the love-apple, or *Lycopersicon solanum* of Linnæus, was the only plant that escaped their rapacious tooth, and claimed a respect to its root, leaves, flowers, and fruit. Naturalists may search for their motives, which I am at a loss to discover; the more as I saw millions of them light on a field near Almaden, and devour the woollen and linen garments of the peasants, which were lying to dry on the ground. The curate of the village, a man of veracity, at whose house I was, assured me, that a tremendous body of them entered the church, and devoured the silk garments that adorned the images of the saints, not sparing even the varnish on the altars. The better to discover the nature of such a phenomenon, I examined the stomach of the locust, but only found one thin and soft membrane, with which, and the liquor it contains, it destroys and dissolves all kinds of substances, equally with the most caustic and venomous plants; extracting from them a sufficient and salutary nourishment. Out of curiosity to know the nature of so formidable a creature, I was urged to examine all its parts with the utmost exactness: its head is of the size of a pea, though longer; its forehead pointing downwards like the handsome Andalusian horse; its mouth large and open; its eyes black and rolling, added to a timid aspect not unlike a hare. With such a dauntless countenance, who would imagine this creature to be the scourge of mankind! In its two jaws it has 4 incisive teeth, whose sharp points traverse each other like scissars, their mechanism being such as to gripe or to cut. Thus armed, what can resist a legion of such enemies? After devouring the vegetable kingdom, were they, in proportion to their strength and numbers, to become carnivorous like wasps, they would be able to destroy whole flocks of sheep, even to the dogs and shepherds; just as we are told of ants in America, that will overcome the fiercest serpents. The locust spends the months of April, May, and June, in the place of its birth: at the end of June its wings have a fine rose colour, and its body is strong. Being then in their prime, they assemble for the last time, and burn with a desire to propagate their species: this is

first direction of this formidable column is always against the wind, which if not too strong, the column will extend about a couple of leagues. The locusts then make a halt, when the most dreadful havoc begins; their sense of smell being so delicate, they can find at that distance a corn field or a garden, and after demolishing it, rise again in pursuit of another: this may be said to be done in an instant. Each seems to have, as it were, four arms and two feet; the males climb up the plants, as sailors do the shrouds of a ship, and nip off the tenderest buds, which fall to the females below. Many old people assured me, when so much mischief was done in 1754, it was the third time in their remembrance, and that they always are found in the pasture grounds of Extremadura, from whence they spread into the other provinces of Spain. They are certainly indigenous, being of a different shape from those of the North or the Levant, as is evident on comparing them with such in the cabinets of natural history. The locust of Spain is the only one that has rose coloured wings: besides, it is impossible they can come from any other part. From the north it is clear they do not, by the observations of so many ages; from the south they cannot, without crossing the sea, which is hardly possible by the shortness of their flight: and like birds of passage, they would be known. I once saw a cloud of them go over Malaga, and move towards the sea, and pass over it, for about a quarter of a league, to the great joy of the inhabitants, who concluded they would soon be drowned; but, to their disappointment, they suddenly veered about towards the coast, and pitched upon an uncultivated space surrounded with vineyards, which they soon after quitted. When once they appear, let the number demolished be ever so great, the proportion

stomach; and behind that, a wrinkled and furrowed within side there is still a third! so that it is with some probability, that all the genus chew the cud, as they so ruminant animals in their internal

(1.) GRYNÆUS, Simon, a learned professor at Vienna and afterwards in 1523. Being a protestant he much persecution, and in 1531 fled to England; where he received great favour from Sir Thomas More, to whom Erasmus recommended him. He was a learned man, and did great service to the commonwealth by his works, which were the first who published the works of Plato in Greek. He also published the works of Plato and Plato's works, with some of Proclus. He died at Basil, in 1531.

(2.) GRYNÆUS, Thomas, nephew of Simon (N^o 1.) was born at Syringen in 1531. He was equally learned and amiable, and his sons also eminent in literature.

GRYNAU, a town of the Helvetians, in the canton of Glaris, seated on the Rhine, 3 miles W. of Uznach.

GRYPHITES, in natural history, a fossil shell, veined with a head, and becoming gradually wider towards the mouth, where it ends in a circular orifice, or beak of this is very hooked. They are frequently found in our mountains in many counties. There are several species; some extremely rounded towards the back, others less so; and the thickness of the shell, when they are composed, are in some thin, in others thicker and larger,

ry good printer, but that Gryphius ble printer and corrector. He died 163d year: and his business was car- reputation by his son, Anthony Gry- of the most beautiful books of Sebas- s, is a Latin Bible: it was printed in the largest types that had then 2 vols folio.

5. See GRIFFON, § 2; and *Plate* 2.

ARDE, a town of Norway, in the ontheim; 76 m. SE. of Drontheim.

a county of Virginia, bounded on d E. by Wythe, Montgomery, and les; and on the S. by N. Carolina.

ND, a town of Austria, 5 miles W.

town of Arabia, 16 m. S. of Iohelia.

a town of France, in the dep. of ite, 8 miles SE. of Marennes.

town of Cuba, 36 m. SW. of Bayamo.

1, a village of Mexico near Mount was destroyed by a volcano in that 760.

a sea port of Peru, between Callao, St Martin.

NGA, or } a town of Mexico, in

INGO, { the prov. of Tlascala, out 600 inhabitants, of whom 100

ALAJARA, or GUADALAXARA, a n, in the prov. of New Castile, and ala, seated on the Herares; con- ches, and 14 convents, but hardly its. It is 22 miles NE. of Madrid. . Lat. 40. 36. N.

ALAJARA, or GUADALAXARA a province of Mexico, in the audi- t.

LAJARA, or GUADALAXARA, the above province (N° 2.) with a seated on a plain, near the Baranja: of Mexico. Lon. 104. 49. W. Lat.

LAJARA, or GREAT RIVER, a river ich rises in the mountains of To- ne above city; (N° 3.) and after 600 miles, falls into the S. Pacific . 22° N. It has stupendous falls S. of the city, N° 2.

VIAR, a river of Spain, which rises of Arragon and New Castile, and, rvel in Arragon, crosses the king- a, passes the town of that name, falls into the Mediterranean sea, a encia.

XARA. See GUADALAJARA.

ANAR, a town of Spain, in Estre- les S. of Sierena.

AZAR, a town of Spain, in the rdova; 12 miles SW. of Cordova.

, a town of Spain in New Castile, Madrid.

ALOUPE, a handsome town of adura, with a celebrated convent, is magnificent, and is immensely ted on the river (N° 2.) 45 miles

Lon. 3. 50. E. Lat. 39. 15. N.

(2.) GUADALOUPE, a river of Spain, in Estre- madura.

(3.) GUADALOUPE, one of the CARIBBEE or LEEWARD islands, lying about mid-way between Antigua and Martinico. It is 45 miles long, 38 broad, and, being of an irregular figure, is about 240 miles in circumference. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, which is not above 6 miles long, and from 15 to 40 fathoms broad. This canal, named the *Salt River*, is na- vigable, but only carries vessels of 50 tons burden. That part of the island, which gives its name to the whole is, towards the centre, full of craggy rocks, where the cold is so intense, that nothing will grow upon them but fern, and some useless shrubs covered with mois. On the top of these rocks a mountain c lled *la Souffriere*, or the *Brimstone Mountain*, rises to an immense height. It exhales, through various openings, a thick black smoke, intermixed with sparks that are visible by night. From all these hills flow numberless springs, which fertilize the plains below, and moderate the burn- ing heat of the climate by a refreshing stream, so celebrated, that the galleons which formerly used to touch at the Windward Islands, had orders to renew their provision with this pure and salubri- ous water. Such is that part of the island pro- perly called *Guadaloupe*. That which is common- ly called *Grande Terre* has not been so much fa- voured by nature. It is indeed less rugged, but it wants springs and rivers. The soil is not so fer- tile nor the climate so wholesome. No European nation had taken possession of this island, when 550 Frenchmen arrived there from Dieppe on the 28 June 1635. Their provisions were so ill chosen, that they were spoiled in the passage, and were all exhausted, in two months. St Christopher's refused to spare them any; and their first attempts in husbandry could not as yet afford any thing. No resource was left but from the savages; but the superfluities of a people, who cultivate little, and never laid up stores, could not be great. The new comers came to a resolution to plunder them; and hostilities commenced on the 16th Jan. 1636. The Caribs, not thinking themselves in a condi- tion openly to resist an enemy, who had so much the advantage from the superiority of their arms, destroyed their own provisions and plantations, and retired to Grande Terre, and the neighbour- ing islands. From thence the most desperate came over to Guadaloupe, and concealing themselves in the forests, they shot with their poisoned ar- rows all the Frenchmen who were hunting or fishing. During night, they burned the houses and destroyed the plantations of their unjust spoilers. A dreadful famine was the consequence. The colonists were reduced to graze in the fields, and to dig up dead bodies for their subsistence. At last the government of Aubert brought about a peace with the savages, at the end of 1640. The remembrance of the hardships they had suffered proved a powerful incitement to cultivate all ar- ticles of immediate necessity; and afterwards in- duced an attention to those of luxury consumed in the mother country. Those, who had escaped the calamities they had drawn upon themselves, were soon joined by some colonists from St Chris- topher's, and from Europe. But still the prosper-

city of Guadaloupe was impeded by obstacles arising from its situation. The facility with which the pirates from the neighbouring islands could carry off their cattle, their slaves, and their crops, distressed them greatly. Intestine broils, arising from jealousies of authority, often disturbed the quiet of the planters. And the adventurers, who went over to the windward islands, disdaining a land that was fitter for agriculture than for naval expeditions, were easily drawn to Martinico by the convenient roads it abounds with. In 1700 the number of inhabitants amounted only to 383; white people, 325 savages, free negroes, and mulattoes; and 673 slaves, many of whom were Caribs. There were only 60 small plantations of sugar, and 66 of indigo, cocoa, and cotton. The cattle amounted to 1620 horses and mules, and 3699 head of horned cattle. This was the fruit of 60 years labour. But at the end of 1735, the colony was peopled with 9,643 whites, and 41,140 slaves. The saleable commodities were the produce of 334 sugar plantations, 15 plots of indigo, 46,840 stems of cocoa, 11,700 of tobacco, 2,157,713 of coffee, 11,748,447 of cotton. For provisions, it had 29 squares of rice or maize, 1219 of potatoes, 2,028,520 banana trees, and 31,577,950 trenches of cassava. The cattle consisted of 4946 horses, 2914 mules, 125 asses, 11,716 head of horned cattle, 11,161 sheep and goats, 1444 hogs. Such was the state of Guadaloupe when it was conquered by the British in April 1759. The British, informed of the advantage the French made of their trade with the colonies, sent large quantities of goods to the conquered island, and thus overstocked the market, and sink the prices of European commodities. The colonists bought them at low prices, and obtained long credit. To this credit, was soon added another arising from speculation: 14,721 negroes were carried thither, to hasten the growth and enhance the value of the plantations. But all hopes of advantage from the new conquest were frustrated, Guadaloupe with its dependencies being restored by the treaty of peace in 1763. By the survey in 1767, this island, including those of Desada, St Bartholomew, Margalante, and Saints, contained 11,263 white people; 752 free blacks and mulattoes, 72,761 slaves; in all 85,776 souls. The number of cattle was 5060 horses, 4854 mules, 111 asses, 17,378 horned cattle, 14,891 sheep and goats, and 2669 hogs: The number of plantations was 1983. The sugar works employed 414 mills. The annual produce of Guadaloupe, and the adjacent islands, was estimated many years ago at 46 millions of pounds of sugar, 21 millions of coffee, 320,000 lb. of cotton and 8000 of cocoa: besides logwood, ginger, rum, skins, &c. This island was taken by the British in April 1759, but retaken by the French under Victor Hugues, in Feb. 1795. Lon. from 43. 24 to 44. 11. W. of Ferro. Lat. from 15. 55. to 16. 37. N.

(4) GUADALOUPE, an island on the coast of Colombia. Lon. 118. 0. W. Lat. 29. 5. N.

(5) GUADALQUIVIR, one of the most famous rivers of Spain, rises in Andalusia, near the confines of Granada, and running quite through Andalusia, by the towns of Baiza, Andaxar, Cordova, Seville, falls at last into the Bay of Cadiz.

(1.) GUADARAMA, a river of Spain, Castile.

(2.) GUADARAMA, a town of Spain, above river, 18 miles NW. of Madrid; in chieft. Lon. 3. 48. W. Lat. 41. 45. N.

GUADIANA, a large river of Spain rises in New Castile, and, passing across mountains, falls down to the lakes called *Guadiana*, from whence it runs to Cadiz, Merida, and Badajoz in Extremadura; and after having run for some distance in Portugal, it separates Algarve, daluna, and falls into the bay of Lagos, Castro Marim and Agramonte.

GUADIX, a town of Spain, in Granada a bishop's see. It was taken from the Moors in 1253, who afterwards retook it, but the Christians again got possession of it in 1489. Lon. 3. 5. N.

GUADRAMIRO, a town of Spain, in Castile. Lon. 3. 5. N.

GUADUPE, or GRAND COMMERCE, a town of Mexico, the capital of Comancha, contains 12,000 people: 4 m. N. of Little Mexico.

(1.) GUAIACUM *n. f.* *Guaiacum*, a tree of the East Indies, the bark of which is used in medicine. It is excellent in many cases, and was once famous for curing a real disease, which it still does in some climates, but with us we find it must have a resin of it, improperly called *Guaiacum Hill*.

(11) GUAIACUM, in botany. *Licium Pockwood*; a genus of the monogynous, belonging to the decandria class of plants, the natural method ranking under the *Gruinales*. The calyx is quinquefid and the petals 5, and inserted into the calyx; the fruit is angulated, and trilobular or quinquelobular.

1. GUAIACUM AFRICUM, with many broad leaves, is a native of the Cape of Good Hope. The plants retain their leaves all the year. They have never yet flowered in this country. It is to be propagated by layers, and all the winter in a good green house.

2. GUAIACUM OFFICINALE, the common wood used in medicine, is a native of India islands and the warmer parts of America. There it becomes a large tree, having a thick, brownish bark, not very thick. The wood is firm, solid, ponderous, very resinous, with yellow colour in the middle, and of a mastic taste. The smaller branches are coloured bark, and are garnished with white flowers produced in clusters at the ends of the branches, and are composed of oval corals of a fine blue colour. This species is propagated by seeds, which must be sown from the countries where it naturally grows, must be sown fresh in pots, and in a good hot-bed, where they will come up in 4 weeks. While young, they may be kept in a bed of tan-bark under a frame during the winter, but in autumn they must be removed to a cold bed, where they should continue all the year. The wood of this species is of great use in medicine and in the mechanical arts. It is compact and heavy as to sink in water. The bark is often of a pale yellowish colour.

It is blacker, or of a deep brown. Sometimes marbled with different colours. It is so hard to break the tools used in felling it; and is therefore seldom used as firewood, but is of great use to the sugar-planters for making wheels and to the mills. It is also often made into bowls, stars, and other utensils. It is brought over to Britain in large pieces of 4 or 500 weight each; but from its hardness and beauty is in great demand for various articles of turnery ware. The wood, gum, bark, fruit, and even the flowers of the tree, possess medicinal virtues; but only the first, particularly the wood and resin, are now in general use in Europe. The wood has little or no smell, except when heated, or while rasping, when a slight aromatic one is perceived. When chewed, it impresses a mild acrimony, biting the palate and fauces. Its pungency resides in its resinous matter, which it gives out in some degree to water by boiling, but spirit extracts it wholly. Of the *bark* there are two kinds; one smooth, the other unequal on the surface: they are both weaker than the wood; though in a recent state, they are strongly cathartic. The gum, or resin, is obtained by wounding the bark in different parts of the tree, or by what has been called *jagging*. It exudes copiously from the wounds, though gradually; and when a quantity is found accumulated on the several wounded trees, hardened by exposure to the sun, it is gathered and packed in small kegs for exportation. This resin is of a friable texture, of a deep greenish colour, and sometimes of a reddish hue; it has a pungent acrid taste but little or no smell, unless heated. The tree also yields a spontaneous exudation from the bark, which is called the *native gum*, and is brought to us in small irregular pieces, of a bright opalescent appearance; it differs from the former in being much purer. In the choice of the wood, that which is the freshest, most ponderous, and darkest coloured, is the best; the largest pieces are to be preferred too; and the best method is to rasp them as wanted, for the finer parts are apt to be lost when the raspings or chips are kept. In rasping the resin, prefer those pieces which have bits of the bark adhering to them, and that easily separate therefrom by a quick blow. The resin is sometimes mixed with the gum of the manchineal tree; but this is easily detected by dissolving a little in spirit of wine or rum. The true gum imparts a whitish or milky tinge, but the manchineal gives a greenish cast. Mouch advises a few drops of *spirit. nitri dulc.* to be added to the spiritous solution, and then to be diluted with water, by which the gum will be precipitated in a blue powder; if the adulteration will appear floating in white fæces, &c. Guaiacum was first introduced into Europe as a remedy for the venereal disease, in 1508. It was attended with great success in slight affections, but failed where the disease was deep seated; and was at length superseded by mercury, to which it now only serves occasionally as an adjuvant in the *decottum lignorum*, of which guaiacum is the chief ingredient. It is esteemed a warm stimulating medicine; strengthening the stomach and other viscera, and remarkably promoting the urinary and cuticular discharges: hence, in cutaneous defecations, and other disorders proceeding

from obstructions of the excretory glands, and where sluggish serous humours abound, it is useful; rheumatic and other pains have often been relieved by it. It is also laxative. The resin is the most active principle in the drugs compounded with it. The resin is extracted from the wood in part by water, but much more perfectly by spirits. The watery extract, kept in the shops, proves considerably weaker than that made with spirit. This last extract is of the same quality with the native resin, and differs from that brought to us only in being purer. The gum or extracts are given from a few grains to a scruple or half a dram, which last dose proves for the most part considerably purgative. The officinal preparations of guaiacum are an extract of the wood, a solution of the gum in rectified spirit of wine, a solution in volatile spirit, and an empyreumatic oil distilled from the wood. The resin dissolved in rum, or combined with water, by mucilage or the yolk of an egg, or in form of the volatile tincture or elixir, is employed in gout and chronic rheumatism. The tincture or elixir has been given to the extent of half an ounce twice a-day, and is sometimes usefully combined with laudanum.

3. *GUAIACUM SANCTUM*, with many pairs of obtuse lobes, hath many small lobes placed along the mid rib by pairs of a darker green colour than those of the foregoing sort. The flowers are produced in loose bunches towards the end of the branches, and are of a fine blue colour, with petals fringed on the edges. This species is also a native of the West India islands, where it is called *bastard lignum vite*. It may be propagated like the last.

* *GUAIAVA*. See *GUAVA*.

GUAIRA, a prov. of S. America, in Paraguay.

GUALATA, a kingdom of Africa.

GUALDO, a town of Italy, in Ancona, 8 miles NW. of Nocera. It was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1751. Lon. 12. 43. E. Lat. 43. 6. N.

(1.) *GUALEOR*, } or *Gowalier*, a province of

(1.) *GUALIOR*, } Asia, situated in the middle of Indostan.

(2.) *GUALIOR*, or *GUALEOR*, a large town of the above province, with a celebrated fortress of great strength. By the nearest rout, it is upwards of 800 miles from Calcutta, and 910 by the ordinary one; and about 280 from the British frontiers. In the ancient division of the empire it is classed in the Soubah of Agra, and is often mentioned in history. In the year 1008, and during the two following centuries, it was thrice reduced by famine. It must in all ages have been deemed a military post of consequence, both from its situation in respect to the capital, and from the peculiarity of its site. It stands on the principal road from Agra to Malwa, Guzerat, and the Deccan; near the place where it enters the hilly tract which advances from Bundelcund, Malwa, and Agimere, along the banks of the Jumnah. From all these circumstances, together with its natural and acquired advantages as a fortress, the possession of it was deemed of the utmost importance by the emperors of Indostan. Its palace was used as a state prison as early as 1317, and continued to be such until the downfall of the empire. On the dismemberment of the empire, Gualeor appears to have

have fallen to the lot of a rajah of the Jat tribe; who assumed the government of the district in which it is situated, under the title of Rana of Gohod. Since that period it has changed masters more than once; the Mahrattas, whose dominions extend to the neighbour hood of it, having sometimes possessed it, and at other times the Rana: but the means of transfer were always either famine or treachery, nothing like a siege having ever been attempted. Gualcor was in the possession of Madajee Scindia, a Mahratta chief, in 1779, when the council-general of Bengal concluded an alliance with the Rana; in consequence of which, 4 battalions of Sepoys, of 500 men each, and some pieces of artillery, were sent to his assistance, his district being over run by the Mahrattas, and himself almost shut up in his fort of Gohud. The grand object of his alliance was to penetrate into Scindia's country, and to draw Scindia himself from the western side of India, where he was attending the motions of gen. Godard, then employed in the reduction of Guzerat; it being Mr Hastings's idea, that when Scindia found his own dominions in danger, he would detach himself from the confederacy, of which he was the principal member, and thus leave matters open for an accommodation with the court of Poonah. Major William Popham was appointed to the command of the little army sent to the Rana's assistance; and being very successful, in clearing his country of the enemy, and driving them out of one of their own most valuable districts, was advised by Mr Hastings to attempt the reduction of the fort. Captain Jonathan Scott, then Persian interpreter to major Popham, in a letter to his brother, major John Scott, thus describes the fort and the occasion of its capture: "The fortress of Gualcor stands on a vast rock of about four miles in length, but narrow, and of unequal breadth, and nearly flat at the top. The sides are so steep as to appear almost perpendicular in every part; for where it was not naturally so, it has been scraped away; and the height from the plain below is from 200 to 300 feet. The rampart conforms to the edge of the precipice all round; and the only entrance to it is by steps running up the side of the rock, defended on the side next the country by a wall and bastions, and farther guarded by 7 stone gateways, at certain distances from each other. The area within is full of noble buildings, reservoirs of water, wells, and cultivated land; so that it is really a little district in itself. At the NW. foot of the mountain is the town, pretty large, and well built; the houses all of stone. To have besieged this place would be vain, for nothing but a surprise or blockade could have carried it. A tribe of banditti from the district of the Rana had been accustomed to rob about this town, and once in the dead of night had climbed up the rock and got into the fort. This intelligence they had communicated to the Rana, who often thought of availing himself of it, but was fearful of undertaking an enterprize of such moment with his own troops. At length he informed major Popham of it, who sent a party of the robbers to conduct some of his own spies to the spot." They accordingly climbed up in the night of the 3d of August, found the guards asleep, and thus, meeting with little resist-

ance, in the space of two hours, this important and astonishing fortress was completely reduced, with the loss of only 1 man killed and 22 wounded. On the side of the enemy, Bopgy, the governor, was killed, and most of the principal officers wounded. Thus fell the strongest fort in Indostan, garrisoned by a chosen band of 2000 men, on the 4th Aug. 1780; and which, since the capture of it by the British, was promised by the princes of Indostan, to be impregnable. In 1783, Madajee Scindia besieged this fortress, then possessed by the Rana of Gohod, with 20,000 men, and effected the reduction by the treachery of one of the Rana's officers, who effected the plan of admission of a party of his troops: These were immediately supported by another party, who attacked an opposite quarter, and got admission also. Gualcor is 10 miles from Reypour, 80 S. of Agra, and 130 from the Ganges. Lon. 78. 26. E. Lat. 26. 14 N.

GUALTEIRI, or } a town of the Cisalpine
GUALTERO, } public, in the dept. of
Cato, and late duchy of Reggio, 13 miles N. of Reggio.

GUAM, or GUANAW, the largest of the LADRON islands. It is about 120 miles in circumference; and is the only one among the memorable islands in the South Sea, which has been built in the European style, with a regular town, a church, and civilized inhabitants. The air is excellent, the water good, and the garden, fish, and fruits are exquisite; the flocks of Buffs, goats, hogs, and all kinds of poultry are inexhaustible. There is no port in which scorbutic diseases can be more speedily restored, or find better and more plentiful refreshments, than in this island, and not originally enjoy this abundance. When first discovered by Magellan in 1521, with the other principal islands that lie N. of it, they were all crowded with inhabitants, but afforded no refreshment to navigators, except fish, bananas coconuts and bread-fruit; and even these could not be procured but by force, amidst the showers of stones and lances of the natives. The Spaniards carried thither from America the first stock of cattle, sheep, plants, seeds, fruits, and garden stuffs which are all now found in such abundance. The Ladron islands were covered with inhabitants when they were discovered. See LADRON. Guam alone contained upon its coasts more than 10,000 people. These men were ferocious savages and bold thieves; but so incapable of supporting the yoke of civilization, that the Spaniards have seen them almost annihilated within two centuries. These fierce islanders, after having long defended, by cruel wars, the right of living like wild beasts, being at last obliged to yield to the Spanish arms, took the resolution of administering poisons to their women, to procure abortions, and to render them sterile, that they might not bring into the world beings that were not free, according to the ideas that they had of liberty. This desperate resolution was persisted in with so much obstinacy in the 9 Ladron islands, that their population, which at the time of the discovery consisted of more than 60,000 souls, does not now exceed 900 in the whole archipelago. About 30 or 40 years ago, the remains of the original natives were collected and exhibited

the island of Guam. The principal settlement, which the Spaniards call Agaña, is situated about twelve miles NE. of the place, on the shore, at the foot of a beautiful well-watered country. There are smaller settlements of Indians round the shore, composed of 5 or 6 families each, who cultivate fruits and grain, and employ themselves in fishing. The centre of the island is uncleared. The trees are fit for canoes and boats. The forests are very thick, and the Spaniards at first cleared certain portions to turn them into savannahs for feeding. They sow these spots with grass seeds, and the indigenous plants fit for pasturage. The woods being shaded on all sides, preserve coolness, and afford the flocks and herds shelter from the great heat of noon. The deer are multiplied astonishingly, and having no fear, must be shot when wanted, or tamed. The woods are also full of wild fowls. The flesh of all these animals is good. In the savannahs and forests, there is a multitude of pigeons, parroquets, and other birds, &c. Among the indigenous plants remarkable are, the cocoa-nut and sugar-cane. The woods also abound with various plants, as plantanes, citrons, lemons, orange-dwart thorny china orange with red flowers, &c. As many of these trees are in flower, they perfume the air with agreeable smells, and delight the eye with the most beautiful colours. The rivers of Guam, and her rivulets or torrents, abound in fish. Turtles grow here as large as in the West Indies, but are not eaten either by the Spaniards. The crops cultivated are, indigo, cotton, cocoa, and sugar-cane. Maize is of astonishing fertility; it is raised in plants of 12 feet high, bearing 8 or 10 ears, 9 to 10 inches long, well filled. The gardens are stored with mangoes and pine-apples. The former is one of the finest fruits; it was brought from Manilla, and is freely eaten in great quantities. Horseradish was brought to Guam from Manilla, and is common from Acapulco. The land rises from the shore towards the centre by a plain, but is not very mountainous. It is said, that the soil is equally rich over the whole island, except in the bay, which forms a peninsula almost barren. But the rest abounds with rice. The interior part of the country, called Agaña, many springs of fine water are seen, and basins of pure water, which, beneath thick trees, preserve a most agreeable coolness in spite of the heat of the climate. The inhabitants are such as they were discovered by Magellan; of short stature, rather dark, and in general dirty, though much improved. The women are handsome, well coloured, and of a reddish colour. Both sexes have become gentle, honest, and the men drink freely of the wine of the country. They are fond of music, dancing, &c. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 13. 0. S. **GUAMANCA**, a district of Peru.

GUAMANCA, or } a province of Peru, which
(1.) **GUAMANGA**, } begins 240 miles NE. of Lima, and extends along the centre of the Cordilleras. The air is temperate; the soil fertile; and the mines abound with gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, leadstone, and sulphur.

(2.) **GUAMANGA**, the capital of the above province, with a bishop's see. It is remarkable for its manufactures. The houses are all built of stone and covered with slates. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 13. 0. S.

GUAMAN-VILLAS, a fertile district of Peru, in Lima, 21 miles from Guamanga.

GUANAHAMI, or *Cat Island*, one of the **Bahamas**, memorable for having been the first part of the New World, discovered by Columbus, in 1492.

GUANANDO, a town of Peru, which was destroyed by an earthquake, in Feb. 1797.

GUANA-PATINA, a volcano of Peru, in the valley of Quilea, near Arequipa. An eruption from it, in 1600, attended with an earthquake, laid Arequipa in ruins.

GUANCAVELICA. See **GUANZAVELICA**.

GUANCHACO, a sea port of Peru, 6 miles N. of Truxillo. Lat. 8. 6. S.

GUANCHES. See **CANARY**, § 9.

GUANDAGNANO, a town of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, 29 miles NW. of Friuli.

GUANUCO, a rich and handsome town of S. America, capital of a district of the same name, in the audience of Lima. Lon. 72. 55. W. Lat. 9. 55. S.

GUANZAVELICA, a town of S. America in Peru, and in the audience of Lima. It abounds in mines of quicksilver. Lon. 71. 59. W. Lat. 12. 40. S.

GUARA, a town of Peru, between Truxillo and Lima.

(1.) * **GUARANTEE**. *n. f.* [*garant*, French.] A power who undertakes to see stipulations performed.—God, the great *guarantee* for the peace of mankind, where laws cannot secure it, may think it the concern of his providence. *South*.—A prince distinguished by being a patron of Protestants, and *guarantee* of the Westphalian treaty. *Addis. on the War*.—An oath is a promise made to God, and God is our superior, superior to kings. And he is also the *guarantee* and avenger of all breach of faith and injustice. *Lesley*.

(2.) **GUARANTEE**, or **WARRANTEE**, in law, a term signifying him whom the warranter undertakes to indemnify or secure from damage. See **WARRANTY**.

(3.) **GUARANTEE**, or } in matters of policy, the
GUARANTY, } engagement of neutral states, whereby they plight their faith that certain treaties shall be inviolably observed, or that they will make war against the aggressor.

* **To GUARRANTY**. *v. a.* [*garantir*, French.] To undertake to secure the performance of any articles.

GUARCHI, a fertile district of Peru, 18 miles E. of Lima, extending 120 miles along the Cordillera.

(1.) * **GUARD**. *n. f.* [*garde*, French; *ward*, Teutonic.] 1. A man, or body of men, whose business is to watch by way of defence or preven-

er, had their *guards* and spies, after the practice of tyrants. *Swift*. 2. A state of caution; a state of vigilance.—The great alteration which he made in the state ecclesiastical, caused him to stand upon his *guard* at home. *Davies*.—Temerity puts a man off his *guard*. *L'Est*.—It is wisdom to keep ourselves upon a *guard*. *L'Est*.—

Now he stood collected and prepar'd;

For malice and revenge had put him on his *guard*. *Dryden*.

—Others are cooped in close by the strict *guards* of those whose interest it is to keep them ignorant.

3. —Men are always upon their *guard* against an appearance of design. *Smalridge*. 3. Limitation; anticipation of objection; caution of expression.—They have expressed themselves with as few *guards* and restrictions as I. *Atterb*. 4. An ornamental hem, lace, or border. Obsolete. 5. Part of the hilt of a sword.

(2.) *GUARD*, in a general sense, signifies the defence or preservation of any thing; the act of observing what passes, to prevent surprise; or the care used to prevent any thing from happening contrary to our intentions or inclinations.

(3.) *GUARD*, in fencing, a posture proper to defend the body from the sword of the antagonist.

(4.) *GUARD*, in the military art, is a duty performed by a body of men, to secure an army or place from being surprised by an enemy. In garrison the guards are relieved every day: hence every soldier mounts guard once every day in time of peace, and much oftener in time of war. See *HONOURS*.

(5.) *GUARD, ADVANCED, or VAN-GUARD*. See *ADVANCE-GUARD*.

(6.) *GUARD, ARTILLERY*. See *ARTILLERY, N° 2*.

(7.) *GUARD, ARTILLERY QUARTER*, is fre-

in good order; where, after being drawn up, the small guards are placed at their respective posts: then the captain orders for their guards, who are appointed by the captain of the main guard, to mount in garrison at different posts, as the governor pleases.

(14.) *GUARD, PIQUET*, a detachment of foot, always in readiness in the barracks, where they are generally saddled. The foot draw up at the head of the column, frequently at the head of the column, afterwards return to their posts, and keep themselves in readiness to resist in case of an attack. They are always ready.

(15.) *GUARD, PROVOST*, a detachment of guard that attends the provost-marshal, to prevent desertion, &c. See *PROVOST*.

(16.) *GUARD, QUARTER*, a detachment commanded by a subaltern officer, and consisting of each battalion, 222 feet of the line, in each regiment.

(17.) *GUARD, REAR*, a detachment which brings up the rear of the army, composed of all the old guards. The rear-guard of a party is a detachment of about 500 paces behind the main guard, going out upon a march, to guard in their retreat. The rear-guard is placed in the rear of the main guard, to keep good order.

(18.) *GUARD, STANDARDS*, a detachment of a corporal, out of each company, to mount on foot in the front of the main guard, at the distance of 20 feet from the main guard, to keep good order.

20th. The first regiment is at present commanded by 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 majors, 23 captains, 1 captain lieutenant, 31 lieutenants, and 24 ensigns; and contains 3 battalions. The 2d. regiment has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 2 majors, 14 captains, 1 captain lieutenant, 18 lieutenants, 16 ensigns; and contains only 2 battalions. The 3d. regiment is the same as the 2d.

1. GUARDS, HORSE, in Britain, are gentlemen chosen for their bravery, to be entrusted with the guard of the king's person; and were formerly divided into 4 troops named numerically. The 1st. troop was raised in 1660, and the command given to lord Gerard; the 2d. in 1661, and the command given to Sir Philip Howard; the 3d. in 1693, and the command given to earl Feverham; the 4th. in 1792, and the command given to earl Newburgh. Each troop had 1 colonel, 2 lieutenant-colonels, 1 cornet and major, 1 guidon and major, 2 exempts and captains, 4 brigadiers and lieutenants, 1 adjutant, 4 sub-brigadiers and cornets, and 60 private men. But the 4 troops are now turned into 2 regiments of life-guards.

2. GUARDS, HORSE GRENADIER, are divided into 2 troops. The 1st. troop was raised in 1693, and the command given to lieutenant-general Cholmondeley; the 2d. in 1752, and the command given to lord Forbes. Each troop has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 guidon or major, 3 exempts and captains, 3 lieutenants, 1 adjutant, 3 cornets, and 60 private men.

3. GUARD, YEOMEN OF THE, were first raised by Henry VII. in 1485. They are a kind of pom-pers foot-guards to the king's person; and are generally called by a nickname the *Beef-Eaters*. They were anciently 250 men of the first rank under the king; and of larger stature than ordinary, each being required to be 6 feet high. At present there are but 100 in constant duty, and 70 more not on duty; and when any one of the 100 dies, his place is supplied out of the 70. They go dressed after the manner of king Henry VIII's time. Their first commander or captain was the earl of Oxford, and their pay is 28. 6d. per day.

4. GUARDS, EXTRAORDINARY, or detachments, are only commanded on particular occasions; either for the security of the camp, to cover foragers, or for convoys, escorts, or expeditions.

5. GUARDS, ORDINARY, such as are fixed during the campaign, and relieved daily.

6. GUARDS, THE LATE FRENCH, were divided into those within, and those without, the king's presence. The first were the *gardes du corps*, or body-guards; which consisted of 4 companies, the 1st. of which was anciently Scots. See § 24. The guards without were the *Gens d'Armes*, light horse, miqueleers, and two other regiments, the one of which was French and the other Swiss.

7. GUARDS, THE SCOTS, a celebrated band, which formed the 1st. company of the ancient *gardes du corps* of France. During the ancient intercourse between France and Scotland, the Scots often distinguished themselves in the service of the French. On this foundation the company of Scots guards, and that of Scots gendarmes, were instituted by Charles VII. of France; by whom the first standing army in Europe was formed, in 1485. See GENDARMES, § 3. Valour, honour, &c. VOL. X. PART II.

and fidelity, must have been very conspicuous features in the national character of the Scots, when so great and civilized a people as the French could be induced to choose a body of them, foreigners as they were, to guard the persons of their sovereigns. (Of the particular occasion and reasons of this predilection, we have a recital by Lewis XII. After setting forth the services which the Scots had performed for Charles VII. in expelling the English out of France, and reducing the kingdom to his obedience, he adds—"Since which reduction, and for the service of the Scots upon that occasion, and for the great loyalty and virtue which he found in them, he selected 200 of them for the guard of his person, of whom he made 100 men at arms, and 100 life-guards: And the 100 men at arms are the 100 lances of our ancient ordinances; and the life guard men are those of our guard, who still are near and about our person." (*Seyff's Hist. of Louis XII.*) As to their fidelity in this honourable station, Claud Seyffil says, "The French have so ancient a friendship and alliance with the Scots, that of 400 men appointed for the king's life-guard, there are 100 of the said nation who are the nearest to his person, and in the night keep the keys of the apartment where he sleeps. There are, moreover, 100 complete lances and 200 yeomen of the said nation, besides several that are dispersed through the companies: And for so long a time as they have served in France, never hath there been one of them found that hath committed or done any fault against the kings or their state; and they make use of them as of their own subjects." The ancient privileges of the Scottish life-guards were very honourable; especially of the 24 first. The author of the *Ancient Alliance*, says, "On high holidays, at the ceremony of the royal touch, the erection of knights of the king's order, the reception of extraordinary ambassadors, and the public entries of cities, there must be six of their number next to the king's person, three on each side; and the body of the king must be carried by these only, wheresoever ceremony requires. They have the keeping of the keys of the king's lodging at night, the keeping of the choir of the chapel, the keeping of the boats where the king passes the rivers; and they have the honour of bearing the white silk fringe in their arms, which in France is the *couronne couleur*. The keys of all the cities where the king makes his entry are given to their captain, in waiting or out of waiting. He has the privilege, in waiting or out of waiting, at ceremonies, such as coronations, marriages, and funerals of the kings, and at the baptism and marriage of their children, to take duty upon him. The coronation robe belongs to him; and this company, by the death or change of a captain, never changes its rank, as do the three others." This company's first commander, who is recorded as a person of great valour and military accomplishments, was Robert Patillock, a native of Dundee; and the band continued in great reputation till 1578. From that period, the Scots guards were less attended to, and their privileges came to be invaded. In 1612, they remonstrated to Louis XIII. on the injustice they had suffered, and set before him the services they had rendered to the crown of France. Attempts were made to

re-establish them on their ancient foundation; but no negotiation for this purpose was effectual. The troops of France grew jealous of the honours paid them: the death of Francis II. and the return of Q. Mary to Scotland, at a time when they had much to hope, were unfortunate circumstances to them: the change of religion in Scotland, was an additional blow: and the accession of James VI. to the throne of England, diminished altogether the interests of France and Scotland. The Scots guards of France had therefore, latterly, no connection with Scotland but the name.

(1.) * *To GUARD*. *v. a.* [*garder*, Fr. from our word *ward*, the *w* being changed by the French into *g*; as *Galles* for *Wales*.] 1. To watch by way of defence and security. 2. To protect; to defend.

Naked the graces *guarded* you from all
Dangers abroad, and now your thunder shall.

Milner.

Your pow'r you never use, but for defence,
To *guard* your own or other's innocence. *Dryd.*

Fix'd on defence, the Trojans are not slow

To *guard* their shore from an expected foe. *Dryd.*

—The port of Genoa is very ill *guarded* against the storms. *Addison on Italy*. 3. To preserve by caution.—One would take care to *guard* one's self against this particular imperfection, because it is that which our nature very strongly inclines us to. *Addison's Spectator*. 4. To provide against objections.—Homer has *guarded* every circumstance with as much caution as if he had been aware of the objection. *Broome on Odyssey*. 5. To adorn with lists, laces, or ornamental borders. Obsolete.

Give him a livery

More *guarded* than his fellows.

Shakeſp.

See a fellow

In a long motely, *guarded* with yellow. *Shak.*

(2.) * *To GUARD*. *v. n.* To be in a state of caution or defence.—There are cases, in which a man must *guard*, if he intends to keep fair with the world, and turn the penny. *Collier*.—To *guard* against such mistakes, it is necessary to acquaint ourselves a little with words. *Hart's Logic*.

(1.) GUARDIA, a town of Spain on the W. coast of Galicia, 14 miles WSW. of Tuy.

(2.) GUARDA, or GUARDIA, a strong city of Portugal, in the province of Beira, and a bishop's see, containing 200 inhabitants, a cathedral, and 4 churches. It is 14 miles S.W. of Almeida, and 13 E. of Lisbon. Lon. 6. 57. W. Lat. 40. 22. N.

GUARDIA, a cape of Africa, on the E. extremity of Aden, at the entrance of the Strait of Babelmanbel. Lon. 52. 5. E. Lat. 11. 45. N.

* GUARDIAN. *v. n.* [*from guard*.] State of wardship. Obsolete.

Young so tender, fair, and happy,

Run from me, and fly to the footstool before

Of such a man as thou art. *Shak. Othello*.

GUARDIA MAY, a seaport town of Spain, in Valencia, on the S. coast, 17 miles SSW. of Alicante. Lon. 1. 1. E. of Teneriffe. Lat. 38. 7. N.

GUARDIA, a town of Portugal, in Beira.

GUARDIA S. O. N. a town of Parma, 12 miles S. of Parma.

GUARDIAVALE, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, 10 miles S. of Squillace.

GUARDIAN, a name appointed to row the boats which the ships of war which are laid up

in any harbour, &c. to observe that they keep a good looking-out, calling to the boat as she passes, and not suffering her to come on board, without having previously communicated the watch-word of the night.

* GUARDER. *n. s.* One who guards.

(1.) GUARDIA, or GUARDA. See GUARDIA.

(2, 3.) GUARDIA, two towns of Naples: the prov. of Basilicata, 15 miles SSE. of Potenza. 2. in Calabria Ultra, 15 miles W. of Reggio.

(4, 5.) GUARDIA, two towns of Spain: the province of Alva, 15 miles S. of Vitoria. 2. in New Castile, 22 miles ESE. of Toledo.

(6.) GUARDIA ALTEREZ, a town of Naples, the province of Molise, 21 miles NE. of Isernia. Lon. 14. 56. E. Lat. 41. 49. N.

(7.) GUARDIA GIRARDO, a town of Naples, the province of Molise, 15 miles NW. of Isernia.

GUARDIAGHELE, a town of Naples, in the province of Citra, 10 miles SSE. of Chieti.

GUARDIALOBARD, a town of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, 6 miles N. of Conza.

(1.) * GUARDIAN. *n. s.* Performing the office of a kind protector or superintendant.—My angel protects me unseen, like my guardian angel; and shuns my gratitude like a fair is beautiful by stealth, and conceals the gift she bestows the gift. *Dryden's Ded. to Cato*.

Thus shall mankind his *guardian* care
The promis'd father of the future age.

Mean while Minerva, in her *guardian*
Shoots from the starry vaults thro' fields

(2.) * GUARDIAN. *n. s.* [*from guardian*.] 1.

One that has the care of an orphan: it is to supply the want of parents.—I am father, as I have just cause, being her *guardian*. *Shak. Much Ado*—

When perjur'd *guardians*, proud with
our gains,

Choke up the streets, too narrow for the

—Hocus, with two other of the guardians, it is their duty to take care of the education of three girls. *Arbuckle*. 2. One to whom the care and preservation of any thing is committed.

I gave you a

Made you my *guardians*, my dearest

But kept a reservation to be found

With such a number. *Shak. As You Like It*.

—It then becomes the common sense to have truth at heart, and more especially who are the appointed *guardians* of the faith, to be upon the watch against *heresies*. 3. A repository or storehouse.

Where is Duncan's body?

—Carried to Colmekill.

The fiercest reverence of his pious
And *guardian* of their bones. *Shak. Macbeth*.

(3.) GUARDIAN, *n. s.* 1. 2. *guardian*, one who has the custody and care of persons as have not sufficient discretion of themselves, and their estates, and effects. The *guardian* is to take the profits of the minor's lands, and to account for the same, to be demanded within a reasonable time, and to convert

money, unless the minor is near of age, not such things himself; and to pay in: money in his hands, that might have been paid out; in which case it will be presumed the guardian made use of it himself. In the lands of the heir, without mention of any thing thereon, and to keep him: if he commits waste on the lands, forfeiture of the guardianship: 3 Edward I. persons, as guardians, hold over any land at the consent of the person who is deceased, they shall be adjudged trespassers, and accountable: 6 Ann. cap. xviii.

GUARDIAN OF THE CINQUE PORTS. See

GUARDIAN OF THE SPIRITUALITIES. He has the spiritual jurisdiction of any diocese during the vacancy of the see. He is guardian in law, or *jure magistratus*, of any diocese within his province, or guardian by delegation, as he whom the bishop or vicar-general doth for the time de-

GUARDIANSHIP. *n. f.* [from *guardian*.] The office of a guardian.—The curate stretched his power of souls, to a kind of tutelary power over goods and chattels. *L'Esprit*.—The law is true, not only in losses and indignities to ourselves, but also in the case of trust, where we are offered to others who are committed to our care and guardianship. *Kettlewell*.—The first who established the popular laws, assigning to himself the guardian-laws, and chief commands in war.

GUARANA, a river of Spain which rises in the province of La Estremadura; then enters Portugal W. of Badajoz, and after running through the province of Alentejo, falls into the sea between Ayamonte and Castromarin.

GUARDLESS. *adj.* [from *guard*.] Without

the *guardless* herd, their keeper slain, they were a prey in the Lybian plain. *Waller*.—The land, *guardless* and undefended, must receive a double incitement. *South*.

GUARDO, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, 40 miles ENE. of Leon.

GUARDO. See GOVARDO, N° 1, and 2. GUARDSHIP. *n. f.* [from *guard*.] 1. Protection.—

How should I, by such a man led! How wise and careful *guardship* To save me from fatigue and hardship. *Swift*. [d *ship*.] A king's ship to guard the

GUARD-SHIP, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a vessel of war appointed to superintend the marine in a harbour, and to see that the ships which are not permitted to have their proper watchward kept by having their guard-boats around them. She is also to receive seamen who are taken during the time of war.

GUARDIAN, in botany; a genus of the monogynous class, belonging to the octandria class of plants. The calyx is quadrid; the petals four; the fruit is cylindric, having the antheræ in its

mouth; the capsule is quadrilocular and quadrivalvular; the seeds solitary.

GUARGALA, or GUEFGUELA, a town of Africa, and capital of a small kingdom of the same name, in Biledulgerid, S. of Mount Atlas. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 28. 0. N.

GUARIBA, in natural history, a species of monkey found in the West Indies. See SIMIA.

(1.) GUARINI, Guarino, a native of Verona, descended of an illustrious family, famous for having been the first who taught Greek after the restoration of letters. He had acquired that language at Constantinople. He died in 1460.

(2.) GUARINI, John Baptist, a celebrated Italian poet, grandson to the preceding (N° 1.) born at Ferrara, in 1537. He was secretary to Alphonso D. of Ferrara, who intrusted him with several important commissions. After the death of that prince, he was successively secretary to Vincent de Gonzaga, to Ferdinand de Medicis grand D. of Tuscany, and to Francis Maria de Feltri duke of Urbino. He was well acquainted with polite literature; and acquired immortal reputation by his Italian poems, especially by his *Pastor Fido*, the most admired of all his works, and of which there have been innumerable editions and translations. He died in 1612.

GUARMA, or GUARMOY, a sea port of Peru, with a good harbour, about 130 miles NW. of Lima. Lon. 77. 49. W. Lat. 10. 10. S.

GUASCO, a river of S. America in Chili.

GUASTALLA, or GUASTELLA, a strong town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Mincio, and ci-devant duchy of Mantua, remarkable for a battle between the French and Imperialists in 1734; wherein the latter were defeated, with the loss of 5000 men. It is seated near the Po, at the junction of the Crostolo and the Tagliata, 15 miles N. of Reggio. Lon. 10. 33. E. Lat. 44. 55. N.

GUASTO, or VASTO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra, on the coast of the Adriatic, between the mouths of the Trigno and Aftenello, 15 miles SE. of Lanciano. Lon. 15. 6. E. Lat. 42. 29. N.

GUATAVITA, a lake of Terra Firma.

(1.) GUATIMALA, an Audience of N. America, in New Spain, above 750 miles in length, and 450 in breadth. It abounds in chocolate, which they use instead of money. It has 12 provinces under it; and the native Americans, under the dominions of Spain, profess Christianity, but it is mixed with many of their own superstitions. There is a great chain of high mountains, which run across it from E. to W. and it is subject to earthquakes and storms. It is however, very fertile; and produces great quantities of cochineal, cotton, cocoa nuts, &c.

(2.) GUATIMALA, a province of New Spain, in the above Audience, bounded on the W. by Soconusco, on the N. by Verapaz and Honduras, on the E. by Nicaragua, and on the S. by the South Sea.

(3.) GUATIMALA, or ST JAGO DE GUATIMALA, a large and rich town of New Spain; capital of the above audience and province, (N° 1, and 2.) with a bishop's see, and an university. It carries

on a great trade, especially in chocolate. On the 7th June 1773, it was swallowed up by an earthquake, when 8000 families perished. It has been since rebuilt at some distance from its former site. Lon. 91. 30. W. Lat. 14. 0. N.

(4.) GUATIMALA, VOLCANO OF, a burning mountain, in the above province, N° 1. Guatimala was almost ruined by it in 1541, but was afterwards rebuilt at a good distance from this dreadful mountain. Its eruptions added much to the horror of the earthquake in 1773.

(1.) * GUAVA. GUAIAVA. *n. f.* An American fruit. The fruit, says Sir Hans Sloane, is extremely delicious and wholesome. They have only this inconvenience, that being very astringent, they stop up the belly, if taken in great quantities. *Miller.*

(2.) GUAVA, in botany. See *Psidium*.

(1.) GUAXACA, a province of N. America, in New Spain, which is very fertile in wheat, Indian corn, cochineal, and cassia. It is bounded by the gulph of Mexico on the N., and by the South Sea on the S. It contains mines of gold, silver, and crystal.

(2.) GUAXACA, the capital of the above province, with a bishop's see. It does not contain above 1000 inhabitants; but it is rich, and they make very fine sweet-meats and chocolate. It has several rich convents. Lon. 100. W. Lat. 17. 45. N.

GUAYALAS, a fertile province of Peru, commencing 150 miles NNE. of Lima, and extending along the centre of the Cordillera.

GUAYANA, a town of Terra Firma, 25 miles S. of the gulf of Paria, and 173 SE. by E. of Calabaza.

GUAYAQUIL. See *Guiaquil*.

GUAYLES, a district of S. America, in Lima, W. of Guamales, abounding in cattle.

GUAYNAMOTA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Guadalupe, 70 miles NW. of Guadalupe.

GUAYRA, a town and district of S. America, in the province of La Plata, bounded by Brasil on the E. and Paraguay on the W.

GUBBIO, GUBIO, or EUGUBIO, a town of Italy, in the territory of the church, and in the duchy of Urbino, with a bishop's see, 84 miles N. of Rome. Lon. 12. 41. E. Lat. 43. 18. N.

GUBEL, a town of Bohemia.

GUBEN, a handsome town of Germany, in Lower Lusatia, seated on the Neisse, and belonging to the house of Saxe-Merlinburg, 62 miles NE. of Dresden. Lon. 14. 59. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

GUBER, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, surrounded with high mountains. The villages, which are numerous, are inhabited by shepherds. There are also many artificers, and linen-weavers, who send their commodities to Tombuto. The whole country is overflowed annually by the Niger, and at that time the inhabitants sow their rice. There is one town which contains about 6000 families, among whom are many merchants.

* GUBERNATION. *n. f.* [*gubernatio*, Lat.] Government; superintendency; superiour direction — Perhaps there is little or nothing in the government of the kingdoms of nature and grace, but

what is transacted by the man Jesus, in the divine power and wisdom, and medium or conscious instrument of the *gubernation*. *Watts.*

GURIO. See *Gubbio*.

GUDENSBERG, a town of Germany, Cassel, 4 miles NNE. of Pritzel, and Cassel.

(1.) * GUDGEON. *n. f.* [*goujon*, Fr.] A small fish found in brooks and rivers, caught, and therefore made a proverb, a man easily cheated.—

'Tis true, no turbets dignify my
But *gudgeons*, rounders, what my
fords.

2. A man easily cheated.—This be you in, like so many *gudgeons*, to false arguments. *Sausfr.* 3. Something to a man's own disadvantage; a bait; ment: *gudgeons* being commonly used for pike.—

But fish not with this melancholy

For this fool's *gudgeon*, this opinion.

(2.) GUDGEON, in ichthyology; a cyprinus. See *Cyprinus*, N° 7. Though small, are of a pleasant taste, inferior to smelt. They spawn twice in a year, and their feeding is much like the streams and on gravel, sifting all flies; but they are easily taken with a worm, fishing near the ground; and other mouthed fish, will not easily get when struck. They may be killed by the hook being on the ground; or by a running line on the ground, without float. But although the small red worm best bait for these fish, yet walp, gold cadbait do very well. They may also be for with 2 or 3 hooks at once, and in sport, where they rise any thing large. Wiling for them, stir up the sand or gravel long pole; this will make them jump that place, bite faster and more eagerly.

(3.) GUDGEON, SEA. See *Gouzon*.

(1.) GUE, or GUE DE LONGON, a France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, NE. of Chartres, and 4 W. of Douville.

(2.) GUE DE VELVIRE, a town of the dept. of the Vendee, 3 miles SSW. of May.

GUEBERSVEIR, a town of France, dep. of Upper Rhine, 6 miles SSW. of GUEBRES, or GABRES. See *Gab*. GUEBWILLER, a town of France, of Upper Rhine, 12 miles SSW. of Col. GUEBELL, a river of N. Wales, is merryshire, which runs into the Dure.

GUEGON, a town of France, in the Morbihan, 14 miles W. of Josselin.

(1.) GUILLERLAND, a county of Europe, bounded on the N. by Zuyder Zee; E. by the bishopric of M. the duchy of Cleves; S. by those of Brabant, and W. by the States of Holland. It was erected into a county peror Henry IV, in 1079; and into Lewis V, in 1339. It had dukes of it 1548, when it was yielded to Charles I

rters of Nimeguen, Zutphen, and ing acceded to the union, formed the **GUELDERLAND**, N^o 2. The towns of Michtendonck, Stralen, &c. were ceded by the treaty of Utrecht, and the territory of Ruremond, remained to France. Hence came to the house of Austria. The mentioned territories, called *Austrian Guelderland*, are now annexed to the **REPUBLIC**: (See that article.) as well as Dutch towns of Venlo and Stevens-

GUELDERLAND, one of the ci-devant **UNITED STATES**, which now forms the department of the Batavian republic. Its greatest N. to S. is about 47 miles, and nearly as much; but its figure is very irregular. The air here is much healthier and more salubrious than in the maritime provinces, the land being elevated. Excepting some part of the *Felstave*, it is watered by the Rhine, the Wahal, the Yssel, and the lesser streams. Under the old constitution it was divided into 3 districts, each of which had its own states and diets. Those for the first time were held twice a year at the end of the year, and sent 19 deputies to the states general. There are computed 285 Calvinist ministers, 4 Catholic congregations, 4 Lutheran, and 4 Anabaptist. The towns are Nimeguen, Zutphen, Arnhem, &c. This country suffered from inundations in Feb. 1799.

GUELDERLAND, AUSTRIAN. } See N^o 1;
GUELDERLAND, PRUSSIAN. } & FRENCH

GUERES, a strong town and district of the **REPUBLIC**, in the dep. of the Roer, and formerly of Prussian Guelderland. It is 10 miles NW. of Venlo, and near Amsterdam. It was taken by the French in Oct. 1794. Lon. 6. 21. N.

GUERES. See **GUELDERLAND**.

See **GUELPHS**.

GUERES, a town of the French republic in the dep. of the Moselle, and late prov. of Austrian Flanders. It is 10 miles W. of Courtray.

the surname of the royal family of

or **GUELPHS**, a celebrated faction in the 12th and 13th centuries. The Guelphs called Italy with blood and carnage. The Guelphs stood for the Pope, the Emperor. Their rise is referred by some to Conrad III. A.D. 1139; by others to Frederic I.; and by others to that of Frederic II. A.D. 1240, upon his being elected by Pope Gregory IX. But the opinion is that of Maimbourg, who says that two factions arose from a quarrel between two ancient and illustrious houses on the Rhine, viz. the Henries of *Gibel* and the Guelphs of Adorf. The name is supposed to have been formed from *Welfe*, or following occasion: the emperor having taken the duchy of Bavaria from the brother of Henry duke of Bava-

ria, Welfe, assisted by the king of Sicily, made war on Conrad, and thus gave birth to the faction of the Guelphs. Others derive the name from the German *Wolf*, on account of the grievous evils committed by that cruel faction: others deduce the denomination from that of a German called *Guelfe*, who lived at Pistoia; adding, that his brother, named *Gibel*, gave his name to the Gibelins.

GUEMAR, a town of France, in the dept. of the Upper Rhine, 7 miles N. of Colmar.

GUÉMENE, two towns of France, 1. in the dep. of Lower Loire, 9 miles N. of Blain: 2. in that of Morbihan, 9 miles W. of Pontivy.

GUENE, a town of France, in the dep. of Correze, 2 miles SE. of Tulle.

GUER, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, 9 miles ESE. of Ploemel.

GUERAND, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Loire, 46 miles W. of Nantes, and 250 WSW. of Paris. Lon. 2. 20. W. Lat. 47. 20. N.

GUERARD, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Marne; 6 miles W. of Coulomiers.

GUERCHE; 3 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Cher, 7 miles N. of Sancerre: 2. in that of Indre and Loire, 24 miles NE. of Poitiers: 3. in that of Ille and Vilaine, 10½ miles S. of Vitre.

GUERCINO. See **BARBIERI**.

* **GUERDON.** *n. f.* [*guerdon, garden, Fr.*] A reward; a recompense, in a good and bad sense. A word now no longer in use.—

But to the virgin comes, who all this while
Amazed stands herself so mock'd to see,

By him who was the *guerdon* of his guile,
For so misfeigning her true knight to be. *Spens.*
—He shall, by thy revenging hand, at once receive the just *guerdon* of all his former villanies. *Knolles.*—

Faire is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
To scorn delights, and live laborious days;
But the fair *guerdon* when we hope to find,
And think to burst out into sudden blaze,
Comes the blind fury with th' abhorred sheers,
And splits the thin-spun life. *Milton.*

GUERET, a town of France, capital of the dep. of Creuse, containing 3000 citizens; seated on the Gartempe, 35 miles NE. of Limoges and 170 S. of Paris. Lon. 1. 46. E. Lat. 46. 10. N.

GUERGUELA. See **GUARGALA**.

GUERICHE, or } Otho, a native of Prussia,
GUERICKE, } the most celebrated mathematician of his time, was born in 1602. He was the inventor of the air pump; and author of several works in natural philosophy, the chief of which is his *Experimenta Magdeburgica*. He died in 1686.

GUERIGNY, a town of France, in the dept. of Nievre, 8 miles N. of Nevers.

GUERLESQUIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre, 10 miles SE. of Morlaix.

GUERMANGE, a town of France, in the dep. of Meurthe, 4 miles E. of Dieuze.

GUERNADUAS, a town of Cuba.

GUERNSEY, an island in the British channel, on the coast of the French dept. of the Channel, (ci-devant Normandy,) subject to Britain; but, as well as the adjacent islands, governed by its own laws. See **JERSEY**. It extends from E. to W. in the form of a harp, and is 13½ miles from SW. to NE.

NE. and $12\frac{1}{2}$ where broadest, from E. to W. The air is very healthy, and the soil naturally more rich and fertile than that of Jersey; but the inhabitants neglect the cultivation of the land for the sake of commerce. They are, however, sufficiently supplied with corn and cattle, both for their own use and that of their ships. The island is well fortified by nature with a ridge of rocks, one of which abounds with emery, used by lapidaries in the polishing of stones, and by various other artificers. Here is a better harbour than any in Jersey, which occasions its being more resorted to by merchants; and on the S. side the shore bends in the form of a crescent, enclosing a bay capable of receiving very large ships. The island is full of gardens and orchards; whence cyder is so plentiful, that the common people use it instead of small beer, but the more wealthy drink French wine.

GUERRICAIZ, a town of Spain in Biscay.

GUESCHART, a town of France, in the dep. of Somme; 12 miles NE. of Abbeville.

* **GUESS**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Conjecture; judgment without any positive or certain grounds.

The enemy's in view, draw up your pow'rs:
Hard is the *guess* of their true strength and forces.

Shak.

—His *guess* was usually as near to prophecy as any man's. *Fell.*—

A poet must confess

His art's like physick, but a happy *guess*. *Dryd.*
—It is a wrong way of proceeding to venture a greater good for a less, upon uncertain *guesses*, before a due examination. *Locke.*—We may make some *guess* at the distinction of things, into those that are according to, above, and contrary to reason. *Locke.*—

This problem yet, this offspring of a *guess*,

Let us for once a child of truth confess. *Prior.*

No man is best by accident, or *guess*,

True wisdom is the price of happiness. *Young.*

(1.) * **To GUESS**. *v. n.* [*gissen*, Dutch.] 1. To conjecture; to judge without any certain principles of judgment.—

Incapable and shallow innocents!

You cannot *guess* who caus'd your father's death.

Shak.

Let not your ears despise my tongue for ever,
Which shall possess them with the heaviest sound,
That ever yet they heard.

—Hum! I *guess* at it. *Shak. Macbeth.*

—He that, by reason of his swift motions, can inform himself of all places and preparations, should he not very often *guess* rightly of things to come, where God pleaseth not to give impediment? *Raleigh's Hist.*—

There issue swarming bands

Of ambush'd men, whom, by their arms and drefs,

To be Taxcellan enemies I *guess*. *Dryden.*

—The same author ventures to *guess* at the particular fate which would attend the Roman government. *Swift.*—

Nor can imagination *guess*,

How that ungrateful charming maid

My purest passion has betray'd. *Swift.*

2. To conjecture rightly, or upon some just reason.—One may *guess* by Plato's writings, that his

meaning, as to the inferiour deities, was they who would have them might, and they would not, might let them alone; but that self had a right opinion concerning the true *Stillingfleet*.

(2.) * **To GUESS**. *v. a.* To hit upon a point; to determine rightly of any thing a certain direction of the judgment.—If Xenophon able to call every common soldier by his name in his army, it may be *guessed* he got not the wonderful ability by learning his lessons by heart.

* **GUESSE**. *n. f.* [from *guess*.] Conjecture; one who judges without certain knowledge is the opinion of divers good *guessers*, that the fit will not be more violent than advancing the *Pope*.—

If fortune should please but to take
crochet;

To thee I apply, great Smedley's success

To give thee lawn sleeves, a mitre and

Whom would'st thou resemble? I leave
guesser.

* **GUESSINGLY**. *adv.* [from *guessing*.] Conjecturally; uncertainly. Not in use.—

I have a letter *guessingly* set down.

* **GUEST**. *n. f.* [*gast*, *gist*, Sax. *gwest*,] 1. One entertained in the house or at the table of another.—They all murmured, saying, that it was not fit to be *guist* with a man that is a sinner.

Methinks a father

Is, at the nuptial of his son, a *guist*

That best becomes the table. *Shak. Ham.*

Tell my royal *guist*

I add to his commands my own request.

2. A stranger; one who comes newly to a place. O desarts, desarts! how fit a *guist* art thou to me, since my heart can people you with wild beasts, which in you are wanting? *Shak.*

Those happiest smiles

That play'd on her ripe lip, seem'd not to
What *guists* were in her eyes; when parted
As pearls from diamonds dropt.

* **GUESTCHAMBER**. *n. f.* [*gast* and *chamber*.] Chamber of entertainment.—Where is the *chamber*, where I shall eat the passover with my disciples? *Mark* xiv. 14.

* **GUESTRIT**. *n. f.* [from *gast* and *rit*.] A gift due to a guest.—

Ulysses so dear

A gift esteem'd it, that he would not
In his black fleete that *guist-rit* to thee.

GUETA, a town of Spain, in New Castile.

GUETTARDA, in botany; a genus of plants in the heptandria order, belonging to the monandria class; and in the natural method to the 5th order, *Tricoccae*. The male corolla cleft into 7 parts, not imbricated. The female calyx cylindrical; the corolla cleft into 7 parts; one pistil, and a dry plum.

GUETTAU, a town of Austria, 9 miles N. of Freystadt.

GULUGHION, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire, 11 miles E. of Bourges.

GUEUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine, 6 miles W. of Rheims.

GUFFIN. See **GIFEN**.

GUGGLE. *v. n.* [*gorgoliare*, Ital.] To row water running without intermission out of a narrow mouthed vessel.

GLINGEN, a town of Wurtemberg, on the Neckar, 22 miles SSE. of Heidelberg.

GUENECOURT, a town of France, in the department of Vosges; 4½ miles NW. of Bruyères.

GUAN, one of the LADRONE ISLANDS.

GLAU, a town of Silesia in Nieße.

GLIR, a town of Silesia, 5 m. NE. of Militsh.

GLIRAU, 2 towns of Silesia; 1. in Glogau, 18 m. E. of Glogau: 2. in Nieße, 6 miles W. of Glogau.

GUAYANA, a very extensive country of S. America, bounded on the E. and NE. by the Atlantic Ocean, and the Oroonoko; on the S. by the Amazon, and on the W. by Grenada and New Andalusia. Terra Firma, from which it is separated by the W. and N. by the Oroonoko. It extends 200 miles in length, from NE. to SW.; from the mouth of the Oroonoko to that of the Amazon, and from 300 to 600 in breadth. Geographers divide it into two parts, calling the country along the coast *Carribbeano Province*, and the interior *Guiana Proper*: the last is called **EL DORADO** by the Spaniards, on account of the immense quantity of gold it is supposed to contain. The Portuguese, French, and Dutch, have all formed settlements along the coast.

The coast between Cape North and Cape South is possessed by the natives. Along the coast, the land is low, marshy, and subject to inundation by the rivers which descend from the inland mountains. Hence the atmosphere is suffocating, moist, and unhealthful, especially where the forests have not been cleared away. The Europeans are forced to live in the most disagreeable parts, and fix their colonies at the mouths of the rivers, amidst stinking marshes, and the putrid exhalations of the salt morasses, for the convenience of export and importation. The inhabitants are of three sorts, the natives, who are of a reddish brown; or the mixed progeny of the natives and Europeans; or a mixed progeny of the natives and Europeans.

The natives are divided into different tribes, more or less civilized and polished, as they are more or less remote from the settlements of the Europeans. They allow polygamy, and have no divisions of lands. The men go to war, hunt, and fish; the women look after domestic concerns, spin, weave, in their fashion, and plant cassava and maize, the only plants which are cultivated by the natives. Their arms are bows and arrows; sharp iron arrows, blown through a reed, which is used in hunting; and clubs made of a heavy wood called *Iron-wood*. They eat the dead bodies of those that are slain in war, and sell for slaves those they take prisoners; their wars are chiefly undertaken to furnish the Europeans with slaves. All the different tribes go naked. On particular occasions they wear caps of feathers; in cold is wholly unknown, they cover no part of their bodies but that which distinguishes the sex. They are cheerful, humane, and friendly; but timid, when heated by liquor, and drunkenness is a common vice among them. Their houses are made of 4 stakes set up in a quadrangular form, with poles, bound together by split nibbles,

and covered with the large leaves called *troelias*. Their life is ambulatory; and their houses, which are put up and taken down in a few hours, are all they have to carry with them. When they remove from place to place, which, as they inhabit the banks of rivers, they do by water in small canoes, a few vessels of clay made by the women, a flat stone on which they bake their bread, and a rough stone on which they grate the roots of the cassava, a hammock and a hatchet, are all their furniture and utensils; most of them, however, have a bit of looking-glass framed in paper, and a comb. Their poisoned arrows are made of splinters of a hard heavy wood, called *cacario*; they are about 12 inches long, and somewhat thicker than a coarse knitting needle: one end is formed into a sharp point; round the other is wound some cotton to make it fit the bore of the reed through which it is to be blown. They will blow these arrows 40 yards with absolute certainty of hitting the mark, and with force enough to draw blood, which is certain and immediate death. Against this poison no antidote is known. The Indians never use these poisoned arrows in war, but in hunting only, and chiefly against the monkeys; the flesh of an animal thus killed may be safely eaten, and even the poison itself swallowed with impunity. This country, except its sea coast, and lands adjacent to its rivers, has hitherto remained unknown to all but its original natives; and even of these, it is only the Dutch territories that foreigners have any knowledge of; for those of the Spaniards, French, and Portuguese, are inaccessible to them. This country, on account of the diversity and fertility of its soil, and of its vicinity to the equator, which passes through it, affords almost all the productions of the different American countries between the tropics, besides a variety peculiar to itself.

I. GUIANA, DUTCH, (as it has been hitherto called, though it may now be called **BRITISH**;) was first discovered by Columbus, in 1498. It lies between 7° of N. and 5° of S. lat. and between 53° and 60° of lon. W. It is bounded on the N. and E. by the Atlantic; on the W. by the Oroonoko and the Negroe; and on the S. by the Amazon. It was formerly the property of the English, who made settlements at Surinam, where a kind of corrupt English is still spoken by the negroes. The Dutch took it in the reign of Charles II, and it was ceded to them by treaty in 1674, in exchange for what they had possessed in the province, now the state of New York. It consists of 4 settlements, viz. **BERBICE**, **DEMERARA**, **ISSEQUESTO**, and **SURINAM**; which have all been taken by the British during the present war. (See these articles.) The land for 50 miles up the country from the sea-coast is flat; and, during the rainy seasons, covered 2 feet high with water. This renders it inconceivably fertile, the earth, for 12 inches deep, being a stratum of perfect manure: an attempt was once made to carry some of it to Barbadoes; but the wood ants so much injured the vessel, that it was never repeated. The excessive richness of the soil is a disadvantage, for the canes are too luxuriant to make good sugar; and therefore, the first and second crops are converted into rum. There are some trees on this part; but they are small and low,

low, consisting chiefly of a small species of palm, intermixed with a leaf near 30 feet long and 3 wide, which grows in clusters, called *Troelia*; and, at the edges of running water, with mangroves. Farther inward the country rises; and the soil, though still fertile, is less durable. It is covered with forests of valuable timber, that are always green; and there are some sandy hills, but no mountains. In this country the heat is seldom disagreeable; the trade winds by day, the land breezes in the evening, and the invariable length of the nights, with gentle dews, refresh the air, and render it temperate and salubrious. There are two wet seasons and two dry, of three months each, in the year, and during more than a month in each wet season, the rain is incessant. The dry seasons commence six weeks before the equinoxes, and continue six weeks after. The wet seasons are more wholesome than the dry, because the rains keep the waters that cover the low lands, next the sea fresh and in motion; but during the dry season it stagnates, and, as it wastes, becomes putrid, sending up very unwholesome exhalations. Blossoms, green and ripe fruit, are to be found upon the same tree in all seasons. There are some fine white and red agates in Guiana, which remain untouched; and mines of gold and silver, which the Dutch would not suffer to be wrought.

II. *GUIANA, FRENCH, Old Cayenne, or Equinocial France*, extends from Cape Orange, about 240 miles along the coast, to the Marani; where the Dutch territory begins, and extends to the mouth of the Oroonoko. This part of Guiana is said to be mountainous. The present French government have made it a receptacle for exiles. In Jan. 1801, 80 *Jacobins* were banished to it, without even the form of a trial!

III. *GUIANA, PORTUGUESE*, is that part of Guiana which lies S. of Cape North. It has been united to *BRASIL* and is now considered as part of that country.

(1.) *GUIAQUIL*, a river of Peru.

(2-4.) *GUIAQUIL*, a city, bay, and harbour of Peru, and capital of an audience of the same name. The city is two miles in extent, has 3 fortis, and contains 20,000 inhabitants. Lon. 79. 15. W. Lat. 2. 9. S.

GUIARA, a sea port town of S. America, on the Caracas coast. The British attempted to take it in 1739 and 1741; but were repulsed both times. Lon. 66. 5. W. Lat. 10. 35. N.

GUIBARRA, a river of Ireland, in Donegal, which runs into the Atlantic, 13 miles N. of Lillie Begs.

(1.) *GUICCIARDINI*, Francis, a celebrated historian, born at Florence in 1482. He professed the civil law with reputation, and was employed in several embassies. Leo X. gave him the government of Modena and Reggio, and Clement VII. that of Romagna and Bologna. Guicciardini was also lieutenant general of the pope's army, and distinguished himself by his bravery on several occasions; but Paul III. having taken from him the government of Bologna, he retired to Florence, where he was made counsellor of state and was of great service to the house of Medici. He at length retired into the country to write his history of Italy, which he composed in Italian, and

which comprehends what passed from 1532. This history is greatly esteemed, continued by John Baptist Adami. He died in 1540.

(2.) *GUICCIARDINI*, Lewis, nephew preceding, wrote a History of the Low and Memoirs of the affairs of Europe, to 1560. He wrote with great spirit a persecution of the duke d'Alva, for who prisoned him. He died in 1583.

GUICHE, a town of France, in the Saone and Loire, 10 miles NNE. of C.

GUICQUELLAU, a town of France, dep. of Finisterre; 3 miles NW. of L.

* *GUIDAGE*. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] given to a guide. *Answerth.*

* *GUIDANCE*. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] government.—They charge me with the guidance of wiser men. *Spenser*.—As I lived under the guidance of reason alone, the assistance of supernatural light, it probable that miracles, or a messenger dead, would persuade them. *Atterbury*.—A particular application must be left to Christ, under the guidance of God's holy spirit, who knows our necessity before we ask, and grants in answer. *Rogers*.—

This to the young—but thy experience
Wants not the guidance of a former
—A prince ought not to be under the influence of either faction, because from his office of presiding over the head of a party. *Swift*.

(1.) * *GUIDE*. *n. f.* [from *guide*, French verb.] 1. One who directs another in a journey.—Thou gavest them a burning pillar of fire, a guide of the unknown journey. *Wyl.*

Can knowledge have no bound, but advance

So far to make us wish for ignorance?
And rather in the dark to grope our way
Than, led by a false guide, to err by day.

2. One who directs another in his conduct.

While yet but young, his father of
And left him to an happy guide.
—They have all the same pastoral guidance, authorized, sanctified, and let upon appointment of God by the direction of rit, to direct and lead the people of G same way of eternal salvation. *Pearson*.
tor; regulator.—Who the guide of us only the God of nature? In him we live and are. Those things which nature itself are by divine art performed, using natural instrument: nor is there any such thing divine in nature herself working, but in of nature's work. *Hooker*.—

Some truths are not by reason to be
But we have sure experience for our

(2.) *GUIDES*, in military language, 1. the country people in the neighbourhood of an encampment; who give the army information concerning the country, the roads by which to march, and the probable route of the enemy.

* *To GUIDE*. *v. a.* [from *guide*, French verb.] To direct in a way.—When the spirit of truth shall guide you into all truth. *Jo. viii.*

served to *guide* them to their neighbours
Decay of Piety.—Whoſoever has a faithful
guide him in the dark paſſages of life,
 his eyes in another man's head, and
 ver the worſe. *South*. 2. To influence.
 reſe, or ſuch like ſecular maxims, when
 at the intereſt of this world *guides* men,
 times conclude that the ſlighteſt wrongs
 be put up. *Kettiewell*. 3. To govern
 1; to inſtruct.—For thy name's ſake
 and *guide* me. *Pſ. xxxi. 3.* 4. To regu-
 ſuperintend.—Women neglect that which
 ſigns them as their proper buſineſs, the
 the houſe. *Decay of Piety*.

UIDEL, a town of France in the dep.
 re, 5 miles S.E. of Quimperle.

UIDEL, a town of France, in the dep. of
 , 5 miles N.W. of Orient.

DILESS. *adj.* [from *guide*.] Having
 wanting a governour or ſuperintendent.
 ambitious Swede, like reſtleſs billows toſt,
 in his life he blood and ruin breath'd,
 ow *guideleſs* kingdom peace bequeath'd.

Dryden.

fierce winds o'er duſky valleys blow,
 every puff bears empty ſhades away,
guideleſs in thoſe dark dominions ſtray.

Dryden.

DER. *n. ſ.* [from *guide*.] Director; re-
 guide; Obſolete.—

guide come! to the Roman camp con-
 ſult us. *Shak.*

riſon, that being provoked by exceſſive
 ſt his dagger into his body, and there-
 of reaching his vitals, opened an im-
 the unknown cauſe of all his pain, and
 bed himſelf into perfect health and eaſe,
 great reaſon to acknowledge chance
 ſurgeon, and Providence for the *guide*
 . *South*.

Alexander, an eminent Italian poet,
 via in 1650. At Rome, he attracted
 of Q. Chriſtina of Sweden, who retain-
 her court; he alſo obtained a conſider-
 ce from pope Innocent XI. and a pen-
 he duke of Parma. For a good office
 ſtate of Milan with prince Eugene, he
 ed among the nobles and decurions of
 and died in 1712. His exterior form
 urable; he was ſhort and crooked, his
 arge, and he was blind of his right eye.
 were published at Verona in 1716.

ZZOLO, a town of the Ciſalpine re-
 the department of Miucio, and late
 ſantua.

IDO ARETIN. See ARETIN, N° 2.

DO RENI. See RENI.

UIDON. *n. ſ.* [Fr.] A ſtandardbearer;
 Obſolete.

GUIDON is a flag born by the king's
 broad at one extreme, and almoſt
 the other, and ſlit or divided into two.
 ſign or flag of a troop of horſe guards.
 o, § 20, N° ii.

DON, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) the officer who
 uidon, is that in the horſe guards which
 s in the foot; and takes place next be-
 net.

PART II.

(4.) GUIDONS, [*guidones*, or *ſchola guidonum*,]
 were a company of prieſts eſtabliſhed by Charle-
 magne, at Rome, to conduct and guide pilgrims
 to Jeruſalem, to viſit the holy places: they were
 alſo to aſſiſt them in caſe they fell ſick, and to
 perform the laſt offices to them in caſe they died.

GUIDORE, a river of Ireland in Donegal.

(I.) GUIENNE, the largeſt ci-devant province of
 France, was bounded on the N. by Saintogne,
 Angoumois, and Limofin; on the E. by Limofin,
 Auvergne, and Languedoc; on the S. by the Py-
 renees, Lower Navarre, and Bern; and on the
 W. by the ocean. It was 225 miles long and 200
 broad; and was divided into the Upper and
 Lower. This extenſive province was anciently
 called AQUITAINE, and is now divided into the
 departments of Aveiron, Dordogne, Gers, Gi-
 ronde, Landes, Lot, Lot and Garonne, Lower
 and Upper Pyrenees. The principal rivers are,
 the Garonne, the Adour, the Tarn, the Aveiron,
 and the Lot. Bourdeaux was the capital.

1. GUIENNE, LOWER, contained Bourdelois, Pe-
 rigord, Agenois, Condomois, Bazadois, Landes,
 Proper Gaſcony, and the diſtrict of Labour.

2. GUIENNE, UPPER, comprehended Querci,
 Rouergue, Armagnac, the territory of Com-
 minges, and the county of Bigorre.

(II.) GUIENNE, PROPER, a ci-devant province
 of France included in the above extenſive province
 (N° I.) but extending only 90 miles in length and
 80 in breadth. It now forms the departments of
 Gironde, and Lot and Garonne.

GUIFONI, a town of the French republic in
 Cortica 13½ miles S. of Corte.

GUIGNEN, a town of France, in the dep. of
 Ile and Vilaine; 18 miles NNE. of Rhedon.

GUILANDINA, the NICKAR TREE: A genus
 of the monogynia order, belonging to the decan-
 dria claſs of plants; and in the natural method
 ranking under the 33d order, *Lomentaceæ*. The
 calyx is monophyllous and ſalver-shaped; the
 petals, inſerted into the neck of the calyx, nearly
 equal; the ſeed-veſſel a legumen. There are 3
 ſpecies:

1. GUILANDINA BONDUCA, the yellow nickar.

2. GUILANDINA BONDUCELLA, the gray nickar.
 Theſe are climbing plants, natives of the Weſt
 Indies, where they riſe to 12 or 14 feet: the
 flowers come out at the wings of the ſtalks; and
 are compoſed of 5 concave yellow petals. They
 are ſucceeded by pods about 3 inches long and
 two broad, cloſely armed with ſlender ſpines,
 opening with two valves, each incloſing two hard
 ſeeds about the ſize of childrens marbles, of a
 yellowiſh colour. See N° 3.

3. GUILANDINA MORINGA, the morunga nic-
 kar, is a native of Ceylon, and ſome places
 on the Malabar coaſt. It riſes to 25 or 30 feet,
 having flowers produced in looſe bunches from
 the ſides of the branches, and compoſed of an un-
 equal number of petals. Theſe plants, being na-
 tives of warm climates, require to be kept through
 the winter in a ſtove in this country. They are
 propagated by ſeeds; but thoſe of the BONDUCA
 are ſo hard, that unleſs they are ſoaked ſome days
 in water before they are put into the ground, or
 placed under the pots in the tan-bed to ſoften
 their covers, they will remain for years without

T t t t

vegetating

vegetating. The roots of the *Mnateria* are scraped when young, and used by the inhabitants of Ceylon and Malabar as those of horse radish are in Europe. The wood dyes a beautiful blue colour. It is the *lignum nephriticum*, or nephritic wood, of the dispensatories; and is brought over in large, compact, ponderous pieces, without knots, of a whitish or pale yellow colour on the outside, and dark coloured or red tish within; the bark is usually rejected. This wood imparts to water or reddish spirit a deep tincture; appearing when placed between the eye and the light, of a golden colour; in other situations blue; pieces of another wood are sometimes mixed with it, which give only a yellow colour to water. It has scarcely any smell, and very little taste. It has been recommended in difficulty of urine, nephritic complaints, and all disorders of the kidneys and urinary passages.

(1.) * GUILD, *n. f.* [*gild/si*, Saxon, a fellowship, a corporation.] A society; a corporation; a fraternity or company, combined together by orders and laws made among the members by their prince's licence. Hence the common word *guild* or *guildhall* proceeds, being a fraternity or commonality of men gathered into one combination, supporting their common charge by mutual contribution. *Constr.*—

Towards three or four o'clock

Look for the news that the *guild* hall affords.

Shak. Rich. III.

—In woollen cloth it appears, by the use ancient *guilds* that were settled in England for this manufacture, that this kingdom greatly flourished in that art. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*—

As when the long ear'd milky mothers wait

At some sick wife's triple bedded gate,

For their defrauded absent souls they make

A moan so loud, that all the *gild* awake. *Pope.*

(2.) GUILD, (from the Saxon verb *gildan*, to pay), signifies a fraternity or company, because every one was *gild*er, i. e. to pay something towards the charge and support of the company. It was a law among the Saxons that every freeman of 14 years of age should find sureties to keep the peace, or be committed; upon which certain neighbours, consisting of ten families, entered into an association, and became bound for each other, either to produce him who committed an offence, or to make satisfaction to the injured party: that they might the better do this, they raised a sum of money among themselves, which they put into a common stock; and when one of their pledges had committed an offence, and was fled, then the other nine made satisfaction out of this stock, by payment of money, according to the offence. Because this association consisted of ten families, it was called a *decennary*; and from hence came out later kinds of fraternities. But as to the precise time when these *guilds* had their origin in England, there is nothing of certainty to be found; since they were in use long before any formal licence was granted to them for such meetings. It seems to have been about the close of the 11th century, says Anderson, in his *History of Commerce*, vol. i. p. 73, that merchant *guilds*, or fraternities, which were afterwards styled corporations, came first into the general use in many

parts of Europe. Mr Madox, in his *Forma*, chap. i. § 9 thinks, they were taken from the Saxons, and that they might be brought to England by the Normans.

(3.) GUILD, *Gild*, or *Gild*, a word used in ancient writers, for a congregation or assembly committed.

(4.) GUILD, in the royal boroughs of England is still used for a company of merchants, or freemen of the borough. See *REG. CO.*

(5.) GUILD, *D. an. or.* See *DIA.* ii. Every royal borough has a *guild*, who is the next magistrate below the judges of controversies among men and trade; disputes between inhabitants of buildings, lights, watercourses, and other ancient rights; at which his brethren *guild* are bound to attend; manages the *guild* of the *guild*; and receives and collects.

(1.) GUILDFORD, or *Guldborough*, a borough town of Surrey, on the Wye, near the mouth of an old creek. In the Saxons times a royal villa, where many of the Anglo-Saxons used to pass their festivals. It is a corporation consisting of a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and has sent two members to parliament since the commencement of the great rebellion. London to Chertsey on Portsmouth has this town, which has always been famous for its inn, and excellent accommodations; and affixes are often held here. Its commodity was cloth, of which there are still small remains. Here is a school founded by Edward VI: an almshouse endowed with worth 300l. a year; and two charity schools for 30 boys and 20 girls. There were 3000 but one of them fell down in April 1740. is a fine circular theatre for horse races, town, which began when the Newmarket are ended. K. William III founded a 100 guineas to be run for here every May used to honour the race with his presence once King George I. The Wye is made to the town, and by it a great quantity of is carried to London, not only from the neighbourhood, but from Suffolk and Hampshire 30 miles off. Guildford is 30 miles SW. from London. Lon. 0 30. W. Lat. 51. 16. N.

(2.) GUILDFORD, a town of the United States in Connecticut 12 miles E. of New Britain 201 NE of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 6. E. city Lat. 41. 19. N.

(3.) GUILDFORD, a county of N. Carolina bounded on the E. by Orange county, N. Carolina, S. by Roxborough, and W. by counties; containing 6,674 citizens in 1516 slaves. Martinville is the capital.

(4.) GUILDFORD, a town of N. Carolina above county. 117 miles WNW. of I. Lon. 79. 46. W. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(5.) GUILDFORD, a town of N. Carolina 8. of Yixonton.

GUILD-HALL, or *Gild Hall*, the great judicature for London. In it are kept the court, the sheriff's court, the court of court of conscience, court of common chamberlain's court, &c. Here also the fit upon *negotium*, &c.

n. f. [guille, gille, old French, the
Deceitful causing; insidious ar-
riving subtilty —

ing words he courted her awhile,
lovely, and oft sighing sore,
his heart did court with divers guile;
his looks, and sighs she did abhor.

Spenser.

ave most need to employ a friend,
wily, treacherous, and full of guile,
This do I beg of heav'n,
cold in zeal to you or yours. *Shak.*
with more successful hope, resolve
force or guile eternal war. *Milton.*
his malice and false guile condemn:
ends must be who could seduce

Milton's Paradise Lost.

U. l. adi. [guile and fall.] 1. Wily;
chievously artful.—The way not to
by them that are so guileful through-
ly to be instructed in that which
against guile. *Hooker.*—

Without expence at all,

their words, peace may be obtain'd.

Shakespeare's Henry VI.

he saw his guileful act

ough all unweeting, seconded

usband *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

phantom now forsook the shroud;
dime, and vanish'd in a cloud *Dryd.*
is: secretly mischievous.—

thy brethren to that guileful hole,
dead corps of Bassianus lay. *Shak.*

U. l. y. adv. [from guileful.] Infi-
therously.—

the tempter guilefully reply'd. *Milt.*

U. l. ness. n. f. [from guileful.] Se-
; tricking cunning.

U. l. ess. adj. [from guile.] Free from
of insidiousness; simply honest.

n. f. [from guile. See BEGUILE.]
ays into danger by insidious practi-

as wary wife in all his way,
received his deceitful sleight;

lost his safety to betray;

to beguile the guiler of the prey. *Spens.*

D. See GUILDFORD.

G., a town of the French republic, in
Sainappes and the prov. of Austrian
ited on the Main 6 miles from

3. 53. E. Lat. 50. 27. N.

OT. See COLYMBUS.

FREE, a town of France in the dep.

Alos, 9 miles NNW. of Embrun.

by prince Eugence in 1692. Lon. 6.
41. N.

John, of Welsh extraction, was
ordshire, about 1565. Having com-

ication at Brazen Nose college, Ox-

me a member of the college of arms
and was made rouge croix pursuivant,

he died in 1621. He published, in
rated work, intitled *the Display of*

fol. which has gone through many
the fifth, which came out in 1679,

treatise of honour civil and military,
hn Loggan.

GUILLOTIERE, a village of France in the dep.
of Rhone and Loire, near Lyons. It was put in
a state of siege, along with the commune of Ly-
ons, by decree of the Directory, on the 3d Feb.
1798.

GUILLOTINE, *n. f.* an engine of decapitation,
decreed by the French National Assembly, to be
the sole punishment of persons condemned to
death, on the 20th of March, 1792; so named
from Dr Guillot, a member of the Assembly, who
proposed it as an instrument of *mercy*, by giving
the criminal a more expeditious death than any
other means can afford. Its effect it must be al-
lowed is instantaneous. A minute description of
it is unnecessary, as *fig. 4.* and *5. Pl. CLXXI.* will
convey a sufficient idea of it. This instrument is
not a new invention. It was used in Scotland a-
bout the time of the reformation, when it was
called *the Maiden*; (See MAIDEN;) and is still
kept in the lower part of the Parliament House
at Edinburgh, where it is shown as a curiosity.
Some say it was invented and first used at Halifax
in Yorkshire.

To GUILLOTINE, *v. a.* To behead with that
engine; a new verb, introduced by the use of it.

GUILLOIN, a town of France in the dept. of
Yonne, 7 miles E. of Avalon.

* GUILT. *n. f.* [gilt, Saxon, originally signi-
fied the fine or mulct paid for an offence, and af-
terward the offence itself.] 1. The state of a man
justly charged with a crime; the contrary to in-
nocence.—It was neither guilt of crime, nor rea-
son of state, that could quench the envy that was
upon the king for this execution. *Bacon's Henry*
VII.—When these two are taken away, the possi-
bility of guilt, and the possibility of innocence,
what restraint can the belief of the creed lay upon
any man? *Hammond.* 2. A crime; an offence.—

Close pent up in guilts

Rive your concealing contents, and ask

These dreadful summoners grace. *Shak. K. Lear.*

* GUILTY. *adv.* [from guilty.] Without
innocence; without clearness of conscience.—

Bloody and guilty; *guiltily* awake,

And in a bloody battle end thy days:

Think on lord Hastings, and despair and die. *Shak.*

* GUILTINESS. *n. f.* [from guilty.] The state
of being guilty; wickedness; consciousness of
crime.—He thought his flight rather to proceed
of a fearful *guiltiness* than of an humble faithful-
ness. *Sidney.*—

The last was I that felt thy tyranny;

O, in the battle think on Buckingham,

And die in terror of thy *guiltiness*. *Shak. R. III.*

I should be guiltier than my *guiltiness*. *Shak.*

* GUILTLESS. *adj.* [from guilt.] innocent;
free from crime.—

I am in this commanded to deliver

The noble duke of Clarence to your hands:

I will not reason what is meant hereby,

Because I will be *guiltless* of the meaning. *Shakesp.*

Many worthy and chaste dames thus,

All *guiltless*, meet reproach. *Shakesp. Othello.*

—Then shall the man be *guiltless* from iniquity,
and this woman shall bear her iniquity. *Num. v. 31.*

Thou, who do'st all thou wishest at thy will,

And never willest aught but what is right,

my.—I would not have had any hand in his death, of whose *guiltlessness* I was better assured than any man living could be. *King Charles.*

* **GUILTY.** *adj.* [*giltig*, Sax. one condemned to pay a fine for an offence.] 1. Justly chargeable with a crime; not innocent.—Is there not a ballad of the king and the beggar?—The world was *guilty* of such a ballad some three ages since. *Shak.*

Mark'd you not

How that the *guilty* kindred of the queen
Look'd pale, when they did hear of Clarence's
death! *Shakespeare.*

—We are verily *guilty* concerning our brother, in that we saw the anguish of his soul when he besought us, and we would not hear. *Gen. xlii. 21.*

With mortal hatred I persu'd his life,
Nor he, nor you, were *guilty* of the strife;
Nor I, but as I lov'd; yet all combin'd,
Your beauty and my impotence of mind. *Dryd.*
Farewel the stones

And threshold, *guilty* of my midnight moans.
Dryden.

—There is no man that is knowingly wicked, but is *guilty* to himself; and there is no man that carries guilt about him, but he receives a sting into his soul. *Tillotson.* 1. Wicked; corrupt.—

All the tumult of a *guilty* world,

Tost by ungenerous passion, sinks away. *Thomson.*

GUIMARAENS, an ancient and elegant town of Portugal, in Entre Duero e Minho, divid'd into the old and new town. The former is seated on an eminence, about 1100 paces in circumference, and defended by a barbican. The latter contains 13 squares, 17 streets, 8 gates, 6 churches, 6 convents, 4 hospitals, 4 bridges, and 6000 inhabitants. Its chief manufacture is linen. It lies 10 miles E. of Braga, and 165. N.E. of Lisbon. Lon. 8 22 W. Lat. 41 22 N.

ing, sulphureous mists, and when the flat country is very unhealthy, especially to tivers, however, are little wholesome air. According much within doors in tessins being supplied and pointing with palm oil, the little impression on them. fore, enjoy a good state of procure to themselves a with much less care and our more northern climate artic not only from the but also from the overflow by the land is regularly extremely fertile; and be proved by culture, abounding cattle, poultry, &c. The a fresh supply of food: Food and little art necessary in construction of their house ple, principally calculated the tempestuous seasons dry reeds covered with mud. The disempers the Euro this coast, are fevers, are occasioned by milder their settlements lying ne: fogs and steams arising f mirthes, and the sinking the beach, corrupt the a the foreigners. The most difficult to preserve their ten their death by their geneer, exposing themselves evening, after a very chance, from one extreme

ces spontaneously, and almost without
in, all the necessaries of life, grain, fruit,
and roots. Every thing matures to per-
fection and is excellent in its kind." One thing
surprised him, was the prodigious rapidity
with which the sap of trees repairs any loss they
suffer. "I was never (says he) more astonished,
on landing 4 days after the locusts had de-
stroyed the fruits and leaves, and even the buds
were gone, to find the trees covered with new
leaves, and they did not seem to me to have suf-
fered at all." Similar accounts are given of the
country of the rest of Guinea.

GUINEA, GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF. 1. Of
the country above mentioned. (§ 1.) the 1st is situated
on the river Senegal, which is said to be navigable more
than 500 miles, and is by travellers described to
be fertile and fruitful. Mr Brue, princi-
pal agent for the French African company, who
has lived many years in that country, after describing its
climate and plenty near the sea, adds, "The
country you go from the sea, the country on the
banks of the river is the more fruitful and well im-
proved with Indian corn, pulse, fruit,
&c. there are vast meadows, which feed large
herds of great and small cattle, and poultry are
plentiful; the villages that lie thick on the ri-
versides, the country is well peopled." *Afley's*

Vol. ii. p. 46. The same author in the ac-
count of a voyage he made up the river Gambia,
the mouth of which lies about 300 miles S. of the
Senegal and is navigable about 600 miles up the
river, says, "that he was surprized to see the
land so well cultivated; scarce a spot lay unim-
proved, the low lands divided by small canals
sown with rice, &c. the higher grounds
sown with millet, Indian corn, and pease of
several sorts; their beef excellent; poultry plen-
tiful and cheap, as well as all other necessaries

Mr Moor, who was sent from England
in 1735, in the service of the African company,
settled at James Fort on the Gambia, or in
other stories on that river, about 5 years, con-
firms the above account of the fruitfulness of the

Captain Smith, who was sent in 1726,
in the service of the African company to survey their settlements
along the whole coast of Guinea, says, "the
country about the Gambia is pleasant and fruitful;
all sorts of all kinds being plenty and exceeding

Voyage to Guinea, p. 31, 34. The coun-
try between the two above mentioned ri-
vers is large and extensive, inhabited principally
by three Negro nations known by the name
of FULIS, and MANDINGOS. The Jalofs
live in the middle of the country. See JALOFS.
The principal settlement is on both sides of
the river: great numbers of these people are also
found in the Mandingos; which last are mostly
on both sides of the Gambia. The Fulis
live on both sides of the river Senegal: their
country which is very fruitful and populous, ex-
tends 400 miles from east to west. They are
of a deep tawny complexion, appearing
to have some affinity to the Moors, whose country
lies to the north: they are good farmers,
and have great harvests of corn, cotton, tobacco,
&c. breed great numbers of cattle of all kinds.
The most particular account we have of these

people is from Moore, who says, "Some of these
Fuli blacks, who dwell on both sides the river
Gambia, are in subjection to the Mandingos, a-
mongst whom they dwell, having been probably
driven out of their country by war or famine.
They have chiefs of their own, who rule with
much moderation. Few of them will drink brandy,
or any thing stronger than water and sugar, being
strict Mahometans. Their form of government
goes on easy, because the people are of a good
quiet disposition, and so well instructed in what
is right, that a man who does ill is the abomina-
tion of all, and none will support him against
the chief. In these countries the natives are not
covetous of land, desiring no more than what they
use; and as they do not plough with horses and
cattle, they can use but very little; therefore the
kings are willing to give the Fulis leave to live in
their country, and cultivate their lands. If any
of their people are known to be made slaves, all
the Fulis will join to redeem them; they also sup-
port the old, the blind, and lame, amongst them-
selves; and as far as their abilities go, they sup-
ply the necessities of the Mandingos, great num-
bers of whom they have maintained in famine."

The author, from his own observations, says,
"They were rarely angry, and that he never
heard them abuse one another." The Mandingos
are said by Mr Brue "to be the most numerous
nation on the Gambia." See MANDINGOS. 2.

That part of Guinea known by name of the *Grain*
and *Ivory Coast* extends about 500 miles. See IVO-
RY COAST. 3. Next adjoining to the Ivory Coast

are the GOLD COAST and the SLAVE COAST. Au-
thors are not agreed about their bounds, but their
extent together along the coast may be about 500
miles. And as the policy, produce, and economy
of these two kingdoms of Guinea are much the
same, they will be found described together. See

SLAVE COAST. 4. Next adjoining to the Slave
Coast, is the kingdom of Benin, which, though
it extends but about 170 miles on the sea, yet
spreads so far in land as to be esteemed the most
potent kingdom in Guinea. See BENIN, N° 1

and 3. Artus says, "the natives are a sincere, in-
offensive people, and do no injustice either to one
another or to strangers." (*Collect. vol. iii. p. 228.*)

Smith confirms this account, and says, "that the
inhabitants are generally very good-natured, and
exceeding courteous and civil. When the Euro-
peans make them presents, which, in their coming
thither to trade, they always do, they endeavour
to return them doubly." Bosman tells us, "that
his countrymen the Dutch, who were often obli-
ged to trust them till they returned the next year,
were sure to be honestly paid their whole debts."

There is in Benin a considerable order in the go-
vernment; theft, murder, and adultery being se-
verely punished. Smith says, "their towns are go-
vern'd by officers appointed by the king, who
have power to decide in civil cases, and to raise
the public taxes; but in criminal cases, they must
send to the king's court, which is held at the town
of ORO, or GREAT BENIN. See BENIN, N° 3.

This town, which covers a large extent of ground,
is about 60 miles from the sea." Barbot tells us,
"that it contains 30 streets, 20 fathoms wide,
and almost two miles long, commonly extending

miles on the coast. Great numbers of the natives of both these kingdoms profess the Christian religion, which was long since introduced by the Portuguese, who made early settlements in that country. See ANGOLA and CONGO. In the Collections, it is said, that both in Congo and Angola, the soil is in general fruitful, producing great plenty of grain, Indian corn, and such quantities of rice, that it hardly bears any price, with fruits, roots, and palm oil in plenty. The natives are generally a quiet people, who discover a good understanding, and behave in a friendly manner to strangers, being of a mild conversation, affable, and easily overcome with reason. In the government of Congo, the king appoints a judge in every particular division, to hear and decide disputes in civil causes; the judges imprison and release, or impose fines according to the rules of custom; but in weighty matters, every one may appeal to the king, before whom all criminal causes are brought, in which he gives sentence; but seldom condemns to death. The town of Loango stands in the midst of four lordships, which abound in corn, fruit, &c. Here they make great quantities of cloths of divers kinds, very fine and curious; the inhabitants are seldom idle; they even make needle-work caps as they walk in the streets. The slave trade is here principally managed by the Portuguese, who carry it far up into the inland countries. They are said to send off from these parts 15,000 slaves each year. At Angola, about 10° lat. S. ends the trade for slaves.

(5.) GUINEA, HUMANITY AND CIVILITY OF THE NATIVES OF. M. Adanson speaking of the appearance of the country about the Senegal and Gambia, and of the disposition of the people, says, "which way soever I turned mine eyes on this pleasant spot, I beheld a perfect image of pure nature;

capas are those of Cape Blanco, Leon, Cape St Ann's, Cape Pal Points, Cape Formosa, Cape Mon Cape Lopas, Cape Lede, and chief bays are the Cyprian or Bite of Guinea. Of the rivers, the are those of Corazo and Ambri Lunde, the Cameron, the For the Sierra Leona, and the Sherb from E. to W. (except the Volt N. to S.) and falls into the Atla

(7.) GUINEA, PRODUCE OF. ry, and slaves, Guinea affords senega, gum tragacanth, and other gums and drugs.

(8.) GUINEA TRADE, HISTO most ancient account we have of ticularly that part situated on a negal and Gambia, is from the ancient authors, one an Arabia Moor. The first wrote in Arab century. His works, printed Rome, were afterwards translated printed at Paris, under the patronous Thuanus chancellor of title of *Geographia Nubiens*, count of all the nations lying Gambia. The other was written Moor, born at Granada in Spain were totally expelled from that sided in Africa, but being on a poli to Tunis, was taken by force who finding him possessed of several besides his own MSS. concluded of learning, and as such presented Leo X. This pope encouraged the Romish religion, and Africa was published in Italian.

but supported themselves in an equal state, the natural produce of the country, which had plenty of roots, game, and honey. That on or avarice never drove them into foreign wars to subdue or cheat their neighbours. They lived without toil or superfluities." The ancient inhabitants of Morocco, who wore mail, and used swords and spears headed with iron, coming amongst these harmless and simple people, soon brought them under subjection, divided that part of Guinea which lies on the Senegal and Gambia into 15 parts; those were the kingdoms of the negroes, over which they presided, and the common people were neglected. These Moors taught the negroes the Mahometan religion, and arts of life; particularly the use of iron, before unknown to them. About the 14th century, a native negro, called *Heli Ischia*, expelled the Moorish conquerors; but though the Moors threw off the yoke of a foreign nation, they only changed a Lybian for a negro master. *Ischia* himself becoming king, led the negroes to foreign wars, and established himself in power over a very large extent of country." Since that time, the Europeans have had very little knowledge of those parts of Africa, nor do they know what became of his great empire. It is probable that it fell to pieces, and that the natives retained many of their ancient customs; for in an account published by Moore, in his *Travels on the Senegal and Gambia*, we find a mixture of the Moorish and Mahometan customs, joined with the original simplicity of the negroes. It appears by accounts of ancient voyages, collected by Hackluit, and others, that it was about 50 years after the discovery of America, that the Portuguese attempted to sail round Cape Bojador, which lies between their country and Guinea: this, they effected; when landing on the west coast of Africa, they soon began to make incursions into the country, and to seize and carry off the natives. Early as 1434, Alonzo Gonzales, the first who is recorded to have met with the natives, being on the coast, pursued and attacked a number of them, and some were wounded, as was also one of the Portuguese; which the author records as the first blood spilt by Christians in those parts. Six years after, Gonzales again attacked the natives, and took 12 prisoners, with whom he returned to his ships: he afterwards put a woman on shore, to induce the natives to redeem the prisoners; but the next day 150 of the inhabitants appeared on horseback and camels, provoking the Portuguese to fight; which they not daring to venture, the natives discharged a volley of stones at them, and killed one off. After this, the Portuguese continued to send vessels on the coast of Africa: particularly in 1481, one of their falling on a village, whence the inhabitants fled, and, being pursued, 25 were taken. "The best that ran best (says the author,) taking most." In their way home they killed some of the natives, and took 55 more prisoners. Afterwards Dinisanes Dagrama, with two other vessels, landed on the island Arguin, where they took 54 slaves; then running along the coast 80 leagues farther, they at several times took 50 slaves; but 7 of the Portuguese were killed. Then being

joined by several other vessels, Dinisanes proposed to destroy the island, to revenge the loss of the seven Portuguese; of which the Moors being apprised fled, so that no more than 12 were found, whereof only four could be taken, the rest being killed, as also one of the Portuguese." Many more captures of this kind on the coast of Barbary and Guinea are recorded to have been made in those early times by the Portuguese; who, in 1481, erected their first fort at D'Elmina on that coast, from whence they soon opened a trade for slaves with the inland parts of Guinea. From the foregoing accounts, it is undoubted, that the practice of making slaves of the negroes owes its origin to the early incursions of the Portuguese, solely from an inordinate desire of gain. This is clear from their own historians, particularly Cada Mosto, about 1455, who writes, "That before the trade was settled for purchasing slaves from the Moors at Arguin, sometimes 4, and sometimes more Portuguese vessels, were used to come to that gulph, well armed; and landing by night, would surprise some fishermen's villages: that they even entered into the country, and carried off Arabs of both sexes, whom they sold in Portugal." And also, "That the Portuguese and Spaniards, settled on 4 of the Canary islands, would go to the other island by night, and seize some of the natives of both sexes, whom they sent to be sold in Spain." After the settlement of America, those devastations, and the captivating the miserable Africans, greatly increased. Anderson, in his *History of Trade and Commerce*, p. 336, speaking of what passed in 1508, writes, "That the Spaniards had by this time found that the miserable Indian natives, whom they had made to work in their mines and fields, were not so robust and proper for those purposes as negroes brought from Africa: wherefore they, about that time, began to import negroes for that end into Hispaniola, from the Portuguese settlements on the Guinea coasts; and also afterwards for their sugar-works." About 1551, towards the end of Edward VI's reign, some London merchants sent out the first English ship on a trading voyage to the coast of Guinea. This was soon followed by several others; but the English not having then any plantations in the West Indies, and consequently no occasion for negroes, they traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and Guinea pepper. This trade was carried on at the hazard of losing their ships and cargoes, if they had fallen into the hands of the Portuguese, who claimed an exclusive right of trade there. In 1553, capt. Thomas Windham traded along the coast with 140 men, in 3 ships, and sailed as far as Benin, to take in a load of pepper. Next year John Lock traded along the coast, as far as D'Elmina, when he brought away considerable quantities of gold and ivory. He speaks well of the natives, and says, "That whoever will deal with them must behave civilly, for they will not traffic if ill used." In 1555, William Towerion traded in a peaceable manner with the natives, who complained to him of the Portuguese at D'Elmina, saying, "They were bad men; who made them slaves if they could take them, putting irons on their legs." This bad example of the Portuguese was soon followed by some Englishmen; for Capt. Towerion says, "That in the

course of his voyage, he perceived the natives near D'Elmina unwilling to come to him, and that he was at last attacked by them; which he understood was done in revenge for the wrong done them the year before by one captain Gansh, who had taken away the negro captain's son and three others, with their gold, &c. This caused them to join the Portuguese, notwithstanding their hatred of them, against the English." (*Collection*, vol. i. p. 148.) Next year captain Towerfon brought these men back again; whereupon the negroes showed him much kindness. Soon after this, another instance occurred in the case of Capt. George Fenner, who being on the coast with 3 vessels, was attacked by the negroes, who wounded several of his people, and violently carried 3 of his men to their town. The captain sent a messenger, offering any thing they desired for the ransom of his men; but they refused to deliver them; letting him know, "That 3 weeks before, an English ship, which came in the road, had carried off 3 of their people; and that till they were brought again, they would not restore his men, even though they should give their 3 ships to release them." It was probably the bad conduct of these and some other Englishmen, which occasioned what is mentioned in *Hall's Naval History*, viz. "That when Capt. Hawkins returned from his first voyage to Africa, Q. Elizabeth sent for him, when he expressed her concern, lest any of the African negroes should be carried off without their free consent; which she declared would be detestable, and would call down the vengeance of heaven upon the undertakers." Hawkins made great promises, but did not perform them; for his next voyage to the coast seems to have been principally to procure negro slaves, and sell them to the Spaniards in the West Indies; upon which the same author has these remarkable words: "Here began the horrid practice of forcing the Africans into slavery: an injustice and barbarity, which, so sure as there is vengeance in heaven for the sword of crimes, was some time the destruction of all who act or who encourage it." This captain Hawkins, afterwards Sir John Hawkins, seems to have been the first Englishman who gave public countenance to this wicked traffic; for Anderson, (p. 401,) says, "That in 1562, Capt. Hawkins, assisted by subscription of many gentlemen, now fitted out 3 ships; and having learnt that negroes were a very good commodity to the Spaniards, he sailed to the coast of Guinea, took in negroes, and loaded with the most European, where he sold them and his English commodities, and loaded his 3 vessels with sugar, pepper, &c. with which he returned home, 1563, making a prodigious voyage." As it proved successful, the trade was continued, both by Hawkins and others, as appears from the *Journal of Captain Hawkins*, where it is said, "That on the 18th of October, Capt. John Hawkins, with two ships, of 100 and 120 tons, sailed for Africa; that on the 5th December, anchored at Cape Verde, where the captain named the boat, and sent 8 men to land to the country, to see if they could take any more; but the natives flying from them, they returned to their ships, and proceeded further down the coast. Here they had certain day, among their men affairs, in which (as the author says) to burn

and spoil their towns and take the inhabitants. The land they observed to be well cultivated, there being plenty of grain and fruit of many sorts, and the towns prettily laid out. On the 25th, being informed by the Portuguese of a town of negroes called *Bymba*, where there was not only a quantity of gold, but 140 inhabitants, they resolved to attack it, having the Portuguese for their guide; but by mismanagement they lost but 10 negroes, having 7 of their own men killed and 27 wounded. They then went further down the coast; when having procured a number of negroes, they proceeded to the West Indies, where they sold them to the Spaniards." It is said (p. 76,) "That in 1567, Francis Drake, while performing his voyage round the world, was with Sir John Hawkins in his expedition to the coast of Guinea, where taking in a cargo of slaves, he determined to steer for the Canbber Islands. How Q. Elizabeth suffered so grievous a mismanagement of the rights of mankind to be perpetrated by her subjects, and how she was persuaded, in the 30th year of her reign, to grant patents for carrying on a trade from the N. part of the Atlantic to 100 leagues beyond Sierra Leone, is hard to account for, otherwise than that it was but a misrepresentation made to her of the treatment of the negroes, and of the advantage it was expected they would reap from being made acquainted with the Christian religion. This was the case of Louis XIII. of France: who, Labat, (*Journal of the Isles of America*) tells us, "was extremely uneasy at a law by which the negroes of his colonies were to be made slaves; but it being brought to him as the readiest means of their conversion to Christianity, he acquiesced therein." Nevertheless, some of the Christian powers did not so easily give way in this matter. Innocent the 10th, "That cardinal Cibo, one of the pope's principal ministers of state, wrote a letter on behalf of the college of cardinals, to the missionaries, complaining that the pernicious and abusive abuse of selling slaves was yet continued, urging them to remedy the same if possible, but the missionaries saw little hopes of success, by reason that the trade of the country was every in slaves and ivory." It has been urged in justification of this trade, that by purchasing natives taken in battle, they save the lives of many human creatures, who otherwise would be sacrificed to the implacable revenge of the natives. But this pretence has been refuted by an appeal to reason and fact. For if the negroes, as is said, they should be cruelly put to death if they were not sent away; why, it is asked, do they manifest such reluctance and dread as they generally do, in being brought from their native countries, as is said in his Account, p. 38, says, "The Christians do not buy slaves, and will attempt any thing, though ever so desperate, to avoid it." Captain Phillips, in his account of a voyage he performed to the coast of Guinea, writes, "The negroes are so loth to leave their own country, that they have often leaped out of the canoe, or of a ship, into the sea, and kept under water till they were drowned, to avoid being taken on board. It had the fact even been otherwise, the shore would be urged with an extreme bad grace, which is

notorious that the very wars said to be productive of such cruelty were fomented by the infamous arts of the Europeans. See SLAVE TRADE.

(II, i.) * GUINEA. *n. f.* [from *Guinea*, a country in *Africa*, abounding with gold.] A gold coin valued at one and twenty shillings.—By the word gold I must be understood to design a particular piece of matter; that is, the last *guinea* that was coined. *Locke*.—

Ladies, whose love is constant as the wind :

Cits, who prefer a *guinea* to mankind. *Young*.

(ii.) *The* GUINEA anciently bore the impression of an elephant. Its value has varied; when first struck it was 20s.; from the scarcity of gold it was afterwards advanced to 21s. 6d. but it is now sunk to 21s. The pound weight troy of gold is cut into 44½ parts; each part makes a guinea.

(III.) GUINEA COMPANY. See COMPANY, § IV, ii, 1.

(IV.) GUINEA, NEW, a long and narrow island of the East Indies, very imperfectly known. It was supposed to be connected with New Holland, until Captain Cook discovered the strait which separates them. New Guinea, including Papua, its NW. part (which Bougainville conjectures is separated from it by a strait), reaches from the equator to 12° lat. S. and from 131° to 150° lon. E. In one part it does not appear to be above 50 miles broad. It was first visited by an European ship in 1529. Saavedra, a Portuguese, who made the discovery of the NW. part of this country, called it *Terra di Papuas* or *Papos*. Van Schouten, a Dutch discoverer, afterwards gave the name of *New Guinea* to its SW. part. Admiral Roggewain also touched here; and before him Dampier, 1st Jan. 1700. Capt. Cook made the coast of New Guinea, in lat. 6° 15' lon. 156° E. on the 3d Sept. and landed, accompanied by Mr Banks, Dr Solander, 9 sailors, and servants well armed, and advanced a little way up the country; but coming to the skirts of a thick wood, about a quarter of a mile from the boat, 3 Indians rushed out of it with a hideous shout; threw their darts, and showed such a hostile disposition, that the party returned to their boat, as they had no intention to invade the country, and it was evident nothing could be done upon friendly terms. When they got on board the boat, they rowed along the shore, and about 80 Indians assembled, resembling the New Hollanders, being stark naked, with their hair cropped short. All the while they were shouting defiance, and throwing something out of their hand which burnt exactly like gun powder, but made no report; what these fires were, or for what purpose intended, could not be guessed at. Those who discharged them had in their hands a short piece of stick, possibly a hollow cane, which they swung sidewise from them, and immediately fire and smoke issued, resembling the discharge of a musket, and of no longer duration, this was observed from the ship, and the people on board thought they had fire-arms. After looking at them attentively for some time, without taking any notice of their flashing and vociferation, the sailors fired some muskets over their heads. Upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leisurely away, and the boat returned to the ship. Upon examining the weapons which the natives had thrown, they

were found to be light darts, about 4 feet long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were discharged with great force, for at 60 yards distance they went beyond the party. The general opinion was, that they were thrown with a stick in the manner practised by the New-Hollanders. The land here is very low, as is every other part of the coast; but it is covered with a vast luxuriance of wood and herbage. Cocoa nut, plantain, and bread-fruit trees, flourish in perfection.

* GUINEADROPPER. *n. f.* [*guinea* and *drop*.] One who cheats by dropping guineas.—

Who now the *guineadropper's* bait regards,
Trick'd by the sharper's dice, or juggler's cards. *Gay*.

(1.) * GUINEAHEN. *n. f.* A fowl, supposed to be of *Guinea*.

(2.) GUINEA HEN. See NUMIDA, N° 2.

(1.) * GUINEAPEPPER. *n. f.* [*capsicum*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) GUINEA PEPPER. See CAPSICUM.

(1.) * GUINEAPIG. *n. f.* A small animal with a pig's snout, brought, I believe, from *Africa*.

(2.) GUINEA PIG. See CAVIA, N° V.

GUINEA WHEAT. See ZEA.

GUINEA WORMS. See DRACUNCULI.

GUINCAMP, a town of France, in the dept. of the North coasts, 258 miles W. of Paris. Lon. 2. 56. W. Lat. 48. 33. N.

GUIOLLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Aveyron, 24 miles NNE. of Rodez.

GUIONEKE, a rich and populous kingdom of Africa, on the Ivory Coast.

GUIPAVAZ, a town of France, in the dept. of Finistère, 4½ miles NE. of Brest.

GUIPRY, a town of France, in the dept. of Ille and Vilaine, 13½ miles NE. of Redon.

GUIPUSCOA, a province of Spain, bounded on the N. by the Atlantic, E. by France, SE. by Navarre, S. by Alava, and W. by Biscay; 25 m. long, and from 15 to 20 broad.

GUISA, a town in the isle of Cuba.

GUISCARD, a town of France, in the dept. of the Oise, 5 miles N. of Noyon.

(1.) GUISE, a town of France, in the dept. of Aisne, on the Oise, 20 miles N. of Laon, and 95 NE. of Paris. Lon. 3. 42. E. Lat. 49. 54. N.

(2.) GUISE, Henry, duke of. See LORRAIN.

(3.) * GUISE. *n. f.* [The same with *wise*, *guise*, French; *wisa*, the *w* being changed, as is common into *g*.] 1. Manner; mein; habit; cast of behaviour.—

His own fire, and master of his *guise*,

Did often tremble at his horrid view. *Spenser*.

Thus women know, and thus they use the *guise*,

T' inchant the valiant and beguile the wife.

Fairfax.

—Lo you! here she comes: this is her very *guise*; and, upon my life, fast asleep: observe her, stand close. *Shak. Macbeth*.—

They stand a horrid front

Of dreadful length, and dazz'ing arms, in *guise*
Of warriors old, with order'd spear and shield,
Awaiting what command their mighty chief
Had to impose. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

U u u u

By their *guise*

Just men they seem, and all their study bent
To worship God aright. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Back, O shepherd, back;

Here be without duck or nod,

Other trippings to be trod,

Or lighter tocs and such court *guise*,

¶ As Mercury did first devise. *Milton.*

—Their external shapes are notoriously accommodated to that law or *guise* of life that nature has designed them. *Mor. 2. Practice; custom; property.*

I have drunk wine past my usual *guise*;

Strong wine commands the fool, and moves the wise. *Chapman.*

This would not be slept;

Old *guise* must be kept. *Ben Jonson.*

The swain reply'd, it never was our *guise*

To slight the poor, or aught humane despise. *Pope.*

3. External appearance; dress.—When I was very young, nothing was so much talked of, as rickets among children, and consumptions among young people: after these the spleen came in play, and then the scurvy, which was the general complaint, and both were thought to appear in many various *guises*. *Temple.*—The Hugonots were engaged in a civil war, by the specious pretences of Rome, who, under the *guise* of religion, sacrificed so many thousands to their own ambition. *Sayst.*

GUISHDEN, a river of Ireland, in Mayo.

GUISONI, a town of Corsica.

GUISOPA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

(1.) * GUITAR. *n. f.* (*guitarra*, Ital. *guitarre*, Fr.) A stringed instrument of music.—
Ballads and songs, and lighter fare,
Tune the Italian tear's *guitar*. *Prior.*

(2.) The GUITAR has 5 double rows of strings; of which those that are brass are in the middle, except it be for the burrell, an octave lower than the fourth. It was first used in Spain, where it is still greatly in vogue. There are few Spaniards who cannot play on it, to serenade their mistresses at night.

(1.) GULA, the gullet. See ANATOMY, § 278.

(2.) GULA, or GULELE. See OGBE.

* GULCH. } *n. f.* (*from gul's, Lat.*) A lit.

* GULCHIN } the gullet, *Skinner*.

GULDE, a river of Denmark.

GULDENSTÄDT, John Anthony, M. D. was born at Riga, April 26, 1741, and in 1761 was admitted into the medical college of Berlin. He completed his studies at Frankfort upon the Oder, where, in 1767, he received his degree. Being invited to Peterburg, in 1768, he was created adjunct, and in 1770, member of the imperial academy, and professor of natural history. In June 1761, he set out upon his travels, and was absent 7 years. From Moscow, where he continued till March 1769, he passed to Voronez, Tzintzin, Astracan, and Kulik, near Persia. In 1770 he examined the districts watered by the Terek, Sunik, and Arak, in the E. extremity of Caucasus; and in 1771 penetrated into Colcheta, in the highest part of the same mountain; where he collected vocabularies of the languages spoken in those regions, and enquired into the history of the people, and discovered some traces of Chris-

tianity among them. Having visited Cabarda and the N. of Caucasus, he proceeded to Georgia, and was admitted to prince Hædun, who was encamped ten miles from Teflis, and whom he followed in spring to Kiketi, and explored the S. district inhabited by the Tatar Tartars in the company of a Georgian knight, whom he had cured of a dangerous disease. In July he passed into Imeretia; traversed the middle chain of mountains Caucasus, crossed the confines of Mingrelia, Middle Georgia, Eastern and Lower Imeretia; and after encountering many imminent dangers, returned to Kiketi the 18th Nov. where he passed the winter, collecting various information concerning the neighbouring Tartar tribes of Caucasus, particularly the Lesgees. In the following summer he returned to Cabarda Major, continued his enquiries near Bistun, the highest point of the high Caucasus; inspected the mines of Mafk, and went to Tcherkash upon the Don. From there he made expeditions to Azat and Tzarg, and thence along the new limits to the Dræg, which nullified this year's route at Kremes (Shuk, or Key) Rishia. In the following spring, he was proceeding to Crim Tartary; but receiving an order to recall, he returned through the Ukraine to Moscow and St Petersburg, where he arrived March 1775. Upon his return, he began to arrange his papers; but before he could finish them, his illness was seized with a violent fever, which carried him off in March 1781. A list of his writings is given in Core's Travels, Vol. I. p. 161.

GULDENSTEIN, two towns of Prussia, in the life of Fuen; and 2. in Holstein.

GULE OF AUGUST, the day of St Peter ad vincula, which is celebrated on the 18 of August. It is called the *gule of August*, from *gula*, a throat, because one Quirinus, a tribune, having a daughter diseased in her throat, went to Pope Alexander, the sixth from St Peter, and desired of him to see the chains that St Peter was chained with under Nero; which request being granted, he, on kissing the chains, was cured of her disease; whereupon the Pope instituted this feast in honour of St Peter. Hence the day was called either that of St Peter ad vincula, from what wrought the miracle; or the *gule of August*, from the part whereon it was wrought.

(1.) * GULES. *adj.* [perhaps from *gula*, the throat.] Red; a barbarous term of heraldry.—

Follow thy drum;

With man's blood paint the grounds; *gules, gules,*

Religious canons, civil laws are cruel;

Then what should war be? *Shak. Timon*

He whole sable arms,

Black as his purpose, did the knight relent,

When he lay couched in the ominous horse,

With heraldry more dismal; head to foot,

Now is he total *gules*. *Shak.*

(2.) GULES, a corruption of the French word *gules*, which in heraldry signifies red, is represented in engraving by perpendicular lines. It serves to denote martial prowess and hardihood for the ancients used this colour to make themselves terrible to their enemies, to stir up malignity, and to prevent the seeing of blood, by its

likeness

likeness of the colours; for which reason perhaps it is used by the English. This colour is by the generality of the English herald ranked below a zine. But the elegant French heralds preferred azure.

(1.) * **GULF**. *n. f.* [*gulf*, Italian.] 1. A bay; an opening into land.—The Venetian admiral withdrew himself farther off from the island Corfu, into the *gulf* of the Adriatick. *Knelles*. 2. An abyss; an uncalculable depth.—

Thence turning back in silence soft they stole,
And brought the heavy cone with easy pace
To yawning *gulf* of deep Avernus' hole. *Spens.*
I know thou'd'st rather

Follow thine enemy in a fiery *gulf*,
Than flatter him in a bower. *Shak. Coriolanus*.
—This is the *gulf* through which Virgil's Alecto shoots herself into hell: the tail of waters, the woods that encompass it, are all in the description. *Addison on Italy*.—The sea could not be much narrower than it is, without a great loss to the world: and must we now have an ocean of mere flats and shallows, to the utter ruin of navigation, for fear our heads should turn giddy at the imagination of gaping abysses and untathomable *gulfs*? *Bentley*. 3. A whirlpool; a sucking eddy.—

England his approaches makes as fierce
As waters to the sucking of a *gulf*. *Shak. II. V.*
4. Any thing insatiable, as the mouth or stomach.
Scull of dragon, tooth of wolf,
Witches mummy; raw and *gulf*
Of the ravening salt sea shark;
Root of hemlock, digg'd i' th' dark. *Shak.*

(2.) A **GULF**, (*y* 1, *g* 1.) is a capacious bay between two promontories, sometimes taking the name of a *sea*, when very extensive; but particularly when it only communicates with the sea by a strait. Such are the Euxine or Black Sea, called the *Gulf of Constantinople*; the Adriatic Sea, or the *Gulf of Venice*; the *Gulf of Lyons*, near France, and the *Gulf of Sierra* near Barbary. All these are in the Mediterranean. There are the *Gulfs of Mexico*, St Lawrence, and California, in N. America; the *Gulf of Persia*, or the *Red Sea*, between Persia and Arabia; the *Gulf of Bengal* in India; and the gulfs of Cochinchina and Kamtschatka, near these countries.

* **GULFY**. *adj.* [from *gulf*.] Full of gulfs or whirlpools; *vorticosus*.—

River arise; whether thou be the son
Of utmost Tweed, or Ouse, or *gulfy* Dun. *Milt.*

At their native realms the Greeks arriv'd,
All who the war of ten long years surviv'd,
And escap'd the perils of the *gulfy* main. *Pope*.

High o'er a *gulfy* sea the Pharian isle
Fronts the deep roar of disemboguing Nile. *Pope*.

(1.) * **GULL**. *n. f.* [from the verb] 1. [*Mer-gus*.] A sea-bird. 2. A cheat; a fraud; a trick.—I should think this a *gull*, but that the white-bearded fellow speaks it. *Shak. Much Ado*.—Either they have these excellencies they are praised for, or they have not; if they have not, 'tis an apparent cheat and *gull*. *Government of the Tongue*. 3. A stupid animal; one easily cheated.—

Being fed by us you us'd us so,
As that ungentle *gull*, the cuckow bird,
Useth the sparrow. *Shak Henry IV.*

Why have you suffer'd me to be imprison'd
Kept in a dark house, visited by the priest,
And made the most notorious geck and *gull*
That e'er invention play'd on. *Shak*

That paltry story is untrue,
And forg'd to cheat such *gulls* as you. *Hudibr*

(2.) **GULL**. in ichthyology. See **LARUS**.

* *To GULL*. *v. n.* [*guller*, to cheat, old F.]
To trick; to cheat; to defraud; to deceive.—
I do not *gull* him into a ray word, and make it
a common recreation, do not think I have wit
enough to be straight in my bed. *Shak*.—

Yet love their forgeries did remove, and me
Thice to *gull* thine own mother for my love.

He would have *gull'd* him with a trick,
But Mart was too, too politick. *Hudibr*
—They are not to be *gull'd* twice with the same
trick. *L'Esfran*.—The Roman people were grossly
guiled twice or thrice over, and as often enslaved
in one century, and under the same pretence
reformation. *Dryden*.—

By their designing leaders taught,
The vulgar, *gull'd* into rebellion, arm'd. *Dryden*

For this advantage age from youth has won
As not to be out-riden, though out-run;
By fortune he was now to Venus trin'd,
And with stern Mars in Capricorn was join'd
Of his disposing in his own abode,
He loath'd the goddess, while he *gull'd* the god.

* **GULLCATCHER**. *n. f.* [*gull* and *catch*.]
cheat; a man of trick; one who catches silly people.—

Here comes my noble *gullcatcher*. *Shak*

* **GULLER**. *n. f.* [from *gull*.] A cheat; an impostor.

* **GULLERY**. *n. f.* [from *gull*.] Cheat; imposture. *Ainsworth*.

(1.) * **GULLET**. *n. f.* [*goulet*, Fr. *gula*, Lat.]
1. The throat; the passage through which the
food passes; the meat pipe; the oesophagus.—

It might be his doom,

One day to sing

With *gullet* in string. *Denham*

—Many have the *gullet* or feeding channel which
have no lungs or windpipes; as fishes which have
gills, whereby the heart is refrigerated; for such
thereof as have lungs and respiration are not without
whizzon, as whales and cetaceous animals.
Brown's Vulgar Errors. 2. A small stream or
lake. Not in use.—

Nature has various tender muscles plac'd,

By which the artful *gullet* is embrac'd. *Blackmore*
—The liquor in the stomach is a compound of
that which is separated from its inward coat, the
spittle which is swallowed, and the liquor which
distils from the *gullet*. *Sirbutnot*.—The Euxine
sea and the Mediterranean, small *gullets*, if com-
pared with the ocean. *Heylyn*.

(2.) **GULLET**. See **ANATOMY**, § 278.

GULL ISLE, an isle near Cape St John.

* *To GULLY*. *v. n.* [corrupted from *gurgler*.]
To run with noise.

* **GULLY HOLE**. *n. f.* [from *gully* and *hole*.] The
hole where the gutters empty themselves in the
subterraneous sewer.

* **GULOSITY**. *n. f.* [*gulosus*, Latin.] Greediness;
U u u u 2 nefs;

nesh; gluttony; voracity.—They are very temperate, seldom offending in ebriety, nor erring in gulosity, or superfluity of meats. *Brown.*

* **GULP.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] As much as can be swallowed at once.—In deep suspirations we take more large gulps of air to cool our heart, overwhelmed with love and sorrow. *Mare.*

As out as he can catch a gulp of air,
And peep above the seas, he names the fair.

Dryden.

* **To GULP.** *v. a.* [*galpen*, Dutch.] To swallow eagerly; to suck down without intermission.—He loosens the fish, gulps it down, and so soon as ever the morsel was gone wipes his mouth. *L'Estrange.*

I see the double flaggon charge their hand;
See them puff off the froth, and gulp again,
While with dry tongue I lick my lips in vain.

Gay.

GULPEN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Forets and late duchy of Limburg.

GULZOU, a town of Saxony, SE. of Cammin.

(1.) * **GUM.** *n. s.* [*gummi*, Lat. *u.*] 1. A vegetable substance differing from a resin, in being more viscid and less friable, and generally dissolving in aqueous menstrua; whereas resins, being more sulphurous, require a spirituous solvent. *Quincy.*

One whose eyes,
Albeit unused to the melting mood,
Drop tears as fast as the Arabian trees
Their medicinal gum.

Shak.

He opens spices, fruit, and precious gum,
Which from remotest regions hither come.
Her maiden train,

Who bore the vests that holy rites require,
Inceuse, and od'rous gums, and cover'd fire.

Dryden.

2. [*Goma*, Saxon; *gumme*, Dutch.] To stethy covering that invets and contains the teeth.—

The babe that milks me,
Pd pluck my nipple from his boneless gums.

Shak.

Sh' untwists a wire, and from her gums
A set of teeth completely comes.

Swift.

(2.) **GUM** is of no particular smell or taste. It becomes viscous and tenacious when moistened with water; totally dissolves in water into a liquid, more or less glutinous in proportion to the quantity of the gum; not dissolving in vinous spirits or in oils; burning in the fire to a black coal, without melting or catching flame; suffering no dissipation in the heat of boiling water. The true gums are gum arabic, gum tragacanth, gum senega, the gum of cherry and plum trees, and such like. All others have more or less of resin in them.

(3.) **GUM**, in gardening, a kind of gangrene incident to fruit-trees of the stone kind, arising from a corruption of the sap, which, by its viscosity, not being able to make its way through the fibres of the tree, is, by the protrusion of other juice, made to extravasate and ooze out upon the bark. When the disease is farround the branch, it admits of cure; but when only on one part of a bough, it should be taken off to the quick, and over covered clapped on the wound, covered over with a linen cloth, and tied down. *M.*

Quintinie directs to cut off the morbid branch, or three inches below the part affected.

(4.) **GUM AMMONIAC.** See **AMMONIAC.**

(5.) **GUM ARABIC** is the produce of a tree of Mimosa. See **MIMOSA**, N° 11. Its chief use in medicine is from its glutinous quality, which serves to incr. Tate and obtund the acid humors, and thus is useful in coughs, alvine fluxes, hæmorrhages, gripes, &c. In a dysuria the mucousness of gum arabic is more cooling than the other mucopurulent gums. One ounce of gum arabic renders a pint of water considerably glutinous: 4 oz. give it a thick consistence; but for mucilage, one part of gum to two parts water is required, and for some purposes an equal proportion will be necessary. Dr Percival's *Essays*, Vol. I. p. 319. See the curious account, by Mr Henry, of the process by which this gum has of dissolving and keeping suspended in water not only resinous but also solid substances, which should seem not likely to be all affected by it. Mr Hættelquist in his Travels relates an instance of the extraordinary medicinal virtues of this gum; which happened to the English ship *Caravan*, in 1740, whose provisions were consumed, when they had still two months to go. They were then obliged to search for nutriment among their merchandise where with the young men port nature; and found nothing more proper than gum arabic, of which they had carried a considerable quantity along with them. This served to support above 1000 persons for two months; and the *Caravan* at last arrived at Cairo without any loss of people either by hunger or disease.

(6.) **GUM, ELASTIC.** See **RESIN, FLAM.**

(7.) **GUM, ELEM.** See **AMYRIS**, § 2. 3.

(8.) **GUM GUAIACUM.** See **GUAIACUM.**

(9.) **GUM GUTTE.** See **CHEMISTRY**, § 10.

(10.) **GUM KINO.** See **KINO.**

(11.) **GUM LACCA.** See **COLLEA**, and **LACCA.**

(12.) **GUM SENECA** is a gum extremely resembling gum arabic. See **SENECA.**

(13.) **GUM TRAGACANTH.** See **ASTRAGALUS.**

* **To GUM.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To mix with gum; to smear with gum.—The eyelids apt to be gummed together with a viscous humor. *Histman's Surgery.*

GUMBINNEN, a town of Lithuania.

GUMIFL. a town of Spain in Old Castile.

GUMINEN, a town of the Helvetic rep. in the canton of Bern, 5 miles W. of Bern.

GUMMA, a sort of venereal excrement on the periosteum of the bones.

* **GUMMINESS.** *n. s.* [from *gummy*.] state of being gummy; accumulation of matter. The tendons are involved with a great quantity and collection of matter. *Histman's Surgery.*

* **GUMMOSITY.** *n. s.* [from *gummosus*.] nature of gum; gumminess.—Sugar and inake windy liquours, and the elastic firm particles are detained by their innate gummy nature.

* **GUMMOUS.** *adj.* [from *gum*.] Of the nature of gum. — Old relations concerning English; and relations about the amber of Prussia, that amber is not a gummous or resinous stone, drawn out of trees by the sun's heat, but a natural fossil. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.*

* **GU**

adj. [from *gum*.] 1. Consisting of nature of gum.—From the utmost branches there issueth out a *gummy* angeth downward like a cord.

gummy stores Arabia yields. *Dryd.*
rising alder now appears,
Po distils her *gummy* tears. *Dryd.*
f gum.—

he clouds
light'ning; whose thwart flame
own,
gummy bark of fir and pine. *Milton.*
with gum.—

ng youth, scarce half awake, essays
s and dozy head to raise;
s *gummy* eyes, and scrubs his pate,
Dryden.

FEIN, a town in Stiria.
anatomy, the hard fleshy substance
through which the teeth spring from
the ANATOMY, § 130, 135. The gums
some spongy, and to separate from
the cause is often a stony kind of
therein, which when separated, the
return to their former state, especially
a mixture of the infusion of roses
the tincture of myrrh one. The
other disorder which sometimes af-
s, when not manifest in any other

v. n. f. [Of this word there is no
etymology. Mr. *Lye* observes that
signifies *battle*; but when *guns* came
and no commerce with Iceland. May
by gradual corruption from *cann*,
'Canne is the original of *cannon*.]
name for fire-arms; the instrument
not is discharged by fire.—

ead curses, like the sun 'gainst glass,
overcharged *gun*, recoil
pon thyself.

Shak.
ror, smiling, said that never empe-
in with a *gun*. *Knolies's History.*—
at flying, makes the *gun* recoil. *Cleav.*
he dart or glitt'ring sword we shun,
l to perish by the slaught'ring *gun*.

Granville.
is a weapon of offence, which forcibly
ball, or other hard and solid matter,
cylindric tube, by means of inflamed
See GUN-POWDER. The word GUN
most species of fire-arms; pistols and
almost the only ones excepted from
ation. They are divided into great
as: the former including all that we
on, ordnance, or artillery; the lat-
musquets, carabines, musquetons,
s, fowling-pieces, &c. (See these
is not known when these weapons
invented. Though, comparatively
introduction of guns into the western
world is but of a modern date; yet it
at in some parts of Asia they have
though in a very rude and imperfect
many ages. Philostratus mentions
the Hyphasia in the Indies, which was
impregnable, and that its inhabitants

were relations of the gods, because they threw
thunder and lightning upon their enemies. Hence
some imagine that guns were used by the eastern
nations even in the time of Alexander the Great;
but however this may be, many of our modern
travelers assert, that they were used in China as
far back as A. D. 85, and have continued in use
ever since. The first hint of the invention of guns
in Europe is in the works of ROGER BACON, who
flourished in the 13th century. In a treatise writ-
ten by him about 1280, he proposes to apply the
violent explosive force of gun-powder for the
destruction of armies. In 1320, Bartholomew
Schwartz, a German monk, is said to have in-
vented gun-powder, though it is well known, that
this composition is described by Bacon in some of
his treatises long before the time of Schwartz.
The following is said to have been the manner in
which SCHWARTZ invented gun-powder. Having
pounded the materials for it in a mortar, which
he afterwards covered with a stone, a spark of
fire accidentally fell into the mortar and set the
mixture on fire; upon which the explosion blew
the stone to a considerable distance. Hence it is
probable that Schwartz might be taught the sim-
plest method of applying it in war; for Bacon
seems rather to have conceived the manner of using
it to be by the violent effort of the flame unconfined,
which is indeed capable of producing astonishing
effects. See GUNPOWDER, § 4. The figure and name
of *mortars* given to a species of old artillery, and
their employment (which was throwing great
stone bullets at an elevation), very much corrobo-
rates this conjecture. Soon after the time of
Schwartz, we find guns commonly made use of
as instruments of war. Great guns were first
used. They were originally made of iron bars
soldered together, and fortified with strong iron
hoops; some of which are still to be seen, *viz.*
one in the Tower of London, two at Woolwich,
and one in the royal arsenal at Lisbon. Others
were made of thin sheets of iron rolled up toge-
ther and hooped; and on emergencies they were
made of leather, with plates of iron or copper.
These pieces were made in a rude and imperfect
manner, like the first essays of many new inven-
tions. Stone balls were thrown out of them, and
a small quantity of powder used on account of
their weakness. These pieces had no ornaments,
were placed on their carriages by rings, and were
of a cylindrical form. When or by whom they
were made is uncertain; the Venetians, however,
used cannon at the siege of Claudia Jussia, now
called *Chioggia*, in 1366, which were brought
thither by two Germans, with some powder and
leaden balls; as well as in their wars with the
Genoese in 1379. Edward III. made use of can-
non at the battle of Cressy in 1346, and at the
siege of Calais in 1347. Cannon were made use
of by the Turks at the siege of Constantinople,
in 1394, and in 1452, that threw a weight of
100 lb. but they generally burst at the 1st. 2d. or
3d. shot. Lewis XII. had one cast at Tours, of
the same size, which threw a ball from the Bastile
to Charenton. One of those famous cannon was
taken at the siege of Dieu in 1546, by Don John
de Castro; and is in the castle of St Julio da Bar-
ra, 10 miles from Lisbon: its length is 20 feet 7
inches.

inches, diameter at the centre 6 feet 3 inches, and it discharges a ball of 100 lb. It has neither dolphins, rings, nor button; is of a curious kind of metal; and has a large Indian inscription upon it, which says it was cast in 1400.

(3.) GUNS, NAMES, SIZES AND WEIGHTS OF. Formerly the cannon were dignified with uncommon names. In 1501, Lewis XII. had 12 brass cannon cast, of an extraordinary size, called after the names of the 12 peers of France. The Spanish and Portuguese called them after their saints. The emperor Charles V. when he marched before Tunis, founded the 12 Apostles. At Milan there is a 70 pounder, called the *Pomontelle*; and one at Bois le duc, called the *Devil*. A 60 pounder at Dover-castle, called *Queen Elizabeth's pocket-pistol*. An 80 pounder in the Tower of London (many years in Edinburgh castle), called *Mont Meg*. An 80 pounder in the royal arsenal at Berlin, called the *Thunderer*. An 80 pounder at Malaga, called the *Terrible*. Two curious 60 pounders in the arsenal at Bremen, called the *Messengers of bad news*. And lastly, an uncommon 70 pounder in the castle of St Angelo at Rome, made of the nails that fastened the copper-plates which covered the ancient Pantheon, with this inscription upon it: *Ex clavis trabalibus porticus Agrippæ*. In the beginning of the 15th century the following more universal names took place, viz. Cannon royal, or carthoun = 48 pounders, about 90 cwt. Bastard cannon, or $\frac{1}{2}$ carthoun = 36 pounders, 79 cwt. $\frac{1}{4}$ Carthoun = 24 pounders 65 cwt. Whole culverins = 18 pounders, 50 cwt. Demi culverins = 9 pounders, 30 cwt. Falcon = 6 pounders 25 cwt. Saker = 5, 6, and 8 pounders, 13, 15 and 18 cwt. Basilisk = 48 pounders, 85 cwt. Serpentine = 4 pounders, 8 cwt. Aspice = 2 pounders, 7 cwt. Dragon = 6 pounders, 12 cwt. Syren = 60 pounders, 81 cwt. Falconet = 3, 2, and 1 pounders, 15, 10, and 5 cwt. Moyses, which carried a ball of 10 or 12 ounces, &c. Rabinet, which carried a ball of 16 oz. At present cannon take their names from the weight of the ball they discharge. Thus a piece that discharges a ball of 24 pounds, is called a 24 pounder; one that carries a ball of 12 pounds, is called a 12 pounder; and so of the rest, divided into the following sorts, viz. Ship guns, consisting of 42, 36, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, 6, and 3 pounders. Garrison guns, in 42, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, and 6 pounders. Battering guns, in 24, 18, and 12 pounders. Field-pieces, in 12, 9, 6, 3, 2, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 1, and $\frac{1}{2}$ pounders.

GUNAIKOG, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland, 34 miles NW. of Carlstadt.

GUNDANILLA, a town in Porto Rico.

(1.) GUNDELFINGEN, a town of Bavaria in Neuburg, on the Brentz, 10 miles NE. of Ulm, and 38 W. of Neuburg. Lon. 27. 58. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 34. N.

(2-4.) GUNDELFINGEN, a town, fort, and barony in Suabia, 21 miles W. of Ulm.

GUNDELIA, in botany: A genus of the polygama segregata order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. There is scarce any calyx, but quinqueflorous, with tubu-

lar hermaphrodite florets; the receptacle with scarce any pappus.

GUNDELHEIM, a town of Saxe-Necker, 30 miles E. of Heidelberg.

GUNDERSDORF, a town of Austria, NNW. of Vienna.

GUNELLUS. See BLENNIOUS, N.

GUNFLFET, a town in Essex, S. of

GUNILDA. See ENGLAND, § 11.

GUNNA, one of the Hebrides, 10

* GUNNEL, *n. f.* [corrupted from See GUNWALL.]

(1.) * GUNNER, *n. f.* [from *gun*.] One whose employment is to manage the guns in a ship.—

The nimble gunner

With hislock now the devilish cannon
And down goes all before him. *Shak.*

—They flew the principal gunners, and way their artillery *Hayward*.

(2.) A GUNNER is an officer appointed the guns, either by sea or land. In the London, and other garrisons, as well as this officer carries a field staff, and a bag horn in a string over his left shoulder. He is by the guns; and when there is any action of danger, his field staff is at his side. His business is to lay the gun, to point it to load and traverse her.

(3.) GUNNER, MASTER, a patent officer of ordnance, who is appointed to teach and learn the art of gunnery, and to certify the general the ability of any person to be one of the king's gunners. To certify he administers an oath not to serve, with any other prince or state, or teach any art of gunnery but such as have taken the

GUNNERA, in botany; a genus of the diandra order, belonging to the gynandria plants. The amentum consists of unisexual there is neither calyx nor corolla; the gyno-bidended, with two styles and one seed.

(1.) * GUNNERY, *n. f.* [from *gun*.] The science of artillery; the art of managing the

(2.) GUNNERY is the art of charging, discharging, and exploding fire-arms, as cannons, muskets, &c. to the best advantage.—It depends greatly on having the guns and the proper size and figure, and well adapted other. See ORDNANCE. As both the practice of GUNNERY are intimately connected with the subject of PROJECTILES, we refer the reader to that article: under which is the practical part of Gunnery, but what relates to the action of Gun Powder, the it communicates to bullets, the resistance the atmosphere opposes to their motion, the curves they describe, will be found fully treated.

(1.) * GUNPOWDER, *n. f.* [from *gun* and *powder*.] The powder put into guns to explode. It consists of about fifteen parts of nitre, parts of sulphur, and two of charcoal. The portions are not exactly kept.—*Gunpowder* is composed of three ingredients, saltpetre, small-umbelliferous. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) GUNPOWDER is a composition of sulphur, and charcoal, mixed together, in

culated; which easily takes fire, and, when expanded with great vehemence, by its elasticity. To this powder we owe all the action of guns, ordnance, &c. so that the military art in a great measure depends on it.

GUNPOWDER, DIFFERENT KINDS OF. The ingredients of gunpowder are mixed in various proportions according as the powder is intended for muskets, great guns or mortars: though these proportions seem not to be perfectly adjusted or fixed by competent experience. Schiænowitz, for mortars, directs 100 lb. of saltpetre, 25 of sulphur, and 25 of charcoal: for great guns, 100 lb. saltpetre, 15 of sulphur, and 18 of charcoal; for muskets and pistols, 100 lb. of saltpetre, 8 of sulphur, and 10 of charcoal. Michius extols a proportion of 1 lb. of saltpetre to 3 oz. of charcoal and 2 or 2½ of sulphur; than which, he affirms, no gunpowder can possibly be stronger. He adds, that the usual practice of making the powder weaker for mortars than guns, is without foundation, and renders the expence needlessly much greater: for whereas to load a large mortar with 4 lb. of common powder is required, and constantly, to load it 10 times, 240 lb. he shows, by calculation, that the same effect would be had with 24 lb. of the strong powder. On this subject, Benjamin Thompson, now Count Rumford, makes several judicious observations, in the *Philos.* Vol. 71. See PROJECTILES.

GUNPOWDER, FORCE OF. Though Gunpowder is commonly made use of for military purposes only in small quantities, and confined in certain vessels; yet when large quantities are fired at once, even when unconfined in the open air, it is capable of producing terrible destruction. The effects of damage done by the blowing up of mines, powder mills, &c. are too numerous to well known to be here taken notice of. The following is a relation of what even a moderate quantity of powder will accomplish, when fired in the open air. "The king of Navarre took Monsieur Captain Milon inclosed 500 pounds of powder in a bag, which he introduced, by a drain in the town, into the ditch between two principal gates; the end of the leader was hid in the ditch. Every thing being ready to play off this mine, the king gave us leave to go and see its effects; which were surprising. For one of the gates was thrown into the middle of the town, the other into the field fifty paces from the town; all the vaults were destroyed, and a passage made in the wall for three men to enter abreast, by which the town was taken."—For further accounts of the force of large quantities of powder, see LINE.

GUNPOWDER, INVENTION OF. See GUN, § 2.

GUNPOWDER, MEDICAL VIRTUE OF. Dr Boerhaave says, that the flame affords a very healing virtue in the height of the plague, because the acrid vapour of nitre and sulphur corrects the virus; and that the same vapour, if received in a close pent up place, kills insects.

GUNPOWDER, METHOD OF MAKING. Dr Boerhaave's receipt is as follows: Take 4 oz. of refined nitre, 1 oz. of brimstone, and 6 dr. of charcoal; reduce these to a fine powder, and continue burning them for some time in a stone mortar with

a wooden pestle, wetting the mixture between whiles with water, so as to form the whole into an uniform paste, which is reduced to grains, by passing it through a wire sieve fit for the purpose; and in this form, being carefully dried, it becomes gunpowder. For greater quantities mills are usually provided, by means of which more work may be performed in one day than a man can do in 100. The nitre is refined thus: Dissolve 4 lb. of rough nitre, by boiling it in as much water as will commodiously suffice for that purpose: then let it shoot for 2 or 3 days in a covered vessel of earth; with sticks laid across for the crystals to adhere to. These crystals being taken out, are drained and dried in the open air. To reduce this salt to powder, dissolve a large quantity of it in as small a proportion of water as possible; then keep it constantly stirring over the fire till the water exhales and a white dry powder is left behind. To purify the brimstone, dissolve it with a very gentle heat; then scum and pass it through a double strainer. If the brimstone should take fire in the melting, the iron cover is fitted on close to the melting-vessel, and damps the flame. The brimstone is judged to be sufficiently refined if it melts, without yielding any fetid odour, between two hot iron plates, into a kind of red substance. The charcoal for making gunpowder is either that of willow or hazel, well charred in the usual manner, and reduced to powder. Thus the ingredients are prepared; but as these require to be intimately mixed, and as there would be danger of their firing if beat in a dry form, they are kept continually moist, either with water, urine, or a solution of sal ammoniac: They continue thus stamping them together for 24 hours; after which the mass is fit for corning and drying in the sun, or otherwise, so as to prevent its firing.

(8.) **GUNPOWDER, METHOD OF RECOVERING DAMAGED.** The powder merchants put part of the powder on a sail cloth, to which they add an equal weight of what is really good; and with a shovel mingle it well together, dry it in the sun, and barrel it up, keeping it in a dry and proper place. Others again, if it be very bad, restore it by moistening it with vinegar, water, urine, or brandy: then they beat it fine, searce it, and to every pound of powder add 1 oz. 1½ or 2 oz. according as it is decayed, of melted salt-petre. Afterwards, these ingredients are to be moistened and mixed well, so that nothing can be discerned in the composition, which may be known by cutting the mass; and then granulate it as at first. If the powder be in a manner quite spoiled, the only way is to extract the saltpetre with water by boiling, filtrating, evaporating, and crystallizing; and then with fresh sulphur and charcoal to make it up anew.

(9.) **GUNPOWDER, METHODS OF TRYING.** There are two general methods of examining gunpowder; 1st with regard to its purity: 2d. As to its strength. 1. Its purity is known by laying 2 or 3 little heaps near each other upon white paper, and firing one of them. For if this takes fire readily, and the smoke rises upright, without leaving any drops or feculent matter behind, and without burning the paper, or firing the other heaps, it is esteemed a sign that the sulphur and nitre were well purified,

purified, that the coal was good, and that the 3 ingredients were thoroughly incorporated together: but if the other heaps also take fire at the same time, it is presumed that either common salt was mixed with the nitre, or that the coal was not well ground, or the whole mass not well beat and mixed together; and if either the nitre or sulphur be not well purified, the paper will be black or spotted. 2. Several instruments have been invented to try the strength of gunpowder; but they have generally been complained of as inaccurate. Count Rumford in the *Philosoph. Transf.* Vol. 71. gives an account of an exact method of trying the strength of it. "As the force of the powder (says he) arises from the action of an elastic fluid that is generated from it in its inflammation, the quicker the charge takes fire, the more of this fluid will be generated in any given short space of time, and the greater of course will its effect be upon the bullet. But in the common method of proving gunpowder, the weight by which the powder is confined is so great in proportion to the quantity of the charge, that there is time quite sufficient for the charge to be all inflamed, even when the powder is of the slowest composition, before the body to be put in motion can be sensibly removed from its place. The experiment therefore may show which of the two kinds of powder is the strongest, when equal quantities of both are confined in equal spaces, and both completely inflamed; but the degree of inflammability, which is a property essential to the goodness of the powder, cannot by these means be ascertained. Hence it appears how powder may answer to the proof, such as is commonly required, and may nevertheless turn out very indifferent when it comes to be used in service. But though the common powder triers, may show powder to be better than it really is, they can never make it appear to be worse than it is; it will therefore always be the interest of those who manufacture the commodity to adhere to the old method of proof, but the purchaser will find his account in having it examined in a method by which its goodness may be ascertained with greater precision." To determine the goodness of powder by Count Rumford's method, it is necessary to have a barrel suspended by two iron rods, in such a manner, that it can easily move backward or forward by the vibration of the rods; and the space it moves through ascertained by marking it on a piece of ribbon. The barrel being then charged with powder, and fitted with a proper bullet, is to be fired, and the recoil marked upon the ribbon. The experiment is to be repeated 3 or 4 times, or oftener if there is any difference in the recoil; the extremes of which may be marked with black lines on the ribbon, and the word *proof* written in the middle line betwixt the two. But if the experiments are made with sufficient accuracy, there will commonly be very little difference in the length to which the ribbon is drawn out. Thus the comparative goodness of powder may easily be ascertained; for the stronger the powder is, the greater will be the recoil, and consequently the greater length to which the ribbon will be drawn out; and it is care is taken in proportioning the charge to the weight of the bullet, to come as near as possible to the

medium proportion that obtains in the determination of the goodness of powder from the result of this experiment can hold good in actual service. The bullet be made to fit the bore with very little, and it would be better if they were cast in mould and in the same parcel of lead; in their weights and dimensions would be accurately the same; and the experiment of course be more conclusive. The gunpowder might be half an ounce, and always be put up in a cartridge; and when it is loaded, it should be primed with powder, first taking care to prick the cartridge, thrusting a priming wire down the

(10.) GUNPOWDER, PHYSICAL CAUSE OF EXPLOSION OF. See PROJECTILES.

(11.) GUNPOWDER, STATUTES. It is enacted by 5 and 21 of Geo. 3. c. 20. that gunpowder be carried in a covered carriage; the barrels being locked; or in casks and bags of leather, persons keeping more than 200 pounds of gunpowder at one time, within the city of London and Westminster, or the suburbs, liable to forfeitures if it be not removed, justices of peace may issue warrants to seize, and remove the same.

(12.) GUNPOWDER TREASON. See § 41.

(1.) * GUNSHOT. *adj.* [gun and shot] by the shot of a gun.—The symptoms related to gunshot wounds. *Wise man.*

(2.) * GUNSHOT. *n. f.* The reach of a gun; the space to which a shot will go.—Those who are come over to the are supposed to be out of gunshot. *D.*

(3.) GUNSHOT WOUNDS. See § 1.

* GUNSMITH. *n. f.* [gun and smith] whose trade is to make guns.—It is in esteem with the *gunsmiths* for stocks.

GUNSMITHERY, *n. f.* the business of a smith, or the art of making fire arms, pistols, &c. See MUSKET, and PI.

* GUNSTICK. *n. f.* [gun and stick] a mer; or stick with which the charge is to a gun.—

Even a *gunstick* flying into fame

* GUNSTOCK. *n. f.* [gun and stock] to which the barrel of a gun is fixed; a bar is used for bows, pullies, screws, *gunstocks*. *Mort Husb.*

* GUNSTONE. *n. f.* [gun and stone] of cannon. They used formerly to form artillery.—

Tell the pleasant prince, this

* Hath turn'd his ball to *gunstones*.
Shall stand fore charged for the

year's

That shall fly with them.

GUNTER, Edmund, M. A. and excellent mathematician, born in 1581. He studied at Westminster where he graduated in 1606, and eminent for his knowledge in the was in 1613, chosen professor of Gresham college, where he distinguished by his lectures and writings. He m

useful instruments which bear his name; and published *Canon Triangulorum*: and a work on the Sector, Cross-staff, &c. He died at Gresham-college in 1626.

GUNTERSBERG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Bernburg, 52 miles WSW. of Dessau.

GUNTER'S LINE. See **LINE**.

GUNTER'S QUADRANT. See **QUADRANT**.

GUNTER'S SCALE, called by navigators simply the *gunter*, is a large plain scale, generally two feet long, and about an inch and a half broad, with artificial lines delineated on it, of great use in solving questions in trigonometry, navigation, &c.

GUNTOOR, a circar of Indostan, N. of the Carnatic, and S. of the Kistnah, extending 40 m. along the bay of Bengal. It belongs to Britain.

GUNTZ, a river, town, and fort of Hungary, 40 miles S. of Vienna.

GUNTZELSDORF, a town of Austria.

* **GUNWALE**, or **GUNNEL** of a Ship. *n. f.* That piece of timber which reaches on either side of the ship from the half deck to the fore castle, being the uppermost bend which finishes the upper works of the hull in that part, and wherein they put the stanchions which support the wattle trees; and this is called the *gunwale*, whether there be guns in the ship or no; and the lower part of any port, where any ordnance are, is also termed the *gunwale*. *Harris.*

GUNZ, a river of Suabia.

GUNZFURG, a town of Suabia, seated on the Gunz, at its confux with the Danube.

GUNZENHAUSEN, a town of Franconia, in Anspach, 10 miles SSE. of Anspach.

* **GURGE**. *n. f.* [*gorges*, Latin.] Whirlpool; gulf.—

Marching from Eden he shall find

The plain, wherein a black bituminous *gurge* Boils out from under ground. *Milton.*

* **GURGEON**. *n. f.* The coarser part of the meal, sifted from the bran.

GURGISTAN. See **GEORGIA**, N° I, § 1.

* **To GURGLE**. *v. n.* [*gorgogliare*, Italian.] To fall or gush with noise; as water from a bottle.

Then when a fountain's *gurgling* waters play,
They rush to land, and end in teals the day.

Pope.

Pure *gurgling* rills the lonely desert trace,
And waite their musick on the savage race.

Young.

GURGOVATZ, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

GURIEL, a small kingdom of Asia, with its capital on the coast of the Black Sea.

GURK, a town of Carinthia, on the Gurk.

(1.) * **GURNARD**. **GURNET**. *n. f.* [*gournal*, French.] A kind of sea fish.—If I be not ashamed of my soldiers I am a sow'd *gurnet*: I have misus'd the king's press damnably. *Shak.*

(2.) **GURNARD.** See **TRIGLA**.

(1.) **GURRAH**, a town of Indostan, capital of Gurrah Mundella, 5 miles N. of the Nerbudda.

(2.) **GURRAH MUNDELLA**, a circar of Indostan, between Allahabad and Berar; 120 miles long, and from 40 to 80 broad.

GURRAMCONDA, a town of Indostan, in Mysore, 112 miles WNW. of Madras.

GURRY, a river of Perthshire in Athol.

GURTNAMACKIN, a river of Ireland, which

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risers near Longhrea, and after running below ground at different places, falls into Galway bay.

GURUNHUEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the North Coasts; 6 miles SW. of Guingamp.

* **GUSH**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] An emission of liquor in a large quantity at once; the liquor so emitted.—If a lung-vein be bursted, generally at the first cough a great *gush* of blood is coughed up. *Harvey.*

* **To GUSH**. *v. n.* [*goshelen*, Dutch.] 1. To flow or rush out with violence; not to spring in a small stream, but in a large body.—

A sea of blood *gush'd* from the gaping wound,
That her gay garments stained with filthy gore.

Spenser.

—The covering of this abyss was broken asunder,
and the water *gush'd* out that made the deluge,
Burnet.—

Incessant streams of thin magnetick rays
Gush from their fountains with impetuous force,
In either pole, then take an adverse course.

Blackmore.

On either hand the *gushing* waters play,
And down the rough cascade white dashing fall.

Thomson.

2. To emit in a copious effluxion.—

The gaping wound *gush'd* out a crimson flood.

Dryden.

Line after line *gushing* eyes o'erflow,
Led through a sac'ra' city of woe. *Pope.*

GUSSAGO, a town and district of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of the Mela, containing 13 communes, and 10,000 citizens in 1797.

* **GUSSET**. *n. f.* [*gousset*, French.] Any thing sewed on cloth in order to strengthen it.

GUSSOLENGO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the late province of Verona, on the Adige, 6 miles WNW. of Verona.

* **GUST**. *n. f.* [*gouss*, Fr. *gustus*, Latin.] 1. Sense of tasting.—

Destroy all creatures for thy sport or *gust*,
Yet cry, if man's unhappy, God's unjust. *Pope.*

2. Height of perception; height of sensual enjoyment.—

They fondly thinking to allay
Their appetite with *gust*, instead of fruit
Chew'd bitter ashes, which th' offended taste
With spattering noise rejected. *Milton.*

Where love is duty on the female side,
On theirs meer sensual *gust*, and sought with
surly pride. *Dryden's Fables.*

My sight and smell, and hearing were employ'd,
And all three senses in full *gust* enjoy'd. *Dryd.*

3. Love; liking.—

To kill, I grant, is sin's extremest *gust*;
But, in defence, by mercy 'tis made just. *Shak.*

—Old age shall do the work of taking away both the *gust* and comfort of them. *L'Estr.*—We have lost, in a great measure, the *gust* and relish of true happiness. *Tillotson.*

4. Turn of fancy; intellectual taste.—The principal part of painting is to find what nature has made most proper to this art, and a choice of it may be made according to the *gust* and manner of the ancients. *Dryden.*

5. [From *gustor*, Islandick.] A sudden violent blast of wind.—

She led calm Henry, though he were a king,
X x x x

As doth a sail, fill'd with a fretting gulf,
Command an argosie to stem the waves. *Shak.*
You may as well forbid the mountain pines
To wag their high tops, and to make a noise,
When they are fretted with the gulf of heav'n.

Shak.

—Presently come forth swarms and volleys of libels, which are the gulls of liberty of speech restrained. *Bacon.*

As when fierce northern blasts from th' Alps descend,

From his firm roots with struggling gulls to rend
An aged sturdy oak. *Drayton.*

Part stay for passage, 'till a gulf of wind

Ships o'er their forces in a shining short. *Dryd.*

Pardon a weak dissemper'd soul that swells

With sudden gulls, and sinks as soon in calms,

The sport of passions. *Addison.*

6. It is written in *Spenser* vitiously for *gulls*, sports.

For jolly knight he seem'd, and fair did fit,

As one for knightly gulls and fierce encounters fit.

Spenser.

* **GUSTABLE**, *adj.* [*gusto*, Latin.] 1. To be tasted.—This position informs us of a vulgar error, terming the gall bitter; whereas there is nothing *gustable* sweeter. *Harvey.* 2. Pleasant to the taste.—A *gustable* thing, seen or smelt, excites the appetite, and affects the glands and parts of the mouth. *Derham.*

* **GUSTATION**, *n. f.* [*gusto*, Latin.] The act of tasting.—The gutlet and conveying parts partake of the nerves of *gustation*, or appetizing un-a-sapor. *Brown.*

(1.) **GUSTAVIA**, in botany: a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphous class of plants. There is no calyx; the petals are very numerous; the berry multilocular; the seeds appendaged.

(2.) **GUSTAVIA**, a town of Sweden, in the island of St Bartholomew.

(3.) **GUSTAVUS I.** king of Sweden, son of Eric Vasa, duke of Gripsholm. Christian II. K. of Denmark having made himself master of Sweden, confined Gustavus at Copenhagen; but he making his escape, wandered long in the forests, till the cruelties of the tyrant having occasioned a revolution, he was first declared governor of Sweden, and then, in 1523, elected king. He introduced Lutheranism into his dominions, and died in 1560. See SWEDEN.

(4.) **GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, THE GREAT**, K. of Sweden, was born at Stockholm in 1594. and succeeded his father Charles IX. in 1611. He espoused the cause of the Protestants in Germany, who were oppressed by Ferdinand I. He was a great warrior, and gained many victories, (See SWEDEN.) but was killed in the battle of Lutzen, where his troops got the victory, and defeated two of the emperor's armies, in Nov. 1632.

(5.) **GUSTAVUS III.** See SWEDEN.

* **GUSTFUL**, *adj.* [*gust* and *full*.] Tasteful; well-tasted.—What he defaults from some dry insipid tin, is but to make up for some other more *gustful*. *Decay of Pity.*

* **GUSTO**, *n. f.* [Italian.] 1. The relish of any thing; the power by which any thing excites sensations in the palate.—Pleasant *gusto*; gratify the appetite of the luxurious. *Devo.* 2. Intellectual

taste; liking.—In reading what I have writ them bring no particular *gusto* along with *Dryden.*

GUSTOW, a town of Pomerania.

GUSTROW, a town of Mecklenburg.

* **GUSTY**, *adj.* [from *gust*.] Stormy; turbulent.

Once upon a raw and *gusty* day

The troubled Tyber chasing with his sh

Shak. Julius

Or whil'd tempestuous by the *gusty*

T

GUSUM, a town of Sweden, in E. Got

* **GUT**, *n. f.* [*Intestina*, German.] 1. A pipe teaching with many convolutions in stomach to the vent.—This lord wears in his belly, and his *guts* in his head. *Shak.* should have a lay of wire strings below, in the belly, and then the strings of *guts* cross upon a bridge, that by this means the upper stricken should make the lower rebound. —The intestines or *guts* may be inflamed with acrid or poisonous substance taken inwardly, but not on fast. 2. The stomach; the seat of food: proverbially.—

And cram'd them 'till their *guts* did

With cawdle, custard, and plum-cake.

With false weights their servants *gut* cheat,

And pinch their own to cover the deceit.

3. Gluttony; love of gormandizing.—

Apiculus, thou did'st on thy *guts* bestow

Full ninety millions; yet, when this war

Ten millions still remain'd to thee; while

Fearing to suffer thirst and famishment,

In poison'd potion drank't. *Hakewell.*

* **TO GUT**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To

cerate; to draw; to exenterate.—The fish

have the most part of their fish: some are

splitted, powdered and dried. *Carver's C.*

2. To plunder of contents.—

In Nero's arbitrary time,

When virtue was a guilt, and wealth a

A troop of cut-throat guards were sent

The rich men's goods, and *gut* their pal

—Tom Brown of facetious memory, having a proper name of its vowels, used it as he pleased. *Addison*

GUTA, a town of Hungary, 25 m. E. of Pr

GUTHALUS, or **GUTTALUS**, in ancient geography, is thought to be the **VIARDUS** of Pto now called the **Odra**.

(1.) **GUTHRIE**, William, a celebrated geographer, famous for his Geographical Grammar born in Aberdeenshire, in 1701, and died at Aberdeen. He died in 1769.

(2.) **GUTHRIE**, a parish of Scotland, in Shire, consisting of two parts, 6 miles distant each other, and containing 2681 acres; of 1072 were under oats, barley, pease, flax, &c. potatoes, and sown grass, in 1792. The rest under moss, moor, wood, and water. The population, stated by the rev. Mr William Muir in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1771, and decreased 13, since 1755. There are vestiges of a Roman camp in the parish, 13 acres in extent. The *vallum* and *fossa* are yet distinct. The

is an ancient and strong building, erected by Sir Alex. Guthrie, who was slain at Flodden. It is still entire. Its walls are 60 feet high and 10 thick. It has a prodigious massive iron door.

(1.) GUTTA, *n. f.* a Latin term for drop.

(2.) GUTTA. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.

(3.) GUTTA ANGLICANA, *English Drops*, a chemical-preparation esteemed of great virtue against vapours and lethargic affections, and purchased at 500*l.* by king Charles II. from the inventor, Dr Goddard. It is a spirit drawn by the retort from raw silk, and rectified with an essential oil.

(4.) GUTTA ROSACEA, in medicine, a red or pimped face; a distemper which, tho' not always owing to hard drinking, is most incident to tipplers.

(5.) GUTTA SERENA, a disease in which the patient, without any apparent fault in the eye, is deprived of sight. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

* GUTTATED. *adj.* [from *gutta*, Lat. a drop.] Besprinkled with drops; bedropped. *Dr.*

GUTTEMBERG, John, one of the inventors of printing, was born at Mentz in 1408, where he died in 1468. He was descended of a noble family. See PRINTING.

* GUTTER. *n. f.* [from *guttur*, a throat, Lat.] 1. A passage for water; a passage made by water.—These *gutter* tiles are in length ten inches and a half. *Moxon*.—Rocks rise one above another, and have deep *gutters* worn in the sides of them by torrents of rain. *Addison on Italy*. 2. A small longitudinal hollow.

* To GUTTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cut up small hollows.—

Tempests themselves, high seas, and howling winds,

The *gutter'd* rocks, and congregated sands,
Traitors ensteep'd to clog the guiltless keel,
As having sense of beauty, do omit

Their mortal natures, letting safe go by

The divine Desdemona. *Shakesp. Othello*.

My cheeks are *gutter'd* with my fretting tears.

Sandys.

First in a place, by nature close, they build
A narrow flooring, *gutter'd*, wall'd, and til'd.

Dryden.

(1.) * To GUTTLE. *v. a.* [from *gut*.] To swallow. A low word.—The fool spit in his porridge, to try if they'd hiss: they did not hiss, and so he *guttled* them up, and scalded his chops. *L'Estr.*

(2.) * To GUTTLE. *v. n.* To feed luxuriously; to gormandize. A low word.—

His jolly brother, opposite in sense,

Laughs at his thrift; and, lavish of expence,

Quaffs, crams, and *guttles* in his own defence.

Dryden.

* GUTTLER. *n. f.* [from *guttle*.] A greedy eater.

* GUTTULOUS. *adj.* [from *guttula*, Lat.] In the form of a small drop.—Ice is plain upon the surface of the water, but round in hail, which is also a glaciation, and figured in its *guttulous* descent from the air. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

* GUTTURAL. *adj.* [*gutturalis*, Latin.] Pronounced with the throat; belonging to the throat.—The Hebrews have assigned which letters are labial, which dental, and which *guttural*. *Bacon*.—In attempting to pronounce the nasals, and some of the vowels spirally, the throat is brought to labour, and makes that which we call a *guttural* pronunciation. *Holder*.

* GUTTURALNESS. *n. f.* [from *guttural*.] The quality of being guttural. *Dr.*

GUTTY, in heraldry, a term used when anything is charged or sprinkled with drops. In blazoning, the colour of the drops is to be named.

* GUTWORT. *n. f.* [*gut* and *wort*.] An herb.

(1.) GUY, Thomas, an eminent bookseller, son of T. Guy, coal-dealer in Southwark. He set up trade about 1668, with a stock of 200*l.* The English bibles being then very badly printed, Mr Guy contracted with the university of Oxford for their privilege of printing them, and carried on a great trade in them, for many years. Thus he began to accumulate money, and being a single man, and very penurious both in living and dressing, he daily increased his store. The bulk of his fortune, however, was acquired by purchasing sea-men's tickets during Q. Anne's wars, and South Sea stock, in 1720. To show what great event spring from trivial causes, the public owe the dedication of the greatest part of his immense fortune to charitable purposes, to the indiscreet officiousness of his maid-servant, whom he had agreed to marry; but previous to his nuptials, had ordered the pavement before his door, to be mended as far as to a particular stone which he pointed out. The maid, looking on the paviers at work, remarked a broken place that they had not repaired; but they told her that Mr Guy had directed them not to go so far. "Well, says she, do you mend it; tell him I bade you, and he will not be angry." But the poor girl had presumed too much on her influence over her careful lover, with whom a few extraordinary shillings expence turned the scale totally against her. The men obeyed; Guy enraged to find his orders exceeded, renounced his matrimonial scheme, and commenced a building of hospitals. He was 76 years of age when he formed the design of building the hospital which bears his name, and lived to see it roofed in, dying in 1724. The charge of erecting this vast pile amounted to 18,793*l.* and he left 219,499*l.* to endow it; a much larger sum than had ever been dedicated to charitable uses in this kingdom by any one man. He erected an almshouse with a library at Tanworth in Staffordshire, for which he was representative in parliament, for 14 poor men and women; and left 125*l.* a-year for their pension.

(2.) * GUY. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] A rope used to lift any thing into the ship. *Skinner*.

(3.) GUY is also a large slack rope, extending from the head of the main-mast to the head of the fore-mast, and having 2 or 3 large blocks fastened to the middle of it; to sustain the tackle used to hoist in and out the cargo of a merchant ship.

GUYON, J. M. de la Mothe. See MOTHE.

GUY'S CLIFF, in Warwickshire, a great cliff on the W. side of the Avon and N. side of Warwick where in the time of the Britons was an oratory, and in that of the Saxons an hermitage, to which Guy earl of Warwick, retired, cohabited with the hermit, and built a chapel. This hermitage was kept up till the reign of Henry VI. when Rich. Beauchamp earl of Warwick established a chantry here, and, in memory of Guy, erected a large statue of him in the chapel 8 feet in height.

GUZ, an Indian measure, = 1 yard English.

GUZERAT, a peninsula of Indostan, 170 miles

long, and 140 broad, formed by the Arabian sea, and the gulf of Cambay. It is the richest province in the Mogul's empire.

GUZMAN, Dominic de, founder of the Dominican order of monks, was born at Calaroga in Old Castile, 1170. He preached with great fury against the Albigenes, when Pope Innocent III. made a crusade against that unhappy people; and was inquisitor in Languedoc, where he founded his order, and got it confirmed by the Lateran council in 1215. He died at Bologna in 1221, and was canonized. See DOMINICANS.

GUZNOORGUL, a prov. of Asia, in Cuttore.
(1.) * To **GUZZLE**. v. a. To swallow with immoderate gust.—

The Pylian king

Was longest liv'd of any two legg'd thing;

Still *guzzling* must of wine.

Dryden.

(2.) * To **GUZZLE**. v. n. [from *gut*, or *gust*, to *gustle*, or *gustle*] To gormandize; to feed immoderately; to swallow any liquor greedily.—

Well season'd bowls the gossip's spirits raise,
Who while she *guzzles* chats the doctor's praise.

Roscommon.

—They fell to lapping and *guzzling*, till they burst themselves. *L'Estrange.*—

No more her care shall fill the hollow tray,
To fat the *guzzling* hogs with floods of whey. *Gay.*

* **GUZZLER**. n. f. [from *guzzle*.] A gormandizer; an immoderate eater or drinker.

GWALIOR. See **GUALIOR**.

OWINIAD. See **SALMO**.

GY, a town of France, in the dep. of Up. Saone.

GYALGUR, or **GAWILA**, a town of Indostan, in Berar, 10 miles NNW. of Ellichpou, and 75 W. of Dengu.

GYARUS, one of the Cyclades, E. of Delos, 12 miles in compass. It was a desert island, and allotted for a place of banishment by the Romans.

* **GYBE**. n. f. [See **GIBE**.] A taunt; a sarcasm.—Ready in *gybes*, quick answer'd, saucy, and as quarrelous as the weazel. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

* To **GYBE**. v. n. To sneer; to taunt.—

The vulgar yield an open ear,

And common courtiers love to *gybe* and sneer.

Spenser.

GYBING, the act of shifting any boom sail from one side of the mast to the other. By a boom sail is meant any sail whose bottom is extended by a boom, the fore end of which is hooked to its respective mast; so as to swing occasionally on either side of the vessel, describing an arch, of which the mast will be the centre. As the wind or the course changes, it becomes necessary to change the position of the boom, with its sail, which is accordingly shifted to the other side of the vessel as a door turns upon its hinges. The boom is pushed out by the effort of the wind upon the sail, and is restrained in a proper situation by a strong tackle communicating with the vessel's stern, called the *sheet*. It is also confined on the fore part by the *Guy*.

GYEY, a town of France, in the department of Upper Maine.

GYGEUS, or **COLOUS**; a like of Lydia, 40 stadia, or 5 miles, from Sardis.

GYGES, a Lydian, to whom Candaules king of the country showed his wife naked. See **LYDIA**.

Plato says, Gyges descended into a chasm of earth, where he found a brazen horse, which he opened, and saw within the body the soul of a man, from whose finger he took a ring. This ring, when he put it on his finger, rendered him invisible; and by means of it introduced himself to the queen, murdered her husband, married her, and usurped the crown.

GYGONIUS LAPIS. See **ROCKING STONE**.
GYMNASIARCHA, in antiquity, the chief of the gymnasium. He had two deputies; him; the **XYSTARCHA**, and the **GYMNASIARCH**.

GYMNASIUM, (from *gymnos*, naked,) in Grecian antiquity, a place fitted for performing exercises of the body, &c. so called because put off their clothes, to practise with freedom. *Gymnasia* were first used at Athens, but were afterwards common in all Greece; and imitated, augmented, and improved at Rome. There were 3 principal *gymnasia* at Athens; the Academy, the Lyceum, and the *Stoa*. Vitruvius describes the structure of the ancient *gymnasia*, lib. v. c. 11. They called **PALÆSTRÆ**, from wrestling, which was one of the most usual exercises; and the also called them **THERMÆ**, because the bath was a principal part of them. They performed exercises in Homer's time in drawers; which were not laid aside before the 3d Olympiad.

Pythagoras is said to have been the first who introduced the practice; for having been wounded in drawers entangling him, he threw them off, and the rest afterwards imitated him. They were a knot of buildings united, sufficient to hold many thousands of people, and having room for philosophers, rhetoricians, the professors of all other sciences to give lectures; and wrestlers, dancers, and a who had a mind to exercise; at the same time without the least disturbance or interruption. They consisted of 12 parts, viz. 1. The porticos, where the philosophers, rhetoricians, mathematicians, physicians, and other virtuous men gave public lectures, and where they also rehearsed their performances. 2. The *Stoa*, where the youth assembled very early, to perform their exercises in private without any interruption. 3. The coryceum, apodyterion, or *gymnasium*, a kind of wardrobe, where they stripped to bathe or exercise. 4. The *strophæion*, or unductarium, appointed for the which either preceded or followed the bath, wrestling, pancratia, &c. 5. The *stadium* or *conistra*, in which they covered themselves with sand or dust, to dry up the oil. 6. The *palæstra*, properly so called, where they practised wrestling, the pugillate, pancratia, and other exercises. 7. The *sphaeristerium*, court, reserved for exercises when it rained. 8. Large unpaved alleys, which divided the space between the portico walls wherewith the edifice was surrounded. 9. The *xystræ* or porticos for the wrestlers to use in bad weather. 10. Other *xystræ* or *gymnasia* for fine weather, some of which were open and others planted with trees. 11. The *apartments*, consisting of several different apartments.

GYMNASIUM, a large space of a semicircular

th sand, and surrounded with seats for
ators. For the administration of the
, there were different officers: the prin-
e, 1. The gymnasiarcha. 2. The xystarcha. 3. The
ymnastes. And, 4. The pædotriba. See
les. Under these 4 officers were a num-
balterns. The gymnastic exercises may
d to two general classes; as they depend
the action of the body alone, or as they
ternal agents or instruments. The lat-
ed chiefly in mounting the horse, driving
ot, and swimming. The former were
two kinds; ORCHESTRICE, and PA-
E; which see.

MASTES, a deputy under the gymnasi-
o was master of the ceremonies.

GYMNASTICALLY. *adv.* [from *gymnastick*.]
lly; fitly for strong exercise.—Such as
ty and vigour are not *gymnastically* com-
or actively use those parts. *Brown*.

GYMNASTICK. *adj.* [*γυμναστικός*; *gym-*
French.] Pertaining to athletick exer-
cising of leaping, wrestling, running,
the dart, or quoit.—The Cretans wisely
eir servants *gymnasticks* as well as arms;
our modern footmen exercise themselves
ilft their enervated lords are softly lolling
harians. *Arbutb. and Pope*.

GYMNASTICS, GYMNASTICÆ, or the GYM-
art, the art of performing exercises of the
ether for defence, health, or diversion.

GYMNASIUM. Several modern writers have
f this art. M. Burette has given the histo-
nnastics in the *Mem. of the R. Acad. of*
On the first establishment of society, men,
prised of the necessity of military exer-
repelling the insults of their neighbours,
games and proposed prizes to animate
th to combats of divers kinds. And as run-
ping, throwing the javelin, driving a ball,
quoit, wrestling, &c. were exercises suited
anner of fighting in those days; so the
d to excel in them, in the presence of the
to sit as judges, and dispensed prizes to
uerors; till what was originally only a
t, became at length a matter of such im-
, as to interest great cities and entire na-
ts practice. Hence arose an eagerness to
hopes of being one day crowned con-
n the public games, which was the highest
mortal could arrive at: nay, they ima-
at even the gods were not insensible of what
so captivated with; and, in consequence,
ed the greatest part of these exercises in-
religious and funeral ceremonies. The
art, as appears from Homer's *Iliad*, lib.
e he describes the games at the funeral of
, was known at the time of the Trojan
om that description, it appears, that they
iot-races, boxing, wrestling, foot-races,
s, throwing the discus, drawing the bow,
ing the javelin; and that even then the
art wanted little of perfection. When
s there was no gymnastic art in Homer's
d that it began to appear no earlier than
is to be understood of medicinal gym-
nasty. See § 3.

GYMNASTICS, MEDICINAL. According to

Plato, one Herodicus, a little prior to Hippocrates,
was the first who introduced this art into physic;
and his successors, convinced of its usefulness, im-
proved it. Hippocrates has given instances of it,
where he treats of exercise in general, and of the
particular effects of walking, with regard to health;
also of the different sorts of races on foot or horse-
back; leaping, wrestling, the exercise of the sus-
pended ball, chironomy, unctious, frictions, roll-
ing in the sand, &c. But as physicians did not adopt
all the gymnastic exercises in their practice, it
came to be divided between them and the masters
of martial and athletic exercises, who kept schools,
the number of which was greatly increased in
Greece. The Romans, adopting the military and
athletic exercises of the Greeks, advanced them
to the utmost pitch of magnificence. But the
declension of the empire involved the arts in its
ruin, and, among others gymnastics and medicine;
which last unhappily then relinquished the title it
had to the former, and has neglected to resume it
ever since.

* GYMNICK. *adj.* [*γυμνικός*; *gymnique* French.]
Such as practise the athletick or gymnastic exerci-
ses.—

Have they not sword-players, and ev'ry sort
Of *gymnick* artists, wrestlers, riders, runners?

Milton.

GYMNOPYRIS, in natural history, a name
given by Dr Hill to pyritæ of a simple internal
structure, not covered with a crust. See PYRITES.
Of these there are only two species: 1. A green
variously shaped kind. 2. A botryoide kind. The
first is the most common of all the pyritæ, and ap-
pears under a great diversity of shapes. It is very
hard and heavy, readily gives fire with steel, but
will not at all ferment with aquafortis. The 2d
is very elegant, its usual colour is an agreeable
pale green; but what most distinguishes it is, that
its surface is always beautifully elevated into tu-
bercles of various sizes, resembling a cluster of
grapes.

GYMNOSOPHISTS, [*γυμνoσoφισται*, Greek, *i. e.*
a naked philosopher,] a set of Indian philosophers,
famous in antiquity, so called from their going
naked. They, however, did not absolutely go na-
ked; but only clothed themselves no farther than
modesty required. There were some of these sages
in Africa; but the most celebrated of them were
in India. In general, the Gymnosophists were
wise and learned men; their maxims and discour-
ses, recorded by historians, do not savour of a bar-
barous education, but are the result of great sense
and deep thought. They kept up the dignity of
their character to so high a degree, that it was never
their custom to wait upon any body, not even u-
pon the princes. They believed the immortality
and transmigration of the soul: they placed the
chief happiness of man in a contempt of the goods
of fortune and the pleasures of sense, and gloried
in having given faithful and disinterested counsels
to princes and magistrates. It is said, that when
they became old and infirm, they threw them-
selves into a pile of burning wood, in order to
prevent the miseries of an advanced age. One of
them, named *Calamus*, thus burnt himself in the
presence of Alexander the Great. Apuleius de-
scribes the Gymnosophists thus: "They are all
devoted

distinguished by its thinness
and by the reticulated skin
light colour, with which its
rina begins about 6 or 7 inches
the head; and, gradually dark
as it goes along, reaches dark
it is thinnest. The fourth
soft, and wavy fin, which takes
inches at most below the
down the sharp edge of the
ty of the tail. The situation
singular; being an inch more
toral fins. Externally it resembles
rima; but the formed excels
size of a quill of a common
were two pectoral fins just below
ly an inch in length, of a vermicu
sistence, and orbicular shape
be chiefly useful in supporting
of the fish when he came up
he was obliged to do every
cross the body were a number
lar divisions, or rather rugæ
of these the fish seemed to pos
lar nature, had the power of
tening its body like a worm
backwards as well as forward
property of the vermicular tail
then it laid itself on one side
rest. For an account of the
of this fish, see ELECTRICITY.

the flower, and bears both the floral. See BOTANY, *Index*. The class, says Linnæus, have a monoe, arising from the unusual situation of fructification.

GOVERNMENT. *n. f.* [γυβερνησια; *nch.*] Petticoat government; fe-

RACY, denotes also a state where the supreme command. Such n, &c.

subgenus of falcons. See FALCO. *adj.* Of gypsum, or plaster.

EGYPTIANS, an outlandish tribe called *Bohemians* in France, and n; who, disguising themselves in smearing their faces and bodies, anting language, wander up and etence of telling fortunes, curing use the people, trick them out of steal all they can come at. They d of commonwealth of wander- id jugglers, who made their first ermany, about the beginning of . Munster, who is followed and spelman, fixes the time of their 117; but as he owns, that the first w were in 1529, it is probably an for 1517; especially as, when Sul- ered Egypt in 1517, several of the to submit to the Turkish yoke, ler one ZINGANEUS; whence the em ZINGANEES; but being at ed and banished, they agreed to parties all over the world, where ill in the black art gave them an on in that age of superstition and very few years they gained such profelytes, (who imitated their complexion,) that they became l even formidable to most of the

Hence they were expelled from and from Spain in 1591. And of England took the alarm much 1630, they are described by Stat. . 10. "as an outlandish people es Egyptians, using no craft nor dize, who have come into this from shire to shire, and place to mpanies, and used great, subtile, s to deceive the people; bearing at they by palmistry could tell n's fortunes; and so many times ility have deceived the people of l also have committed many nei- l robberies." Wherefore they are the realm, and not to return un- isonment, and forfeiture of their ls; and upon their trials for any y may have committed, they shall a jury *de medietate lingue*. And nacted, by statutes 1st and 2d Ph. and 5th Eliz. c. 20. that if any l be imported into the kingdom, l forfeit 40l. And if the Egypti- main one month in the kingdom, being 14 years old, whether na- t or stranger, which hath been

seen or found in the fellowship of such Egyptians, or which hath disguised him or herself like them, shall remain in the same one month at one or several times, it is felony without benefit of clergy. Sir M. Hale says, that at one Suffolk assizes, no less than 13 persons were executed upon these statutes a few years before the restoration. But, to the honour of humanity, there are no instances more modern than this of carrying these laws into practice; and the last sanguinary act is itself now repealed by 23 Geo. III. c. 54. In Scotland they seem to have enjoyed some share of indulgence; for a writ of privy seal, dated 1594, supports John Faw, lord and earl of Little Egypt, in the execution of justice on his company and folk, conform to the laws of Egypt, and in punishing certain persons there named, who rebelled against him, left him, robbed him, and refused to return home with him. James's subjects are commanded to assist in apprehending them, and in assisting Faw and his adherents to return home. There is a like writ in his favour from Mary Q. of Scots, in 1553; and in 1554, he obtained a pardon for the murder of Ninian Smith. So that it appears he had staid long in Scotland, and from him this strolling people received the name of *Faw's Gang*, which they still retain. A very circumstantial account of this singular race of men has been lately given in an *Inquiry* concerning them, written by H. M. G. Grellman, and translated by Mr Raper. It is incredible how this swarm of banditti have spread over the earth. They wander about in Asia, and Africa, and most of the European nations. Spain is supposed by Mr Twiss to contain 40,000, by others 60,000; and by some 120,000. But in Sept. and Oct. 1800, they were almost totally extirpated by the plague. They abound in Italy, and are scattered through France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. Europe contains more than 700,000 of these vagabonds. For near 4 centuries they have wandered through the world; and in every region, and among every people, whether barbarous or civilized, they have continued unchanged. Their origin has been generally believed to be from Egypt. Thomaſius, Salmon, and Sig. Griselini, have endeavoured to prove it. M. Grellman, however, traces it from Indostan, and the cause of their emigration from the bloody wars of Timur Beg in India, in 1408-9.

GYPHOPHILA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, in the decandria class of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, *Caryophyllei*. The calyx is monophyllous, campanulated and angulated; the petals are 5, ovate, and sessile; the capsule globose and unilocular.

GYPHUM, PLASTER STONE, or ALABASTER, a natural combination of the calcareous earth with vitriolic acid. See ALABASTER. The properties of gypsum, according to Cronstedt, are, 1. It is looser and more friable than calcareous earth. 2. It does not effervesce with acids, or at most in a very slight degree. 3. It falls into powder in the fire very readily. 4. When burnt without being made red-hot, its powder readily concretes with water into a mass which soon hardens; but without any sensible heat being excited in the operation. 5. It is nearly as difficult of fusion as limestone; and shows almost the same effects upon other

other bodies with limestone, though the acid of vitriol seems to promote the vitrification. Magellan, however, says, that most of the gypsa, particularly the fibrous, melt in the fire pretty easily by themselves. 6. When melted with borax, it puffs and bubbles very much, and for a long time during the fusion. Magellan says, when a small quantity of any gypsum is melted with borax, the glass becomes colourless and transparent; but some sorts of sparry gypsa, melted with borax, yield a fine yellow transparent glass, resembling the topaz; but if too much of the gypsum is used in proportion to the borax, the glass becomes opaque. 7. When burnt with any inflammable matter, it emits a sulphureous smell, and may thus be decomposed, as well as by either of the fixed alkaline salts: In this last method there ought to be 5 or 6 times as much salt as gypsum. 8. The residuum shows some signs of iron. The species are, 1. *Friable gypseous earth*, white, found in Saxony. 2. *Indurated gypsum of a solid texture*, or *Alabaster*, the particles of which are not visible. This is sometimes found unsaturated with vitriolic acid. It is easily cut, and takes a dull polish. It is of several kinds. See ALABASTER, § 1—3. Fabroni tells us, that various fine alabasters are met with in Italy: 24 quarries of them, each of a different colour, being worked out at Volterra. 3. *Gypsum of a scaly texture*, or common plaster of Paris. See PLASTER. 4. *Fibrous gypsum*, or *plaster-stone*, has two varieties, viz. with coarse or with fine fibres. It is white. 5. *Selenites*, or *sparg-like gypsum*, by some also called *glacies mane*, and confounded with the clear and transparent mica. It is of two kinds, clear and transparent, or yellowish and opaque, and abounds every where. 6. Crystallized gypsum, or gypseous drusen. This is found composed of wedge-shaped and sometimes of capillary crystals, sometimes white, and some yellowish. 7. Stalactical gypsums of many different forms and colours. In large pieces it commonly varies between white and yellow, and likewise in its transparency. It is used as alabaster in several works. England abounds with gypseous substances. There are plenty in Derby, Nottingham, and Somerset shires; so fine as to take a polish, like alabaster. A very fine semipellucid alabaster is found in Derbyshire. Fine fibrous tales are also found in many other places. Very fine gypseous drusen is found in Sheppey Isle, and some exceedingly beautiful, large, and clear as crystal, in the fat rocks at Nantwich in Cheshire. The selenites rhomboidal abounds in England, particularly in Shotoverhill, in Oxford, though rare in other counties. Sheppey affords spar-like gypsa, of a fibrous nature, and acerting like the radiations of a star on the septaria, and thence called *Stella septaria*. See CRYSTALLIZATION, § I, viii.

* GYRATION, *n. f.* [*gyro*, Latin.] The act of turning any thing about.—This effluvium attenueth and impelleth the neighbour air, which, returning home, in a *gyration* carrieth with it the obvious bodies into the electric. *Brown*.—If a burning coal be nimbly moved round in a circle with *gyrations*, continually repeated, the whole circle will appear like fire; the reason of which is,

that the sensation of the coal in the lever of that circle remains impressed on the lens until the coal return again to the same place.

* GYRE, *n. f.* [*gyras*, Latin.] A circle described by any thing moving in an orb.—

Ne thenceforth his approved skill to
Or strike, or hurlen round in warlike gyre
Remember'd he; ne car'd for his
But rudely rag'd.

Does the wild haggard tow'r into the
And to the South by thy direction fly?
Or eagle in her gyres the clouds embrace
He fashion'd those harmonious orbs,
In restless gyres about the Arctick pole.
Quick and more quick he spins the globe
Then falls, and in much foam his soul

* GYRED, *adj.* Falling in rings.—

Hamlet, with his doublet all unbraced
No hat upon his head, his stockings loose
Unarter'd, and down gyred to his ankle
GYRFALCO. See FALCO, N° 31.

GYRINUS, in zoology, a genus of the coleoptera order. See PLATE CLXXI. The antennæ are cylindrical, stiff, and form the head; the eyes are 4, two on the upper part and two on the under part of the head. Three species.

GYRINUS NATATOR, the common one, is one third of an inch long; of a bright blue colour; the feet yellow, flat, and large. It runs with great celerity in circles on the surface of the water, and is very difficult to catch.

GYROMANCY, *n. f.* [from *gyro*, round, and *manus*, magic,] a kind of divination performed by walking round in a circle.

GYRON, in heraldry, an ordinary of straight lines, issuing from divers parts of the chevron, and meeting in the Fesse point.

GYRT, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothl.
GYSIORN, a town of Lunenburg, over Aller. Lon. 50. 45. E. Lat. 51. 50. N.
GYSSONE, a town of Corsica.

* To GYVE, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To shackle; to enchain; to enslave.—as little a web as this, will I enslave as you as Cassio. Ay, smile upon her, do. I'd thee in thine own courtship. *Shak. Othello*

* GYVES, *n. f.* [*gewyn*, Welsh] Fetters for the legs.—The villains warched wide the legs, as if they had gyves on. *Shak.*

And knowing this, should I yet stay,
Like such as blow away their lives,
And never will redeem a day,

Enamour'd of their golden gyves? *Ben Jonson*
—The poor prisoners, boldly starting up
off their chains and gyves. *Kneller.*

Gyves and the mill had tam'd thee.
But Telamon ruth'd in, and hap'd to
A rising rout, that held his fasten'd feet
So down he fell, whom spawling on the
His brother from the wooden gyves un-

GYZEH, a town of Egypt, near which the French removed the national office from that city, in March 1800.

